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COMPARATIVE CRITICAL READING AND ITS EFFECT ON ARGUMENTATIVE ASSAY WRITING PERFORMANCE OF IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS

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ABSTRACT
THIS STUDY TRIED TO FIND OUT THE EFFECT OF COMPARATIVE CRITICAL READING ON ARGUMENTATIVE ASSAY WRITING PERFORMANCE OF IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS. IN ORDER TO RUN THE STUDY 60 PARTICIPANTS AT INTERMEDIATE LEVEL WERE RANDOMLY ASSIGNED TO TWO EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS. THE PARTICIPANTS IN THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP EXPERIENCED TREATMENT WHICH WAS CRITICAL READING BY COMPARING TEXTS. WHERE AS THE MEMBERS OF THE CONTROL GROUP RECEIVED PLACEBO WHICH WAS READING TEXTS IN THE TRADITIONAL WAY. FINDINGS OF THE STUDY REVEALED THAT PRACTICING COMPARATIVE CRITICAL READING HAD A SIGNIFICANT EFFECT ON THE IMPROVEMENT OF THE ARGUMENTATIVE ESSAY WRITING OF THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP.

KEY WORDS: WRITING ABILITY, ARGUMENTATIVE ESSAYS, CRITICAL READING

1. Introduction

In the twentieth century, the ability to engage in careful, reflective thought has been viewed in various ways: as a fundamental characteristic of a foreign language learner, as a requirement for responsible citizenship in a democratic society, and more recently, as on employability skill for an increasingly wide range of jobs. Luke and Elkins (2002) believe that teaching EFL / learners to become effective Thinkers is increasingly recognized as an immediate goal of teaching.

If learners are going to function successfully in a highly technical society, They must equip with lifelong thinking skills necessary to acquire and process information in an ever – changing world of the many concepts related to acquisition and improvement of critical thinking, self-awareness is one of the most important factors.

Schallert and Reed (2004) subscribe to the view that reading skill as an evaluative tool can serve a pivotal role in bringing the spirit of self-awareness and criticality to language classes. Therefore EFL learners should learn how to engage in the process of critical reading.

Hirvela (2004) subscribes to the view that reading to write is based on the notion that reading supports and shapes L2 learners. Reading is not merely useful for enhancing L2 learner's writing ability in a general sense. Also, through reading, learners are given opportunities in writing classrooms to acquire

knowledge of vocabulary, grammatical structures, or rhetorical features of the texts. Pedagogically, there are numerous teaching practices suggested for reading to write, including rhetorical reading, modeling approach, extensive reading, and critical reading as a recently far – reaching strategy in academic writing.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Writing

Writing goals, like those in the other three language skills, vary with the teacher. Some teachers focus almost entirely on the language itself, some on communication , and others on both the forms and the message. On the linguistic level the goal is to learn to make the letters and to acquire the facility to manipulate the grammatical forms accurately. On the communication level, the goal is to adapt the goals of the writer to the needs of the reader (Spack,1984). Writers should consider the reader; the effect they want to achieve (informing, instructing, persuading); the relationship they want to establish with the reader; the "creation of meaning"; and the use of language and the correctness of grammar.

Obviously, writing to communicate can be possible only when students have sufficient control of the writing system and the grammar to make themselves understood. The unresolved question is what degree of linguistic accuracy the teacher should expect of the students. Is the goal to learn to write on a level at which they can communicate their thoughts to a native speaker? If so, the teacher accepts the premise that language is a communicative system, not a perfectible one, and that native speakers in most cases have such a high degree of fluency in their own language that they can comprehend students' imperfect writing. If the goal is to learn to communicate in writing while at the same time focusing on linguistic accuracy, the teacher believes that grammatical correctness is an inseparable and necessary component of communication, especially in the educational context.

Given this difference of opinion, perhaps the best position to take is a flexible one. The teacher can reasonably expect a more accurate performance from a gifted language student than from one who is on the other end of the spectrum. He may choose different standards of performance for students studying the language as a requirement and those who are specializing in the language. He may justifiably make distinctions between those students who want to be corrected and those who do not. In other words, the teacher may vary his approach as long as what he does is consistent with the students' needs and goals. Insisting on grammatical perfectibility in the case of struggling students or those with low self-esteem may lead only to a reluctance to participate in those very activities needed to give them the confidence they must have to continue. At the same time, refusing to correct gifted, conscientious students who want to do everything as perfectly as possible may lead to their failing to put forth their best efforts in a course that fails, in their view, to maintain high academic standards.

The long – term practical goal must be the ability to use the learned materials to communicate a message that a native speaker can understand. This applies to any course, with the accuracy requirements rising as the students advance in their study of and practice with the language and in relation to the students' abilities. Short term goals are identical except that they apply to specific segments of material. As soon as students complete the first chapter of their introductory course, the teacher should assign a writing task that requires them to communicate their ideas in the second language. Of course, these first attempts at writing are rather short and simple, but with time and weekly practice they will become longer and more complex. The important point is that the students practice writing about the content of each chapter in their texts before moving on to the next.

2.2. Reading

As is true for the other three language skills, reading is a process involving the activation of relevant knowledge and related language skills to accomplish an exchange of information from one person to another. Reading requires that the reader focus attention on the reading materials and integrate

previously acquired knowledge and skills to comprehend what someone else has written. Sometimes erroneously called a passive skill because the reader does not produce messages in the same sense as a speaker or writer, reading nevertheless requires active mental processing for communication to occur. Thus, referring to reading as a passive skill perpetuates a misconception that can only mislead students and harm their perception of what their role in the reading process is.

Reading is a receptive skill in that the reader is receiving a message from a writer. In the past various writers have also referred to reading as a decoding skill. This terminology derives from the idea of language as a code, one which must be deciphered to arrive at the meaning of the message. Although this term points out the active role the reader must play in reading, it does not tell the whole story. Recent researchers in reading describe the reading process in a way that implies an active reader intent upon using background knowledge and skills to recreate the writer's intended meaning. Perfetti (1984), for example, defines reading as "thinking guided by print."

Reading is a basic and complementary skill in language learning. Second language students need to learn to read for communication and to read greater and greater quantities of authentic materials. Students can probably learn to read more easily than they can acquire any other skill, and they can use reading materials as a primary source of comprehensible input as they learn the language.

2.3. Critical Reading

Wallace (2002) believes that critical reading pays attention to social and ideological factors which mediate readers ' access to text .Critical reading is concerned less with the individual author's communicative intent than with ideological effect: the claim is that readers need not accept the words on the page as given, but that a range of interpretations are legitimate .Second language (L2) readers may bring different kinds of cultural and ideological assumptions to bear on L2 texts. There by offering fruitful challenges to mainstream or conventional readings sometime we read just for pleasure or entertainment: sometimes we read to obtain information, taking it, for granted that the information is reliable. However, critical reading means analyzing, evaluating, and making judgments on the basis of what we read.

According to Wallace (2003),critical reading has important payoffs in term of foreign language learning in two particular ways .The first approach is downward-looking criticality which refers to the extended discussion of texts which allows learners to draw more fully on their existing linguistic resources and to stretch them at the same time .In this approach ,improved grammatical accuracy is a likely outcome as learners search for clarity and precision ,Through the second approach called upward –looking criticality ,language learners are encouraged to question the institutional frameworks of their classroom and their lives .

Nonetheless .it should be noted that teachers are often less comfortable with the second approach. Since the class follows a socially constructed atmosphere, students may challenge the class and feel free to subvert The teacher's pre-determined practices.

Reading texts comparatively in a dialogical perspective (reader-author interaction) is considered as a key strategy for practicing critical reading in an EFL context .Discussing main ideas ,distinguishing facts and opinions ,and analyzing different endings by two different writers about the same topic provide more reliable links to other language skills. Furthermore, exploring likenesses and differences between texts can help readers understand them better .Comparative critical reading strategy, more than other strategies ,offers opportunities to challenges writers' issues directly.

Comparative critical reading instruction is explicitly of dual purpose. It serves both to improve learners 'ability to understand text that they read and to develop their own writing as a social act (Kurland,2000)When language learners see how they draw meaning from others ,they can see how to instill meaning in their own work .In other words ,Flynn (1999)introduces comparative critical reading

instruction as an explicitly dual-purpose strategy which serves both to improve learners' ability to understand texts and to develop their writing ability .

At the start of 21st century ,learner –centered courses have continued to dominate writing classes where writing is view as a social activity with communicative ends. Learning the processes of writing ,particularly for learners in foreign language setting seems to be a very complex task. They have to make a great effort in dealing with structural issues such as selecting appropriate lexical items and grammatical structures and generating and developing ideas about different topics. Moreover ,they to overcome their problems with functional ,teachers should help the learners to express themselves freely ,involve in classroom interaction and develop their skills to become autonomous writers .The suggestion here is that by identifying constructive strategies. Teacher can facilitate meaning fall and productive writing. Comparative reading strategy is one of those which is believed to foster writing in EFL learners.

Hence this study set out to examine the effect of comparative critical reading strategy on intermediate Iranian EFL learners' writing achievement .In order to investigate the effect of such strategies on the writing ability of the learners the following research questions were proposed.

1-Is there any difference between the writing achievement of the students who read texts through comparative critical reading activities and those who practice reading through the traditional method?

2-Is there any difference between the reading ability of the students who read texts critically and those who read in the traditional method?

2.4. Objective of the Study

This study hopes to have an effective outcome to improve and facilitate the Iranian EFL learners' writing ability. This study tries to investigate to what extent the presence or absence of comparative critical reading in writing classes effects Iranian EFL learners' argumentative assay writing performance.

So, this study aspired to find answer to the following research question:

RQ: Is there any significant difference between argumentative essay writing performance of students who undergo comparative critical reading and that of students who are involved in normal reading activities?

3. Method

3.1. Participants

The participants of this study were 60 adult Iranian EFL learners who were studying at a language center in Rasht. They were 25 male and 35 female students whose ages ranged from 19 to 27 and were at intermediate level of language proficiency. The participants were divided randomly into two groups, that is, the experimental and control groups. The experimental group including 30 participants received a 20-session treatment in which they encountered teaching techniques of comparative critical reading through writing. The control group including 30 participants received a 20-session placebo.

3.2. Materials and Instruments

To answer the research question and to test the hypothesis of the study, the following instruments and materials were used:

1- Quick Placement Test (QPT): QPT sheds light on the learners' language level. In order to make up a homogeneous group in terms of the participants' general proficiency, QPT (Version 2) was administered. The test consisted of 40 items. A total number of 85 learners took QPT and among them 60 learners who got the scores within the range of 24-30 were recognized as being at lower intermediate-level and were

selected as the participants of this study. The questions of the test were taken from 'Oxford University Press and University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate'.

2- Pretest: The goal of this test that was given before the treatment was to discover the possible initial differences between the writing ability of the experimental and control groups. A reading test was used to specifically verify the reading ability of the participants. This test was developed by the researchers and was mainly based on the previous materials the learners had studied. Additionally, the participants were asked to write a four – paragraph composition on: "Fiction or non – fiction: which kind of books do you prefer to read? Support your reasons". The writings, then, were rated by two raters based on the writing profile proposed by IELTS (1981), and those who scored one standard deviation above and below the mean were randomly assigned to two experimental and control groups. However, prior to administering the reading test, the test was piloted and proved to be reliable and valid measures of the traits they intended to measure.

3- Posttest: This test which was administered after the treatment sessions was equal in all respects to pre-test.

3.3. Procedures for Data Collection and Analysis

This research was conducted in April, 2015. At the outset, a homogeneity test in terms of the participants' general proficiency was administered. In regard to making a homogeneous group, the researcher used QPT (Version2) for the overall number of 85 learners who were studying English as a foreign language in an institute in Raht, Iran. The allowed time for this test was 30 minutes. Among the total number of learners who sat for this test, 60 learners got the scores within the range of 24-30 and were considered for being in the lower intermediate-level and were selected as the participants of this study. Therefore, these 60 participants remained and the scores of other students were excluded from the data analysis in the remaining phases of this study. A pretest piloted before was then administered. It required the participants to write a composition on a selected topic. The writings were rated by two raters based on the writing profile proposed by IELTS (1981). Then, experimental group received a 20-session treatment through which the participants encountered teaching techniques of comparative critical reading through writing. The treatment took 7 weeks, 3 sessions per week, each session 90 minutes. The classes were divided into two main sections: approximately fifty minutes was allotted to academic reading as the main part of the class and 40 minutes to academic free discussion on the topic of the lessons. During each session, two articles by two different authors on the same topic were presented to the experimental group. The members of the group were asked to compare the introductory part of the two articles, identify their main ideas, and discuss their methods of support. Besides, they were asked to compare the conclusions down by each author and to identify their different perspectives. At the final stage, the learners were supposed to recognize the tone of the language of the passages and find out whether the author ease biased. They were allowed to use a dictionary. In order to assess their understanding of passages, all learners in the experimental group were asked to fill in the Yes/No post-reading report related to each reading passage.

Alternatively, the participants in the control group received a 20-session placebo in their classes. They read two different academic reading texts with different topics. The routine activities of the class were reading, reviewing, reciting, and answering written questions. Similar to the experimental Group, all the students in this group were asked to submit a Yes/No post-reading report. After 20 sessions, all of the students were asked to write a composition on the same topic they had written about at the pretest. The reason was to scrutinize their improvement on writing ability.

4.Results

To select homogeneous participants for the present study, the Quick Placement Test was administered to (n =85) EFL learners. Sixty students whose score fell within the domain 24-30 were chosen as the main sample for the present study. Based on Oxford Placement Test Direction, scores in the area of 0-15 are considered Beginners, 16-23 (Elementary), 24-30 (Lower- intermediate), 31-40 (Upper- intermediate) The results of the QPT for (n =85) students are available in the following table:

Table 1.
Descriptive statistics for the **QP**T scores

Statistics		
QPT		
N	Valid	85
	Missing	0
Mean		27.58
Median		27.00
Mode		25
Std. Deviation		4.476
Variance		20.033
Skewness		.814
Std. Error of Skewness		.261
Kurtosis		.529
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.517
Range		20
Minimum		20
Maximum		40
Sum		2344

Table 1 presented the findings of group statistics and numerical information for the QPT scores which was carried out for selecting homogeneous sample out of (n =85) EFL students. Measures of central tendency such as the mean, the median, the mode and measures of dispersion particularly the variance, and the standard deviation together with measures of distribution such as Skewness and Kurtosis were calculated for the QPT. For the present study, the main sample included (n = 60) lower-intermediate participants who were selected based on QPT direction in order to select a group of lower- intermediate EFL learners.

The next assumption is called the homogeneity of regression slopes. That is, the relationship between the dependent variable and the covariate is the same for each group. It is checked to show that there is no interaction between the covariate and the treatment.

Table2.
Tests of Between-Subjects Effects for the Homogeneity of Regression Slopes

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	323.769[a]	3	107.923	108.768	.000
Intercept	47.638	1	47.638	48.011	.000
Groups	5.220	1	5.220	5.260	.030
covariate	141.425	1	141.425	142.533	.000
Groups * Covariate	.012	1	.012	.012	.904
Error	55.565	56	.992		
Total	11046.000	60			
Corrected Total	379.333	59			
a. R Squared = .818 (Adjusted R Squared = .835)					

In the Table2, the only value that needs to be checked is the significance level of the interaction term (shown above as **Groups * covariate**). The Sig. value is *greater* than .05 indicating that the assumption of the Homogeneity of Regression Slopes has not been violated. Therefore, the Analysis of Variance can be properly conducted to explore the differences between our treatment groups.

The results of the groups' descriptive statistics are summarized and tabulated in tables 3, 4 and 5. Table 3 presents the result of the descriptive statistics of the control group on both pretest and posttest measures.

Table3.
Descriptive Statistics of the control group

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
pretest	30	5	14	11.15	1.17
posttest	30	6	16	12.14	1.05
Valid N	30				

According to the above table, it is revealed that the pretest mean value of the control group for argumentative Essay writing was 11.15 with the standard deviation of 1.17. With regard to its performance on the posttest, the control group showed some degree of improvement on argumentative Essay writing measure [Mean= 12.14, SD= 1.05].

Table 4.
Descriptive Statistics of the experimental group

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Pretest	30	8	15	12	2.03
Posttest	30	12	18	14.21	1.18
Valid N	30				

Table 4 indicates the result of the descriptive statistics of the experimental group on the argumentative Essay writing measures before and after the treatment. Prior to the instruction, the experimental group had a mean value of 12 with the standard deviation of 2.03. However, it is revealed that its performance on the argumentative Essay writing measure improved after the treatment. It can be inferred that the instruction through Audiovisual listening tasks was effective in enhancing learners' listening comprehension [Mean= 14.21, SD= 1.18].

Table 5.
Descriptive Statistics of both groups on the posttest

Groups	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**	**N**
Experimental	14.21	1.18	30
Control	12.14	1.05	30

Table 5 illustrates the descriptive analysis of the experimental and control groups for the posttest scores of argumentative Essay writing measures. Findings revealed that the mean value of the experimental group on the posttest measures of the argumentative Essay writing is 14 with a standard deviation of 1.18. However, the mean value of the control group of the study in the posttest is lower than that of the experimental group (Mean= 12.14., SD= 1.05). Thus, it can be claimed that the experimental group outperformed the control group on the posttest of listening comprehension despite the initial difference in their pre-test mean values. Yet, in order to investigate whether the difference between groups is significant, the results of ANOVA should be presented and discussed. What follows in the next section is a discussion of the inferential statistics of the research.

Table 6.
Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances

	df1	df2	**Sig.**
.136	1	58	**.421**

Table 6 summarizes information about the result of the Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances. In this case, the assumption has not been violated because the Sig. value is .42, which is much larger than the cut-off of .05. The main ANCOVA results are presented in the Table 4.6, labeled Test of Between-Subjects Effects.

Table 7.
Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	323.757[a]	2	161.878	166.024	.000	.853
Intercept	48.247	1	48.247	49.483	.000	.465
covariate	143.490	1	143.490	147.164	.000	.721
Groups	144.852	1	144.852	116.431	.000	.711
Error	55.577	57	.975			
Total	11046.000	60				
Corrected Total	379.333	59				
a. R Squared = .853 (Adjusted R Squared = .848)						

The findings of the Table 7 indicates that after adjusting for pre-intervention scores, there was a significant difference between the two intervention groups on post-intervention scores on argumentative Essay writing performance, F (1, 57) = 116.431, Sig = .000, partial eta squared= .71. Hence, the ANCOVA has revealed statistically significant difference between the two groups on the argumentative Essay writing performance when the potential differences at pre-test were taken into account. To conclude, it can be concluded that the experimental group performed significantly better than the control group in the posttest which is indicative of the great effectiveness of the teaching listening comprehension through Audiovisual listening comprehension tasks for the enhancement of Iranian EFL learners' reading comprehension.

5. Discussion

The main point of this study was to examine the effect of Comparative Critical reading on the argumentative assay writing performance of Iranian EFL learners. First, one research question was proposed asking whether there is any significant difference between argumentative essay writing performance of students who undergo comparative critical reading and that of students who are involved in normal reading activities.

Consequently, this hypothesis was proposed that there is not any significant difference between argumentative essay writing performance of students who undergo comparative critical reading and that of students who are involved in normal reading. Based on the results of this study, this null hypothesis was rejected, which shows that explicit instruction of Comparative Critical reading effects on the argumentative assay writing performance of Iranian EFL learners.

Since writing calls for mental involvement and self-awareness of the language learners, the positive answer to the research question reveals that these strategies provide the required opportunity for the learners. Moreover, these strategies can increase the students' consciousness toward the lexical and grammatical structures of the texts and offer an invaluable practice to cater for awareness toward the rules and structures needed in writing.

Furthermore, by using these strategies in reading classes, teachers can budget their class time and simultaneously work on both reading and writing ability of their students. Teachers and practitioners should consider that this strategy not only buttresses the spirit of self-awareness and critical inquisitiveness among language learners, but also bridges the gap between reading and writing skills, especially by comparing texts which follow similar topics.

This is in line with studies of Schallert and Reed (2004) who have come to the point that reading skill as an evaluative tool can serve a pivotal role in bringing the spirit of self-awareness and criticality to language classes. Therefore EFL learners should learn how to engage in the process of critical reading.

This study produced results which corroborate the findings of the previous work in this field, and it agrees with Hirvela's (2004) view which subscribed reading to write is based on the notion that reading supports and shapes L2 learners. Also, through reading, learners are given opportunities in writing classrooms to acquire knowledge of vocabulary, grammatical structures, or rhetorical features of the texts.

The findings of this study suggest that with a critical focus on reading skill participants are given the opportunity to acquire how to participate in interactive reading, engage in academic writing, and question the underlying social and educational assumptions of the texts. However, achieving these major aims requires an extra effort on the part of material developers and Language teachers to introduce the principle of criticality to the textbooks and classroom practices.

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IS GUILAKI DIALECT GOING TO LOSE ITS SPEAKERS? AN INVESTIGATION OF THE DIGLOSSIC SITUATION IN RASHT

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ABSTRACT
MANY LANGUAGES AROUND THE WORLD ARE LOSING THEIR SPEAKERS AND ARE CONSIDERED ENDANGERED LANGUAGES, AND MANY MORE ARE DEAD LANGUAGES BY NOW. IN THE PRESENT STUDY, THE RESEARCHERS HAVE TRIED TO INVESTIGATE WHETHER THE GUILAKI DIALECT IS LOSING ITS SPEAKERS OR NOT. A NULL HYPOTHESIS WAS DEVELOPED WHICH STATED, "GUILAKI IS NOT GOING TO LOSE ITS SPEAKERS IN RASHT, THE CENTRAL CITY OF THE PROVINCE". FOR THIS PURPOSE, A QUESTIONNAIRE WAS DEVELOPED WHICH WAS DISTRIBUTED TO 110 NATIVE GUILANIES WHO WERE RANDOMLY SELECTED. HAVING RECEIVED THE QUESTIONNAIRES, THE RESULTS WERE ANALYZED THROUGH SPSS, AND THE CHI-SQUARE WAS CALCULATED. THE RESULTS REVEALED THAT GUILAKI WAS GOING TO LOSE ITS SPEAKERS IN RASHT, THE CENTRAL CITY OF THE PROVINCE.

KEY WORDS: DIALECT, GUILAKI, PERSIAN, DEAD LANGUAGE, ENDANGERED LANGUAGE.

1. Introduction

1.1. What is a dead language?

According to David Crystal (2000) a language is dead when there is nobody to speak it anymore. But as he later adds on, if the language is spoken by only one person, the language as a tool of communication is already dead, because there is nobody to speak to and the last native speaker acts like an archive, and when he or she passes away, that language vanishes forever. It is as if the language has never existed before. The language may continue to have existence in written form, but the language cannot be regarded a living language without any living speakers. A language is effectively dead when there is only one speaker remained, and the younger generations do not like to learn and use it. But how many speakers does a language need to assure its existence? It depends on situations. For example 500 speakers would be considered sufficient in Micronesian islands, but the same number may be regarded infinitesimal in a European country (Crystal, 2003, p.1).

According to Yamamoto, the survival of a language is determined by the percent of the people who speak the language in the society and the enthusiasm of the younger generation to learn and use it (Crystal, 2003, p.12).

The chance of a language to survive is enhanced by the size of the population who speak it, for example a language with 4000 native speakers is more likely to survive, compared to a language with 300 native speakers. However it is not what always occurs. As in Africa, Yoruba with 20 million speakers is

endangered and is called deprived, since it has come to be dominated by English, particularly in higher education (Crystal, 2003, p.12).

As Yamamoto asserts, the number of speakers is an immediate index for its dying out situations. Statistics reveals that only 8 languages (Mandarin, Spanish, English, Bengali, Hindi, Portuguese, Russian, and Japanese) have more than 2.4 billion speakers. Analysis reveals that 4% of the world's languages are spoken by 96% of the world's population. Or better to say 96% of the world's languages are spoken by just 4% of the world's population. One quarter of the languages have less than 1000 native speakers, and more than half of world's languages are spoken by less than 10000 native speakers. The analyses reveal that more than 4000 languages are endangered. It means more than two thirds of all languages of the world! Michael Krauss asserts that more than 90% of humankind's languages will die by the end of this century (Crystal, 2003, p.13).

1.2. Four crucial points that should be considered in language death:

1- The significance of using the language at home is critical, particularly in parts of the world where people reside in isolation.
2- Age is another important factor. The lower the average language population age, the more successful the parents have been in getting young people to speak it. An increase in the average speaker age shows that the language is progressing towards extinction.
3- The ages at which there is a shift in language use are highly significant.
4- Language loss is most observed during the early years of entering the job-market or after marriage. This is especially important for women, who are bringing up their children. Therefore fewer children are exposed to the indigenous language at home (David Crystal, 2003).

1.3. What are the levels of dangers?

According to David Crystal (2003) there are three levels: languages are **safe**, **endangered**, or **extinct**. To this, Michael Krauss adds a notion which has been widely taken up: languages which are no longer being learned as a mother tongue by children are said to be **moribund** (a term originating in the field of medicine) (Crystal, 2003, p.20).

Stephen Wurm (1998: 192) classifies the weak languages into five categories:

1. **Potentially endangered languages**: are socially and economically disadvantaged, under severe pressure from a dominant language, and beginning to lose child speakers;
2. **Endangered languages**: have few or no children learning the language, and the youngest good speakers are young adults;
3. **Seriously endangered languages**: have the youngest good speakers age 50 or older;
4. **Moribund languages**: have only a handful of good speakers left, mostly very old;
5. **Extinct languages**: have no speakers left (Crystal, 2003, p.21).

Some Features of an Endangered Language according to David Crystal (2003):

- A dramatic increase in the amount of codeswitching
- Grammatical features are usually affected by an increase in the use of inflections and function words from the dominant language
- There is a decline in vocabulary knowledge, especially in younger generation.

1.4. Why is the death of languages so important?

According to Crystal, languages are important because they promote community, cohesion and vitality, foster pride in a culture and give society self-confidence. Crystal believes that the concept of language death is important because:

1. Language diversity is beneficial
2. Language expresses identity.
3. Languages are repositories of history.
4. Languages contribute to the sum of human knowledge.
5. Languages are interesting and fascinating in themselves (Crystal, 2003, p 32-52).

The Russian author Ivanov (1992) believes that, each language represents a certain model of universe, a semiotic system of understanding the world and if we have 4000 different ways to describe the world, this will make us rich. Therefore, he believes that we should be concerned about protecting languages just as we are concerned about ecology (Crystal, 2003, p.36).

1.5. Statement of the Problem

Guilaki is the main dialect of the province of Guilan, but in recent years, it has been largely replaced by Persian in almost all domains, including formal and informal situations. Many younger generations do not learn to speak Guilaki, especially in urban regions. As Stephen Wurm (1998) mentioned "a sign of an endangered language is that few or no children are learning that language, and the youngest good speakers are young adults". In the present article, the researchers tried to probe the situation in Rasht, the center of the province of Guilan, and to investigate whether Guilaki dialect is an endangered dialect or not.

2. Review of Related Literature

Zolfaghari (2002) conducted a research in which she studied the status of Bakhtiary dialect in Masjed-Soleiman, a town in Khouzestan, a southern province in Iran. She devised a questionnaire including 32 relevant items about the usage of local dialect in the region. The questionnaire was given to several groups of people, differing in age, genders and level of education. The results revealed that in all age-groups, Bakhtiary was the preferred dialect. However, the older participants preferred to speak Bakhtiary more than the young did. In market-places and streets, Bakhtiary was mostly used by older people and Persian was more used by the young. People used local dialect when they were talking with the elder members of the family. People preferred local dialects when they were talking with their intimate friends. Men tended to use local dialect, while women tended to use Persian. Almost all participants stated that their parents spoke local dialects much better than them. The results also showed that people were not embarrassed to spoke their local dialect, which is a good sign for the maintenance of that dialect. It was concluded that, Bakhtiary was not an endangered dialect, as it was used by a large percent of people of Masjed-Soleiman.

Bashirnezhad, et al (2008), conducted a research in Amol, a city in Mazandaran, a northern province of Iran. They devised a questionnaire and administrated it to students in four high schools and to other participants who were 30 to 40 years old and older than 50. The results revealed that in some informal domains such as the family domain, Mazandarani is the dominant language but in the formal domains like school and office, Persian is the dominant language. In all domains, young participants tended to use Persian more often than older participants. Also, females, urban and educated participants preferred to use Persian, more often than males, rural and illiterate participants did. Attitude toward Mazandarani, especially among younger participants was not positive. It was concluded that Mazandarani was experiencing a process of gradual erosion in the region.

Rezayaty and Hamidoost (2014) conducted a research on diglossic situation in Rasht, the central city of Guilan, a northern province of Iran. They devised a questionnaire to investigate the portion of the usage of Guilaki and Persian. They administrated the questionnaire to students of 10 high schools in Rasht. The results revealed that more than 70 percent of participants spoke Persian in their homes. It was evident that Persian had replaced Guilaki even in home, which is the most private domain. In school domain, more than 96% of participants claimed that they used Persian in their classroom, especially when they talked with their teachers. About 80% of participants used Persian when they talked with their intimate friends. In neighborhood domain, about 10% of participants used Guilaki. In offices, about 5% of people used Guilaki. Totally, only about 5% of the participants used Guilaki in all of the studied domains. Results also revealed that men tended to use Guilaki more often than women did. It was concluded that regarding the results, there is not much hope for Guilaki to survive and it is an endangered language.

Research question

Is Guilaki dialect going to lose its speakers in Rasht, the central city of the province of Guilan?

Hypothesis:
Guilaki dialect is not going to lose its speakers in Rasht, the central city of the province of Guilan.

3. Methodology

3.1. Participants

Participants were people living in Rasht, the center of Guilan, whose parents were from Guilan and Guilaki was their first dialect. One hundred and ten inhabitants of Rasht were selected randomly.

3.2. Materials

Materials consisted of a questionnaire on the extent of the use of Guilaki and Persian. The questionnaire was adopted from Rezayaty and Hamidoost's research paper (2014).

3.3. Procedures

At first a questionnaire was developed based on the Rezayaty and Hamidoost's (2014) research paper, which investigated the portion of Persian and Guilaki use in formal and informal situations. The questionnaire was given to the inhabitants of Rasht, the center of the province, one of whose parents were from Guilan and thus Guilaki was their first language. Then after receiving the questionnaire and the test, results were analyzed through SPSS software.

3.4. Methods of analyzing data

Having received the questionnaires, chi-square was calculated in order to analyze the results.

4. Results:

Table 1. Chi Square

	q1	q2	q3	q4	q5	q6	q7	q8	q9	q10	q11	q12	q13	q14	q15	q16	q17
Chi-Square	21.891[a]	118.582[b]	68.691[b]	71.745[b]	10.055[a]	90.218[b]	14.964[a]	48.564[a]	49.327[a]	89.418[b]	78.291[b]	41.636[b]	56.764[b]	43.745[b]	64.691[b]	55.673[b]	67.382[c]
Df	2	3	3	3	2	3	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	5
Asymp. Sig.	.000	.000	.000	.000	.007	.000	.001	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 36.7.
b. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 27.5.

c. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 18.3.

Table 2. The language that I speak in home.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Guilaki	16	14.5	14.5	14.5
	Farsi	56	50.9	50.9	65.5
	Both	38	34.5	34.5	100.0
	Total	110	100.0	100.0	

The first question is about the language that people use in their home. In the first table it can be observed that only 14.5 percent of participants use Guilaki, 50.9 percent of participants use Persian, and 34.5% of the participants use both languages, when they are in home. This low portion of Guilaki usage in home shows that Guilaki is really an endangered language.

Table 3. The language that I mostly use in work

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No Answer	2	1.8	1.8	1.8
	Guilaki	9	8.2	8.2	10.0
	Farsi	75	68.2	68.2	78.2
	Both	24	21.8	21.8	100.0
	Total	110	100.0	100.0	

The second question is about the language that participants use in office. The results reveal that only 8.2 percent of participants use Guilaki in work, and more than 68% of participants prefer to use Persian.

Table 4. The language that I use to speak with my children

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No Answer	20	18.2	18.2	18.2
	Guilaki	4	3.6	3.6	21.8
	Farsi	63	57.3	57.3	79.1
	Both	23	20.9	20.9	100.0
	Total	110	100.0	100.0	

The third question is about the language parents use when they are talking with their children. The results show that only 3.6% of the participants use Guilaki dialect, when they are talking with their children. Children usually learn the native dialects or low varieties in home, and learn the official language in schools and society, this low portion of Guilaki usage is a sign that shows this dialect is endangered. As Crystal argues a language or a dialect is endangered when the younger generations do not like to learn it.

Table 5. The language that I use to speak with my parents

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No Answer	2	1.8	1.8	1.8
	Guilaki	25	22.7	22.7	24.5
	Farsi	63	57.3	57.3	81.8
	Both	20	18.2	18.2	100.0
	Total	110	100.0	100.0	

The fourth question is about the language that participants use when they are speaking with their parents. Only about 22% of participants use Guilaki when they are talking with their parents. Again it can be observed that the Guilaki usage is much less that Persian, in the informal environment of family.

Table 6.language to speak with grandparents

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Guilaki	35	31.8	31.8	31.8
	Farsi	51	46.4	46.4	78.2
	Both	24	21.8	21.8	100.0
	Total	110	100.0	100.0	

The fifth question is: "what language do I use when I talk with elder people of the family, (grandparents)?"

The results reveal that 35% of participants use Guilaki when they are talking with their grandparents. Again, there is a preference toward Persian; however the results imply that contrary to the young, elder people prefer Guilaki dialect.

Table 7. The language to speak with relatives

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No Answer	1	.9	.9	.9
	Guilaki	16	14.5	14.5	15.5
	Farsi	68	61.8	61.8	77.3
	Both	25	22.7	22.7	100.0
	Total	110	100.0	100.0	

The sixth question is "What language do I use when talking to my relatives?" The results reveal that only 14.5% of participants prefer to speak Guilaki with their relatives. The statistics show that Persian language dominates Guilaki even in the informal circumstances.

Table 8. The language to speak with intimate friends

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Guilaki	21	19.1	19.1	19.1
	Farsi	54	49.1	49.1	68.2
	Both	35	31.8	31.8	100.0
	Total	110	100.0	100.0	

The question 7 investigates the language that participants use when they are talking with their intimate friends. Only 19% of the participants prefer to use Guilaki when they are speaking with their close friends. Again it can be observed that Persian is the dominant language in this informal situation.

Table 9. the language to speak with neighbors

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Guilaki	17	15.5	15.5	15.5
	Farsi	71	64.5	64.5	80.0
	Both	22	20.0	20.0	100.0
	Total	110	100.0	100.0	

The question 8 is: "what language do I use when I am speaking with my friends?"
Only 15.5% of participants use Guilaki when they are talking with their neighbors. Again Persian is the preferred language in this informal domain.

Table 10. The language to speak during shopping

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Guilaki	15	13.6	13.6	13.6
	Farsi	71	64.5	64.5	78.2
	Both	24	21.8	21.8	100.0
	Total	110	100.0	100.0	

Question 9 is: "what language do I use when I go shopping?"
Results reveal that only about 13% of participants prefer Guilaki dialect, in the market, and Persian with 64% is the preferred dialect.

Table 11. The language to speak with colleagues

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No Answer	5	4.5	4.5	4.5
	Guilaki	13	11.8	11.8	16.4
	Farsi	69	62.7	62.7	79.1
	Both	23	20.9	20.9	100.0
	Total	110	100.0	100.0	

Question 10, "which language do I prefer when I am speaking with my colleagues?"
Only 11.8% of participants use Guilaki when they are talking with their colleagues, and 62.7% of them use Persian.

Table 12. The language to speak with clients

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No Answer	28	25.5	25.5	25.5
	Guilaki	5	4.5	4.5	30.0
	Farsi	65	59.1	59.1	89.1
	Both	12	10.9	10.9	100.0
	Total	110	100.0	100.0	

The 11th question is: "If you are a clerk, which language do you use to talk with your clients?"
This question investigates the use of language in the formal situations. Only 4.5% of participants use Guilaki when they are talking with the clients.

Table 13. The more prestigious language

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No answer	9	8.2	8.2	8.2
	Guilaki	16	14.5	14.5	22.7
	Farsi	53	48.2	48.2	70.9
	Both	32	29.1	29.1	100.0
	Total	110	100.0	100.0	

Question 12 is: "which language do I think is more prestigious?"
14.5 percent of participants has chosen Guilaki, 48.2% has selected Persian and 29.1% believed that both of languages are prestigious. As Wardhaugh argues if the speakers of a language think that their language is not prestigious or it is spoken badly, they are more likely to abandon it.

Table 14. The language that I teach my children

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No Answer	10	9.1	9.1	9.1
	Guilaki	7	6.4	6.4	15.5
	Farsi	39	35.5	35.5	50.9
	Both	54	49.1	49.1	100.0
	Total	110	100.0	100.0	

Question 13 is: "which language do I prefer my children learn?"
Only about 6% of the participants transfer Guilaki to their children, 49% of them transfer both languages to their children, and 35% prefers their children to acquire Persian. Therefore the next generations are not going to learn the regional dialect, and this will put the dialect in the danger of extinction.

Table 15. The language my parents use to talk

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No Answer	7	6.4	6.4	6.4
	Guilaki	55	50.0	50.0	56.4
	Farsi	23	20.9	20.9	77.3
	Both	25	22.7	22.7	100.0
	Total	110	100.0	100.0	

Question 14 is "what language do my parents use when they are speaking with each other?"
Fifty percent of the participants state that their parents prefer Guilaki. It shows that elderly people still prefer Guilaki over Persian, comparing with younger people.

Table 16. The language to speak to one's sibling

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No Answer	9	8.2	8.2	8.2
	Guilaki	23	20.9	20.9	29.1

	Farsi	63	57.3	57.3	86.4
	Both	15	13.6	13.6	100.0
	Total	110	100.0	100.0	

Question 15 is "what language do I use when I talk with my siblings?"
About 20% of the participants use Guilaki when they are talking to their siblings. Again Persian with 57.3% is the preferred language.

Table 17. The language that I encourage my children to use

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	no answer	13	11.8	11.8	11.8
	Guilaki	7	6.4	6.4	18.2
	Farsi	33	30.0	30.0	48.2
	both	57	51.8	51.8	100.0
	Total	110	100.0	100.0	

Question 16 is "what language do I encourage my children to speak?" Only 11.8% of participants encourage their children to speak Guilaki, 30% encourage them to use Persian, and 51.8% encourage them to use both dialects.

Table17. I am proud of speaking Guilaki

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No Answer	8	7.3	7.3	7.3
	Very Much	43	39.1	39.1	46.4
	Much	24	21.8	21.8	68.2
	Average	27	24.5	24.5	92.7
	Less	3	2.7	2.7	95.5
	Least	5	4.5	4.5	100.0
	Total	110	100.0	100.0	

Question 17 is "I am proud of speaking Guilaki dialect"
Results show that most of the participants feel proud of using the regional dialect. As Wardhaugh (2006) argues the sense of solidarity helps a language to resist a dominant language and survive.

5. Discussion and conclusion:

The results revealed that only about 14% of participants used regional dialect at home, while 86% used Persian or both languages at home. It is evident that Persian has replaced Guilaki even in the most informal situations. Home domain is very crucial in the survival of a language. The low percent of Guilaki usage in home domain shows that this dialect is an endangered one.

The results also revealed that 35% of participants use Guilaki when they are talking with their grandparents and only about 22% of participants use Guilaki when they are talking with their parents. Again, it is evident that Persian is the dominant language in this informal domain.

The results showed that only 19% of participants used local dialect when they are talking with their intimate friends. It is evident that participants prefer to use Persian even in friendship domain. The fact that people do not use Guilaki to communicate with their intimate friends is a sign that this dialect is in the danger of extinction.

In the neighborhood domain, 15% of participants use Guilaki and 85% of people use either Persian or both languages. The lack of Guilaki usage in this informal domain is a sign that shows Guilaki is losing its speakers.

Results showed that only 6% of participants transfer Guilaki to their children. Children usually learn their native language from their parents; therefore, there is little hope for Guilaki to survive in the near future, because the next generations are not going to learn and use it.

Results revealed that parents (the relatively older participants) tended to use Guilaki more often than the young participants do. It is evident that the previous generations speak the regional dialect significantly more than the present generation does.

Question 13 of the questionnaire asks participants which language they believe is more prestigious. About 14% chose Guilaki, 48% chose Persian and others claimed both of the dialects were prestigious. The attitudes toward one's native dialect can be a good indicator of its survival or probable loss. Unfortunately, only about 14% of subjects believed that their regional dialect is more prestigious. One of the main reasons that so many people abandon their regional dialect is because they believe that it lacks prestige and power.

The results are in accordance with Rezayaty and Hamidoost's (2014) research which has concluded that Guilaki dialect is an endangered one and there is little hope for it to survive. Base on the results, the null hypothesis is rejected and a new hypothesis is proposed: "Guilaki dialect is going to lose its speakers in Rasht, the central city of Guilan".

There are some solutions to this problem:

1. To change the negative beliefs about the regional dialect, such as: a feeling that the regional dialect is not prestigious enough to be used, or some fears of being judged as being rural, uneducated or from a lower social class. Unfortunately, many people avoid using regional dialect for the fear of being misjudged.
2. Using the regional dialect in local radio and TV. Fortunately, this has been done in Guilan, since about a decade ago.
3. Encouraging people to use the regional dialect in informal domains, specially, when talking with family members and friends.

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Appendix I

Questionnaire:

1. Which language do I use in home?
   a- Guilaki b- Persian c- both
2. Which language do I use in office?
   a- Guilaki b- Persian c- both
3. Which language do I use when I talk with my children?
   a- Guilaki b- Persian c- both
4. Which language do I use when I talk with my parents?
   a- Guilaki b- Persian c- both

5. Which language do I use when I talk with my grandparents?
   a- Guilaki b- Persian c- both
6. Which language do I use when I talk with my relatives?
   a- Guilaki b- Persian c- both
7. Which language do I use when I speak with my intimate friends?
   a- Guilaki b- Persian c- both
8. Which language do I use when I talk with my neighbors?
   a- Guilaki b- Persian c-both
9. Which language do I use when I go shopping?
   a- Guilaki b- Persian c- both
10. Which language do I use when I talk with my colleagues?
    a- Guilaki b- Persian c- both
11. In case of being a clerk, which language do I use when I talk with my clients?
    a- Guilaki b- Persian c- both
12. Which language do I think is more prestigious?
    a- Guilaki b- Persian c- both
13. Which language do I teach my children?
    a- Guilaki b- Persian c- both
14. Which language do my parents speak with each other?
    a- Guilaki b- Persian c- both
15. Which language do I use when I talk with my siblings?
    a- Guilaki b- Persian c- both
16. Which language do I encourage my children to use?
    a- Guilaki b- Persian c- both
17. I am proud of speaking my regional dialect, Guilaki.
    a- Very much b- much c- average d-less e- least

Appendix II

	q1	q2	q3	q4	q5	q6	q7	q8	q9	q10	q11	q12	q13	q14	q15	q16	q17
Chi-Square	21.891[a]	118.582[b]	68.691[b]	71.745[b]	10.055[a]	90.218[b]	14.964[a]	48.564[a]	49.327[a]	89.418[b]	78.291[b]	41.636[b]	56.764[b]	43.745[b]	64.691[b]	55.673[b]	67.382[c]
Df	2	3	3	3	2	3	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	5
Asymp. Sig.	.000	.000	.000	.000	.007	.000	.001	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 36.7.
b. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 27.5.

c. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 18.3.

EXPLORING PUBLIC EDUCATION CONTEXT OF RELIGION SPECIALIZATION IN DEVELOPMENT OF SPIRITUALITY

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ABSTRACT
LANGUAGE IS A SOCIAL INSTITUTION WHICH HAS A DIRECT RELATIONSHIP WITH BELIEFS AND RELIGIOUS VALUES OF A COMMUNITY. PROGRAMMES IN RELIGION EDUCATION MUST CONTRIBUTE TO DEVELOPING BASIC AND SPECIFIC SKILLS. THIS DESCRIPTIVE STUDY IS AN ATTEMPT TO EXPLORE VARIOUS DIMENSIONS OF VERBAL ACT AND CONDITIONS IN EDUCATIONAL SETTING AND THE WAY THESE FACTORS AFFECT EFL LEARNERS' SOCIAL AND RELIGIOUS IDENTITY. THE SUBJECTS OF THIS STUDY WERE 130 B.A. MALE AND FEMALE STUDENTS OF AHVAZ AZAD UNIVERSITY WITH THE AGE RANGE OF 20 TO 35.BY TEACHING ABOUT RELIGIOUS VALUES, SCHOOLS MUST ENSURE THAT ALL LEARNERS, IRRESPECTIVE OF THEIR LANGUAGE, AGE, GENDER, RACE, OR CLASS FEEL SECURE AND INFLUENCE THE GOOD BEHAVIOR OF THEM. SCHOOLS SHOULD EXPLAIN WHAT RELIGIONS ARE WITH INSTITUTIONAL GOALS AND OBJECTIVES THAT ARE CONSISTENT WITH THE OUTCOMES OF THEIR LEARNING AREAS. RECOGNIZING MORAL VIRTUES, SOCIAL NORMS AND REGULATIONS, CULTURAL VALUES (MAINLY SPIRITUALITY), AND PSYCHOLOGICAL DOMAINS, OPTIMAL STRATEGIES CAN BE ENHANCED.

KEYWORDS: RELIGIOUS LITERACY, CULTURAL DIMENSIONS, VALUE SPIRITUALITY, OBSERVANCE OF RELIGION, CURRICULAR PROGRAM

1. Introduction

Language becomes one of the most important tools of personal-social communication and as a carrier of culture. Different cultures present different sets of linguistic and semantic constraints on use of language. Each linguistic structure has certain social and pragmatic functions. Knowledge structures are domain specific act as a facilitator of information acquisition. Knowledge is the main character which enables the people to cope with their complex social environment. Anderson (1982) believes that knowledge about a domain has been shown to have a substantial impact on performance in that domain. The input and internal language processing, emphasize the role of linguistic environment and the speakers' inner capacity in interactional activities.

1.1. External-Rule Controlled Relationships

Individuals' communications in social occasions can be created based on spiritual matters with the cultural value connection, and religious attitudes. The more information sender and receiver share in common, the higher the communication context of situation will be. Their interpersonal behavior is

governed by individual interpretation, but in some cultures, the relationships are controlled by external or environmental rules. Context and relationship are closely interrelated with information acquisition skills and communication choices. In Moslehi and Ahmadi's view (2013), family as a social unit allocates the most and the deepest human communications to itself. Not only it is the primary source for the basic needs of the individual, but also it provides several opportunities for learning process, shaping attitudes, and forming beliefs. Family has a significant role in the educational aspect of its members, meeting physical, psychological, needs and transferring social values. The individual is familiarized with all the expectations of the society within the family institution. This recognition guides him towards determined behaviors.

1.2. Religion in Democratic Society

Religion is considered as a life spirit, and the main element in establishment of relationships which embrace the many religious traditions, institutions, and communities in each culture. All religions seek to deal with the best teaching devices to assure instructional development as their goals. In religion-centered communities, various religions influence social interactions and integrate their religious knowledge and practice within their other behaviors, the form of communication with religious and cultural groups. Lashkari (2002) maintains that besides Physiological needs, human has emotional, moral, religious, and educational needs and a healthy life depends on managing these needs and making balance between them. Religion is considered as the main aspect of shaping intrapersonal and interpersonal relationships in a community. Religious and cultural groups, attempt to enhance their spiritual areas of their lives through observing the divine rules and instructions to maintain the structure of their religion-oriented societies.

1.3. Exclusive Moral Values of Religion

Moral values can be intensified through teaching and learning about religious and other value systems. In an inefficient social system, it is necessary for the individual to work within that cultural domain and to conduct religion communication on a daily basis to succeed. The life orientation learning area, through programmes like religion education, and social responsibility impacts on the moral and ethical dimensions of learner improvement. Religious education areas can be sources of reinforcement leading to a good life.

1.4. Religious Views and Stances

Ethnic and religious identities concern where we come from and where we are going – our entire existence. These identities above all that, for most people, give profound meaning to the 'names' we identify ourselves by, both as individuals and as groups. They supply the backgrounds of our lives, singly and collectively, and are bound up with our deepest beliefs about life, the universe and everything. Islam is a major world divine religion of development and civilization with full attention toward education and training people for achieving social compatibility. The basis for achieving it is belief, reinforcing spirituality and moral virtues. The instructions of Islam make the social interactions more appropriate and effective. It is considered as one of the normative system with Muslims as its followers found all over the world, of every nation, color and race. The transmission of Islamic knowledge depends on the teacher-student relationships, with their habits. Islam teaches that the human can only find peace in one's life by submitting to the All-aware and Almighty God in heart, soul and action. Basic beliefs of Muslims are known as the Faith in the unity of God, hereafter, angels, prophets, and the revelation. There are implications for Muslims, in terms of making cultural, political, social, and economic connections with other communities, developing into Islamic movement.

1.5. Religion and Society

In modern societies, there are economic factors, such as employment, training opportunities, and housing conditions, which are summarized in terms of religion or presumed religion. The religious aspect is one of the areas of human connections and social cooperation. Such a religion with its specific value system facilitates associations. Through connecting the material and spiritual worlds together, faith

guides the individual towards the straight path and keeping the balance between the personal interests and social needs. There is a unification among the members of the Islamic community. Moral and religious obligations are a mirror of this unity and agreement.

1.6. Religious Orientation and Value System

Each religion represents the norms, rules, and expectations which affect various aspects of people's lives, such as choices of mates, dress code, and rules related to marriage, divorce, death, and the political and social outlook. Religious Value System has many effects on people's life;1-Represents the norms, expectations, and rules derived from religion 2-Affects various aspects of people's lives, such as choices of mates, dress code, refraining from alcohol and gambling, and rules related to marriage, divorce, and death 3- Also affects the political and social outlook for some As far as most 'ulama were concerned, the rulers' adoption of foreign forms of knowledge and education was acceptable as long as it did not trespass into 'ulama affairs. The separationist principle that lay behind this attitude reminds us that Muslim societies had long since developed a practical separation of knowledge and powers between rulers and 'ulama. The 'ulama were reluctant or unable to acknowledge the separation in explicit principle, since it contradicted the prophetic ideal of political and religious authority as a seamless whole (Brown 2000, Zaman, 2002; as sited in Farooq Shah et al. , 2015). They still found it hard to see nonreligious instruction as anything but "a separate segment of education which students are expected to deal with as a prelude to their real vocation" (Zaman 2002; as sited in as sited in Farooq Shah et al. , 2015). The transmission of Islamic knowledge had been abstracted from intimate teacher-student relationships, with their habits of dress, bearing, and deference, and repositioned in classrooms and quick-read textbooks (see Berkey, this volume; Eickelman and Piscatori 1996, 38; Starrett 1998, 9).

1.7 Identity-Forming Forces and Character Development through Religious Services

Nowadays, the subject of religious public education at universities has been emphasized and seeks to support students to develop their religious identity. Religious education aims to support students to develop their religious identity by giving them the opportunity to participate at religious practices. Because of the strong presence of Islam as a strong element, people in the Muslim world will continue to seek knowledge about Islam, and will view efforts to reduce Islamic education as an obstacle upon a divine aspect of their identity. Various religious groups offer differing views of the ways of interpreting and give different degrees of value to religious traditions. There are many factors relating to people's religious attitudes. Religious education in the Islamic institutions are strongly influenced by political, social, and cultural factors. By teaching students about the role of religion in society and the whole world, a multi-tradition programme can be an important dimension of a well-equipped education.

1.8 Social Dependency and Compatibility

Each society prepares its generation in the best way through increasing moral and spiritual virtues as ideal behavior and absolute perfection to guarantee its prosperity, organizes its educational system to achieve this goal and tries to make a positive correlation between cultural values and social compatibility in interpersonal relationships. It is expected that such measurements cause to shape a strong value system leading to mental health of the individual and society against cultural invasion. The most important factors in social interactions are the necessity for social life, economic requirements, legal obligations, and the emotional needs with respect to values, beliefs and customs of that culture. Therefore, social cooperation and reciprocal dependency secure shared moral responsibility.

1.9 ***Creativity in Structured Output through Higher-Order Skill Strategies***

Structured output is designed to make learners comfortable producing specific language items recently introduced, sometimes in combination with previously learned items. Instructors often use structured output exercises as a transition between the presentation stage and the practice stage of a lesson plan. Textbook exercises also often make good structured output practice activities. Structured output activities can form an effective bridge between instructor modeling and communicative output because they are partly authentic and partly artificial. Like authentic communication, they feature

information gaps that must be bridged for successful completion of the task. However, where authentic communication allows speakers to use all of the language they know, structured output activities lead students to practice specific features of language and to practice only in brief sentences, not in extended discourse. *Structured output* focuses on correct form. In structured output, students may have options for responses, but all of the options require them to use the specific form or structure that the teacher has just introduced. Also, structured output situations are contrived and more like games than real communication, and the participants' social roles are irrelevant to the performance of the activity. This structure controls the number of variables that students must deal with when they are first exposed to new material. As they become comfortable, they can move on to true communicative output activities.

1.10 Educational Strategies and Action Plans

Education is a programme for studying and as an important aspect of human experience and a significant subject in the school curriculum. Different styles of thinking are effective skills relevant to any role in life representing institutional grounds for developing a plan. Differences in speech and interpretation of experiences can be accounted for by differences in thinking and perceiving. Students need extensive practice of satisfying social behaviors and social interactions with authentic successful performance through interpersonal activity within a religious community. In the Islamic educational institutions that present primarily a general education curriculum, the subject of religion includes elements of Islamic manners and values.

1. 11 Contents and Assessment of Education Programmes

In each educational system, the effect of teaching on moral, social, and behavioral characteristics, and the relationships between environmental, social, and cultural with education are investigated. Religion may be presented as part of an educational program. Programs that teach about religion are oriented toward teaching students about the role of religion in the cultural, and social development. Students can get the opportunity to learn from religion in an orderly organized, and standardized way. Teachers need to access to textbooks, handbooks, supplementary materials, in-service training, and guidelines for teaching methods to develop progrramme in religion education. The main purpose of education and training organization is managing the social needs. Special training may be required to prepare teachers for discussing religion in an appropriate manner to achieve the educational goal of promoting students' knowledge on religion. Every effort should be made to obtain accurate information about different religions.

2. Review of Literature

Reviews of study on religion, and other areas concluded that some types of religious behaviors are related to higher levels of physical and mental health (Paloma & Pendleton,1991; Koeing,1990;Maton & Pargament,1987;Levin&Vanderpool,1991; Allen, 1991; Payyne, Bergin, Bielema,&Jenkins1991). The empirical researches examined have almost all revealed a significant relationship between an individual's religious belief system and measures of well-being (Matthews, 1997; Friedman& Benson, 1997;Aldridge, 1991;Larson et al.1992).

Randolph Byrd (1988) conducted a study on the causal effect of prayer on health measures. Patients in a coronary care unit either received or did not receive daily prayer while hospitalized from Christian prayer intercessors. The results indicated that the patients receiving prayer had less congestive heart failure, had fewer cardiac arrests, and were less frequently ventilated (p.829).

Cibulka, O'Brien, and Zewe (1982) experimentally examined, the study used data from 54 Catholic schools in eight U.S. cities whose students were at least 70 percent minority. Teachers, principals, and parents were surveyed for information about social behavior. The schools reported relatively few discipline problems, although some school officials reported that some individuals displayed disruptive patterns regarding "cooperativeness". This finding suggests that the students in the school were typical children who displayed the usual range of problem behaviors. Parents were asked to respond regarding their child's behavior since enrollment in the school. Thirty-five Percent stated that the behavior was greatly improved; 32 percent said somewhat: improved; 28 percent said the behavior was not changed; 4

percent said the behavior became worse. It was concluded that family background factors do not overwhelm school impacts and school factors appear to compensate for family background deficits.

Joseph (2004) believes that religious differences actually come to be built into the grammar of the language, and personal pronouns seem to be a preferred focus for such difference. But its more immediate effect is to mark the different identities of the sects that use the divergent forms, and to mark the identity of an individual as belonging to one or the other sect. In this latter regard it serves a double function: to inform the out-group of one's membership of the sect; and also, in many cultures, to allow in-group members to assess one's status within the religious system. This status can take the form of 'full membership', as when the young Jewish male signals his bar mitzvah status by his knowledge of Hebrew, or the young Muslim by his knowledge of Koranic Arabic; or it can be a matter of depth of religious piety,

Guerra and his colleagues' study (1990) emphasized the effects of Catholic High Schools on student values, beliefs and behaviors with considerable data on Drug Abuse. Those studies provide reports of surveys administered each year during the period of 1975-1985 to about 16,000 seniors at public and Catholic high schools from 125 schools. For the analysis of drug use, the researchers gathered information about high school seniors' values, pro-and anti-social behaviors, religious attachments and church involvement. The Guerra group was able to subject the 1983-1985 data to special analysis (including controls for parental education, employment, etc.) regarding Catholic students in the public and Catholic schools. They had a survey on 910 principals of Catholic high schools. They studied principals' strong emphasis in their schools on the three dimensions cited as central in the important document, to Teach as Jesus Did, namely: message (the teaching-learning of Christian doctrine); community (fellowship in the life of the Holy Spirit); and service to the Christian and to the entire human community. The principals ranked among their educational goals "building community" first and "spiritual development" (in accord with Jesus' message) second; they reported that nearly half (46 percent) of their senior students were engaged in some kind of volunteer service programs. The findings revealed that those who were considered the most devout, more personally absorbed in their religion, were far less prejudiced than the others. The institutional type of attachment, external and political in nature, turns out to be associated with prejudice. They concluded that it is important in dealing with religion to distinguish between two types of religious adherents. One type belongs to a church "because its basic creed of brotherhood expresses the ideals one sincerely believes in" (the "interiorized" or "internalized" religious adherents). The second type belongs to a church "because it is a safe, powerful, superior in-group" (the "institutionalized" adherents).

3. Purpose of the Study

Modern religious education aims at teaching religion through use of varied modern teaching methods. This research is an attempt to explore the role of religion in providing guidance on ways of living and the extent of its positive implications in the Islamic society. This study aims at investigating the effect of cultural norms and religious values on reinforcing spirituality as a divine element to reach perfection.

4. Methodology

4.1. Subjects

Subjects of this study were 130 B.A. male and female students of Ahvaz Azad University who were selected randomly. The age range was 20-35.

4.2 Instrument

According to the objectives of the present study, employing close-ended questionnaire was the best option for data collection. For analyzing data and specifying Central Tendency variable and Dispersion Index of the collected data, descriptive and inferential statistics (Correlation Coefficient) were employed.

4.2.1. Golzari's Religious Beliefs Questionnaire (2000)

Religious beliefs questionnaire measures the extent of commitment to the Islamic religious beliefs. For this measurement, 25 items were designed. Likert scale was used to rate the answers. Finally, it involves the effects of the verses of the Holy Qur'an on the individual's personal life. Sub-categories of this questionnaire include a variety of religious services such as the role of religion in solving the basic life problems, commitment to the religious obligations of Islam, and religious group activities.

4.2.2 Elkins and his colleagues' (1998) Questionnaire on the Expression of Spirituality Inventory

This questionnaire includes 90 items in five various s dimensions and each dimension divides into 15 categories. Our adapted questionnaire from Elkins et al. (1998) focuses on 10 categories including self-development, flexibility, self-knowledge, sympathy, optimism, independency, interactional relationship, self-concept, responsibility, and happiness. The rating index is based on Likert scale.

Cronbach's Alpha was used to calculate the degree of reliability of the questionnaires.

Research Hypotheses:

Based on the goals of this research, the following hypotheses were formulated:

RH_1: There is a positive correlation between the religious instructions of Islam and degree of spirituality of the learners.

RH_2: There is appositive correlation between dimensions of spirituality and beliefs to the religious practices of Islam.

5. Results and Discussion

5.1. Statistical Description of the Collected Data on the Spirituality Variable

The maximum score for Spirituality index is 5. The results indicate that the mean and standard deviation of the "spirituality" variable among 120 respondents are (3.76, 4.52). The minimum score and maximum score are (2.42, 0.583). The performance of the learners on Spirituality questionnaire was obtained high**.**

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics of spirituality Sub-Sections

Mean	3.76
Standard Deviation	0.583
Maximum Score	4.52
Minimum Score	2.42

5.2. Statistical description of the collected data regarding religious beliefs and Instructions

The maximum score for the "religious beliefs and attitudes" is 5. The findings of the study reveal that the mean and the standard deviation of the respondents' performance is (3.87, 0.695) and the highest score is 4.4. As it can be observed in table 2, the mean score of the religious beliefs of the sample is good.

Table 2.Descriptive Statistics of Religious Instructions of Islam

Mean	3.87

Standard Deviation	0.695
Maximum Score	4.4
Minimum Score	2.65

($p<0.01$)

In the present study, Pearson Moment Correlation Coefficient was used to investigate significant relationship between the two variables.

RH_1: There is a positive correlation between the religious instructions of Islam and degree of spirituality of the learners.

According to table 3, the results indicate that there is a positive correlation between the extent of spirituality and beliefs to the religious instructions of Islam. Increasing the beliefs to the religious instructions and practices results in learners' higher level of spirituality.

Table 3. Correlation Coefficient of Degree of Spiritualit and the Religious Instructions of Islam

Index / Variable	Correlation Coefficient	.Sig
1.Spirituality 2. Religious Instructions of Islam	0.440	0.005

($p<0.01$)

From the Islamic perspective, religious practices and moral virtues have a significant role in improving emotional intelligence and spirituality and the most important factors in mental health are faith, piety, satisfaction, preventing sin, and thanking God for his blessing (Lashkari, 2002).Therefore the more the religious beliefs and attitudes of the members of the Islamic society, the higher their spirituality and mental health will be. Koenig et al. (1997) found that there was a positive relationship between religious activities and practices, mental health and social responsibility. Religion affects mental health through creating social support, hope, life satisfaction, and optimism.

RH_2: There is appositive correlation between dimensions of spirituality and beliefs to the religious practices of Islam.

As table 4 shows, there is a positive relationship between religious beliefs and attitudes and spirituality sub-categories; including self-development, flexibility, self-knowledge, sympathy, optimism, independency, interactional relationship, self-concept, responsibility, and happiness. Among these sub-sections, sympathy, optimism, and responsibility have the highest correlation with the religious activities and services.

Table 4.Degree of Correlation Coefficient between Spirituality and Beliefs to Religious Instructions of Islam

Dimension of Spirituality	Correlation Coefficient	Sig.

Happiness	0.072	0.663
Independency	0.122	0.458
Self-development	0.194	0.237
Self-knowledge	0.285	0.078
Interactional Relationship	0.261	0.108
optimism	0.452**	0.004
Self-concept	0.036	0.828
Flexibility	0.141	0.392
Responsibility	0.403*	0.011
Sympathy	0.555**	0.000

P<0.05

Based on the statistical analysis, it was found that there is a positive correlation between spirituality and religious beliefs and attitudes. Learners with high religious beliefs have more sympathy, optimism, satisfaction, and responsibility than others with low religious services and practices. Religion has a significant role in education and development of morality. It enhances and controls spirituality directly. Therefore, paying attention to religion specialization in schools to increase spirituality is so important. Language as a constraint-based reflects the whole personal, social, and religious identities of individuals in speech community with efficient social interaction which demand different language behavior of people in different situations. Knowing the conversational and contextual cues, learners gain experiences and learn how to confirm or reject others and respect their own and others' thoughts, and try to increase their friendship regardless of their race, ethnicity, gender, and other group distinctions. In a more serious and personal way than other teaching-learning methodologies, role playing allows students to develop an understanding of others' point of view. It encourages students to work with others in analyzing situations and developing practical solutions. It presents a productive channel through which feelings can be expressed. Role playing simulation facilitates the development of language skills. Role playing and simulation create a safe environment which encourages genuine communication and active involvement. Students engage in real communication when playing their role and are so captivated in the activity that they forget about their doubts about using language wrongly.

6. Conclusion

All individuals' schooling, employment, spiritual and moral health and cultural status, are the basic concerns of a religious society. The interpretation of religious experiences influenced by personal and social effects in our life. Religion education is an educational plan with transferable values, skills, and attitudes. Family is perceived to be a major influence in religious development of their children through mere exposure to ideas on religious grounds. They build social networking by attending religious services. Islam is an inherited human religion which is a divine ideology for all people in each time and place. For establishing unification and religious interrelationship, the commonality in opinion and ideology is the primary basis without which permanent and pervasive unity cannot be created.

To be more precise, social, cultural, economic, and institutional factors enhance progress, and the learning effects in religious education of the students at the various levels of school and university regarding their understanding of religion should be taken into account. Teachers should be more conscious to help the students develop their perception and production process. The amount of time needed for higher order religious training should be sufficient to help learners develop such skills in a short period of time. The public schools should work to ensure religious practices and shape the views of the learners. Indeed, educators are able to exercise considerable control over student expression to assure that participants learn whatever lessons, especially the religious aspect of life to specialize the spirituality in achieving higher level of social compatibility.

Each educational institution is charged with the teaching of religion should give special importance to efforts to achieve good results in students' religious beliefs, moral thinking and behaviors. Use of visual materials; printed textbooks, educational movies, film strips, overhead projectors, and cassette video recordings, and group learning methods are effective learning strategies for improving actual religion instruction. Further studies needed to explore the relationship between teaching presence and learners' level of religion education when using message as the unit of evaluation.

6.1. Implications of the Study

1. Language policy and language planning of the state, educational institutions and organizations
2. Using propaganda and specific strategies of the Mass Media for teaching English as a foreign language for the all social classes
3. Employing modern technologies of teaching, facilities,
4. Cognitive, behavioral, and academic evaluation of teachers in teaching language and religion
5. Familiarizing the EFL teachers with the need analysis of the learners for facilitating the learning process
6. Creating appropriate social, cultural conditions
7. Reinforcing linguistic competence, talents, potential and practical capabilities of EFL teachers

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MJLTM

EVALUATION OF PERSIAN INTO ENGLISH CLAUSES AND EDITION BASED ON HALLIDAY'S FUNCTIONAL GRAMMAR EMPHASIZING ON TRANSITIVITY SYSTEM OF EXISTENTIAL PROCESS

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ABSTRACT
WHILE PERSIAN IS ONE OF THE LANGUAGES WHICH HAVE FREE WORD-ORDER STRUCTURE CALLED A NON-CONFIGURATIONAL LANGUAGE, ENGLISH IS MORE CONSIDERED AS CONFIGURATIONAL ONE. BECAUSE OF THESE PROPERTIES ALONG WITH DIFFERENT CONSTITUENCY PARAMETERS OF UNMARKED PERSIAN CLAUSES (SOV) AND ENGLISH CLAUSES (SVO), SIGNIFICANT GRAMMATICAL AND SEMANTIC ERRORS CAN BE SEEN IN THE TRANSLATION OF PERSIAN INTO ENGLISH DONE BY GOOGLE TRANSLATE; CONSIDERING PERSIAN AND ENGLISH CONSTITUENCY PARAMETERS AND HALLIDAY'S TRANSITIVITY SYSTEM, OUT OF 350 CLAUSES REGARDING PHD THESIS WHICH WERE GIVEN TO *GOOGLE TRANSLATE*, NINE BELONGED TO THE EXISTENTIAL PROCESS OF THE EXPERIENTIAL METAFUNCTIONS WHICH HAVE BEEN STUDIED AND EDITED FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF HALLIDAY'S TRANSITIVITY SYSTEM. THE ERRORS IN THESE NINE CLAUSES OF EXISTENTIAL PROCESSES HAVE BEEN EVALUATED BY AN ERROR EVALUATION BOX CALLED HAR, DESIGNED BY THE AUTHORS IN WHICH ALL THE CONCEPTS ARE DERIVED FROM HALLIDAY'S TRANSITIVITY SYSTEM. THE EXISTENTIAL PROCESS OF ENGLISH AND PERSIAN HAVE BEEN DIFFERENT IN THEIR TRANSITIVITY SYSTEM, TYPOLOGICAL MORPHOLOGY AND CONSTITUENCY ORDER, FOR INSTANCE, ENGLISH HAS *GRAMMATICALIZED* STRUCTURE OF "THERE + BE" IN ITS PROCESS, BUT PERSIAN HAS *LEXICALIZED* ONE; HENCE, THERE WERE CONSIDERABLE AND PREDICTABLE ERRORS DUE TO THESE DIFFERENCES WHICH WERE CODIFIED AND WEIGHTED BY THE EVALUATION BOX; IN FIVE CLAUSES OUT OF 9, GOOGLE

TRANSLATE FOLLOWED THE APPROPRIATE ENGLISH WORD ORDER OF *THERE + BE + EXISTENT* WITHIN WHICH TWO OF THEM WERE CODIFIED BY 12 MEANING THERE WAS NO LEXICO-GRAMMAR ERROR AT ALL, AND THE OTHER THREE JUST HAD THE ERROR CODES OF 5, 8, 9 AND 11 BELONGING TO GRAMMATICAL ERROR IN THE TENSE OF EXISTENTIAL PROCESS, OMISSION OF A CONSTITUENT, GRAMMATICAL ERROR IN HEAD/COMPLEMENT OF PARTICIPANT, AND IN PUNCTUATION PART RESPECTIVELY. SINCE ERRORS WITH THE CODES OF ONE TO SIX ARE DIRECTLY RELATED TO TEXTUAL AND EXPERIENTIAL METAFUNCTIONS AND ARE CONSIDERED AS BIGGER ERRORS, GOOGLE TRANSLATE DIDN'T HAVE BIG ERRORS DESPITE THE DIFFERENCES IN THE CONSTITUENCY ORDER OF THE TWO LANGUAGES IN TERMS OF EXISTENTIAL PROCESS.

KEYWORD: HALLIDAY'S SFG, EXPERIMENTAL METAFUNCTIONS, TRANSLATION EVALUATION, EXISTENTIAL PROCESS, *GOOGLE TRANSLATE*.

1. Introduction and review of literature

The past fifty years witnessed the fast development of Halliday's SFG (Halliday, 1994; Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004). As a theory of grammar, it is a resource of engaging with the grammar of all human language, and it offers an approach of viewing the grammar of a language in terms of how language is used. The grammar of language is interpreted as a system which helps people to interact with one another and to make sense of their world experiences (Martin, Matthiessen, & Painter, 2010).

Systemic functional linguists took the concept of translation as a relation between languages as well as a process of moving from one language into another . In either of the two viewpoints, translation could be regarded as an extraordinary complicated achievement of the human brain. According to Halliday, translation is not only a specialized domain of research, but also a sort of *testing ground for his theory.* He holds that his theory would be inadequate if it could not give an account of the phenomenon of translation. Since the founding of SFG, various linguists have adopted this theory to study translation, for example, Catford (1965) exploits Halliday's (1961) scale and category grammar which is an early version of Systemic Functional Grammar, and constructs a model of translation. He shows how translation could be seen as a relationship between units in structures arranged in a hierarchy of ranks and levels.

Although a theorized practice of translation was neglected for many years by both linguists and translation linguists (Bell 1991), we agree that theories can highly be related to translators' problems. Interestingly, the first issue of Rivista internazionale di tecnica della traduzione included an insightful article by Halliday on "Language theory and translation practice", where he strongly recommended SFG to translation, which he saw as a guided creation of meaning (Halliday 1992: 15). After a decade, we still maintain that SFG can represent a fruitful instrument for text analysis and for the production of a new text in a target language (Manfredi 2008). A growing interest has been shown, over the last decades, in a translation theory informed by Hallidayan linguistics. After an early article by Halliday himself on machine translation (1966), and studies by translation scholars who has applied SFG to translation for didactic purposes based certain aspects of the theoretical approach like Catford (1965), and more recently, Kim (2009).

Halliday (1992: 15), pointed out that translation is meaning making activity, and we would not consider any activity to be translation if it did not result in the creation of meaning". Hence, he adds, a language theory which is relevant to translation has to be a theory of meaning as choice. (Halliday 1992: 15). In an SFG paradigm, a speaker makes choices from within the total meaning potential of the language, i.e., its system. Each utterance encodes different kinds of meanings, which are related to the functions of language. However, the grammatical resources responsible for realizing such meanings most often work differently across languages.

Thus a translator, in order to accomplish his delicate task of interpreting and rendering a source text into a meaningful and effective target text, needs to understand all these meanings, and reproduce them in another language.

2. Defining research problem[1]

Since Persian has a free word-order structure, constituents can be placed in several different positions among which some of word orders will be unmarked and some other will be marked. However, due to the different word order of Persian (SOV) and English (SVO), and different morphological typology between the two languages, for example the existential process in Persian has *lexicalized structure*, and existential process in English has *grammaticalized structure*, significant structural and semantic errors can be seen in the translation of Persian into English done by *Google Translate*. Hence, due to the fact that the *Google translate* is an active translation site, and because of the lack of an appropriate framework for assessing the process of Persian to English translation, it seems based on Halliday's SFG, *translation evaluation model of HAR*[2], designed by the authors, can provide a suitable framework to assess developments occurring in the process of translation.

Here, in this article which is derived from a PhD thesis, we are going to investigate the transitivity system and morphological typology of Persian and English existential processes in nine clauses and evaluate them by HAR translation evaluation model.

3. Methodology and theoretical concepts

The research plans to investigate the grammatical and semantic errors of Persian into English text translated by Google Translate. This research is in the field of linguistics and translation which makes use of descriptive and exploratory methods of translation evaluation. In this article, out of 350 clauses which were taken from different abstracts concerning human sciences and were given to Google translate, nine clauses belonged to existential process which are reviewed here based on HAR considering *Halliday's Transitivity System*, *morphology typology* and *constituency orders*. At first clauses are categorized in regard with applying existential process out of other five processes of material, mental and relational, verbal, and behavioral processes, and then their errors are measured by following model of *translation error evaluation* to determine kinds and rates of errors applied in the existential processes of English and Persian.

Table one: translation evaluation model of HAR writer

Error code	Error description	Error weight
1	Misinterpretation of SLT (source language text)	8
2	No consideration of the constituency orders of PROCESSES with PARTICIPANT(S)	8
3	Misplacement of heads or complements of a participant with another participant	8
4	No consideration of Halliday's Textual Metafunction	7
5	Grammatical Error of PROCESSES in TLT	6
6	Errors due to Morphological Typology	5
7	Translation intrusive, retain SLT	5
8	Omission of SLT from TLT	4
9	Grammatical Errors in Participants or in circumstantial adjuncts	3

1 This research is functionally beneficial especially to translators and linguists because the scope of research has been focused on one of the most widely used *searching and translation engine*, http://www.translate.google.com/.

2 HAR is an abbreviation for Halliday, Aghagolzadeh and Rahmani; the authors made use of Halliday's SFG and designed a model by which every translated clause with every process can be evaluated regarding the probable lexico grammar error.

10	Inappropriate Technical Vocabulary	2
11	Miscellaneous	2
12	No Lexico-grammar Error	0

3.1 Halliday's different metafunctions

According to Halliday (1994: 15), a language is a complex semiotic system composed of different strata, that can be symbolized in a series of circles, where semantics is embedded in context, and lexico-grammar in semantics, Halliday calls these functions as 1- *ideational*, 2- *interpersonal*, and 3- *textual* metafunctions, where the ideational is subdivided into two components, i.e., experiential and logical.

In the following paragraphs the terms are defined but the focus for analysis of our data will be on textual and experiential metafunctions.

1- *Ideational metafunction*, it represents experiences, either to encode them (experiential) or to show the relationships between them (logical) which is activated by field, concerning the activity of discourse, realized in lexicogrammar by the systems of Transitivity which means *participants*, *processes* and *circumstances*; the most evident problems that come up when translating may seem to be a matter of words and expressions, translation is not only a matter of vocabulary, but also grammar plays a large and important role. (Halliday, 1978: 39)
2- *Interpersonal metafunction* are triggered by the variable of tenor, dealing with the relationship between interactants and their attitudes, and are construed in grammar by the systems of *Mood*, *Modality* and *Appraisal*.
3- *Textual metafunction* are activated by the mode of discourse and are realized by structural cohesive devices, such as thematic structure, and non-structural ones, like cohesion.

3.2 Transitivity System

The transitivity system is a tool for representing the ongoing experiences of the world in the grammar of clauses. It belongs to the experiential metafunction, concerning the strand of *clause as representation*. According to Halliday (1994), our experience of the world consists of *goings-on* which means *happening*, *doing*, *sensing*, *meaning*, *being* and *becoming*. All these *goings-on* are classified in the grammar of the clause (p.106). The transitivity system construes various domains of experience into six processes of *material*, *mental*, *relational*, *behavioural*, *verbal* and *existential* processes. Each process type has its own distinctive properties, though the boundaries between different process types are often "fuzzy" and "indeterminate" (Matthiessen, 2004: 172-173). Processes containing only one participant are called *intransitive* clauses, while those having two or more participants are called *transitive* clauses. Intransitive clauses are probed by *what did x do?* in which someone does something, but transitive clauses are probed by *what did x do to y* in which someone does something and the doing involves another entity (Eggins, 1994: 230). In other words, in an intransitive clause, the doing is limited to the actor (one participant), whereas in a transitive clause, there are at least two clauses (Halliday, 1994: 110).

3.3 Existential Process

Existential process represents that something exists or happens in the form of t*here is / was something*. The word *there*, has no representational meaning, but is required as all English clauses need a subject. Existential process typically uses the verb *be* or related verbs such as *exist*, *remain*, *arise*; *occur*, *come about*, *happen*, *take place*. This process falls between relational and material processes. (Halliday, 1994: 142; Matthiessen, 2004: 170).

The only obligatory participant in an Existential process is the Existent, referring to the object or event said to exist. The Existent can be any kind of phenomenon, ranging from *a thing*, *person*, *object*, *institution*, *abstraction* to any event. (Halliday, 1994: 143)

The main features of existential process

1- This process is between the material and relational processes which refer to existence of an entity.
2- In the existential process, something that exists and usually follows *there* + *be* in English is called as an existent.

3- This process in English is grammaticalized in the forms of:

Either as an unmarked existential process of:

There + be + existent + *circumstantial adjunct*

Or as a marked existential process of:

Circumstantial adjunct + there + be + existent

4- The existential process more often make use of "be", existential process, and sometimes use of other related existential processes of *exist*, *remain*, *arise*, *occur*, *come about*, *happen*, *take place*. (Halliday, 1994: 142)

5- The only compulsory participant in the existential process is the *existent* that refers to everything that exists, such as an object, a person, an organization, an action or an abstract concept.

6- In English, *existent* as a participant follows "be", existential process, and dummy subject of "there", but in Persian, *existent* precedes its existential process.

3.4 None/configurational language and word order typology of SOV/SVO

It has sometimes been suggested (especially by Hale, 1983) that the languages of the world fall into two main categories; configurational and non-configurational. According to Hale (1983: 5) the following properties, among others, are typical of non-configurational languages, as opposed to the configurational ones: 1- free word order; 2- lack of expletives; 3- extensive null anaphora (pro-drop); 4- syntactically discontinuous expressions; 5- lack of NP-movement; 6-use of a rich case system.

In linguistics, word order typology is the study of the order of the syntactic constituents of a language, and how different languages can employ these different orders. The primary word orders that are of interest are the *constituent order* of a clause – the relative order of subject, object, and verb; the order of modifiers, such as: *adjectives*, *numerals*, *demonstratives*, *possessives*, and *adjuncts* in a noun phrase.

In linguistic typology, SVO is a sentence structure where the subject precedes the verb, and the object follows the verb which can be considered as unmarked condition of English clauses. SVO is the most common order by number of speakers, and the second most common order by number of known languages is SOV. Unmarked Persian clauses are based on the order of SOV. Together, SVO and SOV account for more than 75% of the world's languages.

3.5 Lexico-grammatical units and meaningful chunks

A translator can identify different kinds of *meanings* through an analysis of grammatical realization. In order to understand the meaning of a text and reproduce it in another language, a translator needs to divide the text up into translatable units. If he employs SFG, he will be able to divide the flow of discourse into lexico-grammatical units and hence into *meaningful chunks* (Taylor 1993). That is to say, he can start for example with breaking down the English clauses into *Processes/ participants/ Circumstances*, which are the concrete expression of certain *ideational meanings /ideational metafunction*.

4. Data analysis

Considering different constituency orders of existents in Persian and English, and applying different structures of existential processes of lexicalized and grammaticalized respectively in Persian and English, there are some considerable errors in translated clauses made by *Google translate*, investigated and edited in the following *boxes of constituency investigation and lexico-grammar edition of unmarked and marked clauses of existential process*.

Persian existential processes must be translated in accordance to one of these two following English patterns of existential processes:

Pattern of unmarked existential process in English:

1- There + be + existent + *circumstantial adjunct*

Pattern of marked existential process in English:

2- *Circumstantial adjunct* + there + be + existent

First of all, six *unmarked clauses* of existential process based on the following pattern are studied and edited considering their constituency order, morphological typology and transitivity system of experiential and textual metafunctions: → *There* + *be* + *existent* + *circumstantial adjunct*.

Table two. Constituency investigation and lexico-grammar edition

There + to be verb	existent	***Circumstantial Adjunct***	**Target Language Pattern**

بین استقرار دولت الکترونیک با سلامت سازمانی کارکنان رابطه وجود دارد.			**SLT[3]**
وجود دارد	رابطه	بین استقرار دولت الکترونیک با سلامت سازمانی کارکنان	**SLT Constituent Analysis and editing[4]**
The establishment of e-government organizational health are related.			**TLT[5] (Google.Translate)**
وزن خطا	**کد خطا**		**Description of constituent error(s)[6]**
5 3	6 9		
There is	a relationship	between the establishment of e-government with organizational health	**Editing TLT considering textual and experiential metafunctions**

In table two, "وجود دارد" is an existential process, "رابطه", is an existent, and "بین اسقرار... کارکنان", is a circumstantial adjunct, altogether we have one existent and one circumstantial adjunct preceding existential process of "وجود دارد". To translate them into target language of English, contrary to Persian, we should use a pattern in which *existential process* of "there + be ", precedes both the *existent* and *circumstantial adjunct* as in below:

TLT Pattern: There + be + existent + *circumstantial adjunct* ⟶

There is a relationship between the establishment of e-government organization health.

tent is
source
language, as a priority, the Google translate must have used an existential process of *there + be + relationship*", and not the relational process of "*are related*", both equivalent for the source language existential process besides its existent; even in the translated clause with the relational process, there is an error code of 9, meaning there is a grammatical error in participant(s), because there must have been the coordinator of "and" between two participants of "*The establishment of e-government*" and "*organizational health*" translated by Google Translate. The second error belongs to the error code of 6, meaning the error(s) in Google Translate can be due to the different morphological typology of existential processes in Persian which is lexicalized and in English, grammaticalized.

Table three. Constituency investigation and lexico-grammar edition

There + to be verb	existent	***Circumstantial Adjunct***	
بین احساس همبستگی با رفتارشهروندی سازمانی رابطه معنی دار وجود دارد			**SLT**
وجود دارد	رابطه معنی دار	بین احساس همبستگی با رفتارشهروندی سازمانی	**SLT Constituent Analysis and editing**
There was a significant relationship between solidarity with organizational citizenship behavior			**TLT (Google.Translate)**
وزن خطا	**کد خطا**		**Description of constituent error(s)**
6	5		

3 In this part, the source language text is placed.
4 In this part, the source language text is divided into meaningful chunks to be compared with target language pattern.
5 In this part, the text translated by Google Translate is placed.
6 TLT done by Google Translate is compared with the *SLT constituent analysis* and *Target language pattern*, and then is evaluated, codified and weighted by HAR.

There is	a significant relationship	between solidarity with organizational citizenship behavior	**Editing TLT considering textual and experiential metafunctions**

In table 3, in the source language, we can see that there is one participant called *existent* and one circumstantial adjunct, both followed their existential process of "وجود دارد"; Google translate made use of "there + be" appropriately for its source language, but the tense of "be" must have been translated to present tense and not the past tense of "was", this is why the error code of 5, has been assigned to this part as a grammatical errors of existential process. Totally, by Google translate, the participant here existent and circumstantial adjunct have followed their existential process appropriately considering textual, experiential metafunctions and constituency order, and the only error goes to the tense of the existential process.

Table four. Constituency investigation and lexico-grammar edition

There + to be verb	existent	*Circumstantial Adjunct*	
تفاوت بارزي بين خشكي و خشكسالي وجود دارد.			**SLT**
وجود دارد	تفاوت بارزی	بين خشكي و خشكسالي	**SLT Constituent Analysis and editing**
There's a difference between dry and drought.			**TLT (Google.Translate)**
وزن خطا	**كد خطا**		**Description of constituent error(s)**
4 3	8 9		
There's	a significant difference	between dryness and drought	**Editing TLT considering textual and experiential metafunctions**

In table 4, the existential process of "وجود دارد", *has followed* both its existent and its circumstantial adjunct in the source language; vice versa, in the target one, the existential process of "there + be", *has preceded* its existent and its circumstantial adjunct. Accordingly, Google translate has used an appropriate pattern for the equivalence of TLT, but there are two error codes of 8 and 9, first belonging to omission of SLT from TLT (error code of 8) because Google translate used "a difference", instead of "a significant difference" and omitted "significant" in the *existent*, and second belonging to the grammatical error of participant (error code of 9), because Goggle translate used "dry", instead of "dryness".

Table five. Constituency investigation and lexico-grammar edition

There + to be verb	existent	*Circumstantial Adjunct*	
رابطه مثبتی بين عوامل تعيين كننده ساختار سرمايه و عملكرد صنعت بانكی وجود دارد.			**SLT**
وجود دارد	رابطه مثبتی	بين عوامل تعيين كننده ساختار سرمايه و عملكرد صنعت بانكی	**SLT Constituent Analysis and editing**
Positive relationship between the determinants of capital structure and performance of the banking industry **<u>there</u>**.			**TLT (Google.Translate)**
وزن خطا	**كد خطا**		**Description of constituent error(s)**
5 4 3	6 8 9		
There is	a positive	between the determinants of	**Editing TLT considering**

	relationship	capital structure and performance of the banking industry	**textual and experiential metafunctions**

In table five, in SLT, there is one existent and one circumstantial adjunct, both preceded the existential process of "وجود دارد"; in other words, in Persian, the existential process of "وجود دارد", follows its existent and circumstantial adjunct, but in English it can't follow, vice versa, it has to precede them. In Google translate, we see that the constituency order of "there" as one part of existential process has not been regarded and instead of being used as the first constituent in the clause, it has been used as the last one in the clause (error code of 6), which can be due to the difference between the morphological typology of the two languages. The second part of the existential process "be", has been omitted in the TLT (error code of 8). The third error is related to the grammatical error in the existent which was used without article "a". Totally, the constituency order has not been regarded by Google translate while turning SLT to TLT.

Table six. Constituency investigation and lexico-grammar edition

There + to be verb	existent	*Circumstantial Adjunct*	
امکان‌جذب اعتبارات مالي بيشتري وجود دارد.			**SLT**
وجود دارد	امکان	جذب اعتبارات مالي بيشتري	**SLT Constituent Analysis and editing**
There is the possibility of attracting additional sources of funding.			**TLT (Google.Translate)**
وزن خطا	**کد خطا**		**Description of constituent error(s)**
0	12		
No lexico-grammar error			**Editing TLT considering textual and experiential metafunctions**

In table 6, in SLT, existent has preceded the existential process of "وجود دارد", and in TLT, it appropriately has followed its existential process of "there + be"; in other words, Google translate could make use of the following pattern to turn SLT to TLT appropriately considering the constituency order and experiential metafunctions with no error.

Error code of 12 → error weight of zero:

TLT Pattern: There + be + existent + *circumstantial adjunct* ⟶

There is the possibility of attracting additional sources of funding.

Three *marked clauses* of existential process which based on the following pattern have been studied and edited:

TLT Pattern: Circumstantial adjunct +there + be + existent

Table seven. Constituency investigation and lexico-grammar edition

Circumstantial Adjunct	there + to be verb	existent	
در تعريف و چيستي ادبيّات تطبيقي، اصول و مباني، کارکردها، روش‌ها و رويکردهاي آن ميان پژوهشگران اتفاق نظر وجود ندارد.			**SLT**
در تعريف و چيستي ادبيّات تطبيقي، اصول و مباني،	وجود ندارد	اتفاق نظر	**SLT Constituent**

کارکردها، روش‌ها و رویکردهاي آن میان پژوهشگران			**Analysis and editing**
In the definition and nature of comparative literature, principles, functions, methods, and **approaches** among researchers there is no consensus.			**TLT (Google.Translate)**
وزن خطا	**کد خطا**		**Description of constituent error(s)**
3 2	9 11		
in the definition and nature of comparative literature, principles, functions, methods, and **its approaches** among researchers**,**	there is	no consensus	**Editing TLT considering textual and experiential metafunctions**

In table 7, like other clauses above, both existent and circumstantial adjunct have preceded their existential process of "وجود دارد", and contrary to above clauses (in table 2 to table 6), in the clause in table 7, circumstantial adjunct has preceded the existent while in clauses in table 2 to table 6, the circumstantial adjuncts had followed the existents; Google translate made use of the following unmarked pattern of existential process appropriately, and not only considered the experiential metafunctions, but also considered the textual metafunctions, and the error codes of 9 and 11, respectively go to grammatical error in one part of circumstantial adjunct ("approaches" must have been "its approaches") and punctuation error (there must have been *comma* after "researchers") in TLT don by Google translate.

→ *Circumstantial adjunct* + there + be + existent → (TLT) → In the definition and nature of comparative literature, principles, functions, methods, and **approaches** among **researchers** there is no consensus.

Table eight. Constituency investigation and lexico-grammar edition

Circumstantial Adjunct	there + to be verb	existent	
در مرحله سوم ویژگیهاي رشته تحصیلي و محتواي برنامه آموزشي قرار دارد.			**SLT**
در مرحله سوم	وجود دارد	ویژگیهاي رشته تحصیلي و محتواي برنامه آموزشي	**SLT Constituent Analysis and editing**
In the third phase characteristics and content of the training program is discipline.			**TLT (Google.Translate)**
وزن خطا	**کد خطا**		**Description of constituent error(s)**
5	6		
In the third phase,	there are	characteristics of field of study and the content of training program	**Editing TLT considering textual and experiential metafunctions**

In table 8, in SLT, there is an existential process of "قرار دارد", equivalent to "وجود دارد", which has followed the circumstantial adjunct of "در مرحله سوم", and the existent of "ویژگی های رشته تحصیلی و محتوای برنامه آموزشی". Considering the textual metafunctions, the first constituent of SLT is a circumstantial adjunct and Google translate has considered the textual metafunctions and put its equivalence in the beginning of the clause which such a clause in TLT is considered as a marked clause. Google translate hasn't used correct equivalence for the existential process of "قرار دارد", equivalent to existential process of "وجود دارد", and instead, it mistakenly used the relational process of "is", not equivalent to SLT constituent, this is why the

error code of 6 has assigned to this clause due to difference in the morphological topology of the two languages.

Table nine. Constituency investigation and lexico-grammar edition

Circumstantial Adjunct	there + to be verb	existent	***Circumstantial Adjunct***		
در نتیجه رابطه مستقیمي بین این دو متغییر وجود دارد .				**SLT**	**بند**
در نتیجه	وجود دارد	رابطه مستقیمي	بین این دو متغییر	**SLT Constituent Analysis and editing**	
As a result, there is a direct relationship between these two variables.				**TLT (Google.Translate)**	
وزن خطا		**کد خطا**		**Description of constituent error(s)**	
0		12			
No lexico-grammar error				**Editing TLT considering textual and experimental metafunctions**	

In table 9, in SLT, the existential process of "وجود دارد", has followed two circumstantial adjuncts of "در نتیجه", and "بین این دو متغییر", and one existent of "رابطه مستقیم"; Google translate followed the following marked pattern of English in which the clause has started with a circumstantial:

→ *Circumstantial adjunct* + there + be + existent + Circumstantial adjunct

Based on the above marked pattern of English, Google translate not only considered the textual metafunctions and like in SLT, put the appropriate constituent in the beginning of TLT, but also considered the experiential metafunctions and constituency order meaning placed the other constituents in their right orders and assigned the error code of 12 which means no lexico-grammar error in TLT done by Google translate.

Table ten. Constituency investigation and lexico-grammar edition

Circumstantial Adjunct	there + to be verb	existent		
امروزه، دیگر کمتر کسي است ...			**SLT**	
امروزه	وجود دارد	کمتر کسی ...	**SLT Constituent Analysis and editing**	
Nowadays, few people ...			**TLT (Google.Translate)**	
وزن خطا		**کد خطا**	**Description of constituent error(s)**	
4 5		8 6		
Nowadays,	there is	few people …	**Editing TLT considering textual and experiential metafunctions**	

In table 10, in SLT, "است", besides other constituents is considered an existential process, equivalent to "وجود دارد", Google translate hasn't considered "است", as an existential process, equivalent to "وجود دارد", and even hasn't regarded it as a relational process, and has replaced no constituent for it, this is why the error

code of 8 meaning omission of constituent(s) and error code of 6, meaning morphology typology difference, have assigned to this clause. The morphology difference of Persian and English can be relevant to this clause because "است" is a lexicalized existential process and "there + be", a grammaticalized existential process; However, the textual metafunctions has been taken into account by Google translate and like the SLT, the circumstantial adjunct in TLT has been ordered as the first constituent in the clause making a marked clause.

5. Conclusion

The two languages had different *word orders* and different *morphological typologies* in their existential process causing significant structural and semantic errors in the translation of Persian into English. From the perspective of morphological typology, existential process in Persian has a *lexicalized structure*, but in English a *grammaticalized structure*; and from the perspective of word orders, English makes use of a dummy subject *there* plus *to be verb* plus an *existent* within which the dummy subject *there* + *be* altogether make the existential process of English, but Persian makes use of an *existent* plus an existential process, meaning *existent* in English follows its existential process of *there* + *be*, but in Persian, the *existent* precedes its existential process of "وجود داشتن"; in other words Persian has the order of: *existent* + *existential process*, conversely English has the order of: *existential process* + *existent*.

In this article, we designed and tested a translation evaluation box of HAR from the perspective of SFG, an appropriate framework for assessing the process of translation from Persian to English; HAR provides a suitable framework to assess developments occurring in the process of translation because every clause can be codified and weighted based on probable error(s). Considering the transitivity system, word orders and morphological typology of Persian and English existential processes of the nine clauses and their evaluation, we can say that in five clauses out of 9, Google translate followed the appropriate English word order of *there* + *be* + *existent* within which two out of five were codified by 12 meaning there was no lexico-grammar error at all (tables six and nine), and the other three just had errors code of 5, 8, 9 and 11 belonging to grammatical error in the tense of existential process, omission of a constituent, grammatical error in head/complement of participant, and in punctuation part respectively. Since errors with the codes of one to six are directly related to textual and experiential metafunctions and are considered as bigger errors with more weights, we came to this conclusion that *Google translate* didn't have much big errors despite the differences in the constituency order of the two languages in terms of existential process.

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Appendixes

Constitution Classification and Edition Box

There + to be process	**existent**	***Circumstantial Adjunct***[7]			
				SLT[8]	**بند**
				SLT Constituent Analysis and editing[9]	
				TLT[10] **(Google.Translate)**	
Error Weight		**Error Code**		**Description of constituent error(s)**[11]	
				Editing TLT considering textual and experiential metafunctions[12]	

[7]According to textual metafunctions of Halliday's systematic functional grammar, circumstantial adjuncts may be placed as a first constituent before existential process and existent as bellow:
→ Circumstantial adjunct + *there* + *be* (existential process) + existent

[8] Source Language Text is placed here.
[9] The source language text, if needed, is edited and divided into chunks or constituents
[10] Target Language Text is placed here.
[11] The probable errors in TLT done by Google translate are evaluated by the translation evaluation model of HAR to codify and weight the errors.
[12] In this part, TLT is edited by human translator considering the textual and experiential metafunctions.

IMPLEMENTATION OF REFLECTIVE TEACHING TO IMPROVE LISTENING AND SPEAKING SKILLS: A STUDY OF UPPER-INTERMEDIATE EFL LEARNERS

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ABSTRACT
THE MAJOR PURPOSE OF THE PRESENT STUDY WAS TO SCRUTINIZE THE EFFECTS OF IMPLEMENTATION OF REFLECTIVE TEACHING ON IRANIAN UPPER-INTERMEDIATE EFL LEARNERS' SPEAKING AND LISTENING SKILLS. PARTICIPANTS (N=50) WERE SELECTED BASED ON THEIR SCORES IN QUICK PLACEMENT TEST (QPT). THEY WERE RANDOMLY ASSIGNED TO CONTROL (N=25) AND EXPERIMENTAL (N=25) GROUPS. TWO EFL TEACHERS, SELECTED BASED ON TEACHING KNOWLEDGE TEST (TKT), WERE RESPONSIBLE FOR TEACHING THESE TWO GROUPS. AT THE OUTSET OF THE STUDY, THE PRETEST (IELTS SPEAKING& LISTENING MODULES) WAS ADMINISTERED TO THE PARTICIPANTS. RESULTS OF INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST INDICATED THEIR HOMOGENEITY. SIMILAR SPEAKING MATERIALS WERE INSTRUCTED TO BOTH GROUPS IN A COURSE LASTING FOR SEVEN WEEKS (14 SESSIONS). THROUGHOUT THE STUDY, THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP BENEFITED FROM A REFLECTIVE TEACHER WHILE THE CONTROL GROUP WAS TAUGHT BY A NON-REFLECTIVE TEACHER. FINALLY, POSTTEST (BEING THE SAME AS THE PRETEST) WAS ADMINISTERED. RESULTS OF THE ANALYSIS OF DATA FROM PRETESTS AND POSTTESTS SHOWED THAT THOSE PARTICIPANTS TAKING BENEFITS FROM THE REFLECTIVE TEACHER PERFORMED SIGNIFICANTLY BETTER THAN THEIR COUNTERPARTS IN OTHER GROUP IN BOTH SPEAKING AND LISTENING SKILLS. THE PRESENT FINDINGS PROVIDE PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS FOR EFL TEACHERS TO REFLECT ON THEIR TEACHING PROCESS IN EFL CLASSROOMS.

KEYWORDS: *REFLECTIVE TEACHING, EFL, SPEAKING SKILL, LISTENING SKILL,*

1. INTRODUCTION

English as foreign language (EFL) learners appear to value speaking and listening skills. It is believed that they learn English for the sake of communicating with other people. As Ugla, Adnan, and Abidin (2012) claim teaching English aims to let the learner communicate orally and effectively. People across the world learn a foreign language in order to communicate effectively. English as the first international communicative tool has been widely employed for several decades (Graddol, 2006, as cited in Ugla, et al. 2012). Jamshidnejad (2010) argues that using English effectively in oral communication is, undoubtedly, one of the most common, but also highly complex activities people must learn for their interpersonal communication. Oral communication problems can be important challenges to effective foreign language learning and communication (Jamshidnejad, 2010). EFL teachers need to think of how to meet the problems their students encounter while communicating orally. They need to reflect on methods which can have significant effects on their students' speaking and listening enhancement. They also need to observe their colleagues' teaching practice and discuss with them on the relevant issues on teaching.

According to Pickett (1996) reflection-on action is when "the practitioner reflects on the tacit understandings and assumptions s/he holds and subjects them to scrutiny in order to achieve deeper understanding of instructor/student roles, motivations and behaviors" (p.1).Reflective teaching improves meaningful thought and discussion among peers (teaching faculty) about teaching and learning that will create appropriate change in curriculum and pedagogy (Pacheco, 2005). Jadidi and Keshavarz (2013) define reflective teaching as looking at what teachers do in the class, thinking of why they do it and thinking about if it works – a process of self-observation and self-evaluation. Through collecting information about what occurs in their classrooms and by regarding and evaluating this information, they recognize and investigate their own practices and ideas.In fact, Jadidi and Keshavarz (2013) explain, teacher reflection plays a significant role in teacher growth and should be a part of their profession. Reflection helps teachers look at themselves, in order to accept or change what they have done (Jadidi& Keshavarz,2013). Sharafi and AbdolmanafiRokni (2014) emphasize that through reflection, it becomes apparent that teaching is a profession which covers artistry and intuition, together with technical skills. It seems that reflection in teacher education has received considerable attention, and it is viewed as an alternative paradigm in teacher education (Sharafi& AbdolmanafiRokni, 2014). The present study with the aim of exploring the effect of EFL teachers' collaborative reflective teaching on their students' speaking and listening skills was conducted to compare the outcomes of two EFL classrooms: one taught by a reflective EFL teacher and the other by a non-reflective one.

1.1 Statement of the problem

Improving EFL students' oral communication is one of the major concerns of EFL teachers. Oral communication problems can be important challenges to effective foreign language learning and communication (Jamshidnejad, 2010). Jamshidnejad (2011) concluded that such reasons as L1 transfer, lack of L2 vocabulary and structure, false attitudes toward L2 and its native speakers, perfectionism, lack of self confidence in language proficiency, and fearing of losing face in front of others can cause oral problems. Effective ways and techniques need to be introduced into EFL contexts in order to develop speaking and listening skills among EFL students. The present study focuses on EFL teachers as those reflecting on their career. Teacher training programmers also seek to develop a reflective approach to teaching aim in order to improve the skills of considering the teaching processes thoughtfully, analytically and objectively, as a way of improving practices (Jadidi & Keshavarz, 2013).

1.2 Research Questions

The present study aims at addressing the following research questions:

1. Does EFL teacher's reflective teaching have any different significant effects on Iranian upper-intermediate EFL learners' speaking and listening skills?
2. Does EFL teacher's reflective teaching have any significant effects on Iranian upper-intermediate EFL learners' speaking skill?
3. Does EFL teacher's reflective teaching have any significant effects on Iranian upper-intermediate EFL learners' listening skill?

1.3 Research Null-hypotheses

Accordingly the following research null-hypothesis will be tested to come up with rational findings:

1. EFL teacher's reflective teaching does not have any different significant effects on Iranian upper-intermediate EFL learners' speaking and listening skills.
2. EFL teacher's reflective teaching does not have any significant effects on Iranian upper-intermediate EFL learners' speaking skill.
3. EFL teacher's reflective teaching does not have any significant effects on Iranian upper-intermediate EFL learners' listening skill.

2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Teaching procedure is so multifaceted and complicated but fascinating that penetrating into teachers' belief structures or attitudinal directions has become a dominant subject in classroom research program. Reflective teaching is helpful for both pre-service and in-service instructors. Since it has more strengths than weaknesses, teacher education platforms are becoming more dedicated to evolving reflective practices in their student instructors. These platforms try to help inexperienced teachers become more conscious of decision-making procedures to help them regulate the consequence their decisions have in

the background in which they are applied. So, knowledge previous to a "real job" makes professionals ready for a better performance. Beyer (1984) has suggested, Teaching, as Pacheco (2005) explains, is sometimes taken for granted and not as a tool for growing pedagogically in the field. It is amazing what things can be observed in this reflective inquiry and how teaching procedures can be enhanced. Indeed, reflective teaching is viewed as an enriching, empowering, and enduring process (Pacheco, 2005). Concerning the concept of the teacher as a learner and a professional, Rose (2007, as cited in Fatemipour, 2009) states every teacher has a professional responsibility to be reflective and evaluative about their practice. As a result of this reflection teachers will be able to identify how to improve their professional activity in order to improve the quality of pupils' learning." Reflection enables teachers to observe what is going on around the class. It persuades teachers to apply their thoughts and "promote changes in pupils' learning behavior." Reflection is also an important factor in cooperation or collaboration among teachers. "Reflective partnerships between teachers are particularly effective. Peer mentoring partnerships will support individual teachers in reflecting on and describing their practice. As a result of these focused discussions a teacher is able to better understand practice and be able to take steps to improve practice (p. 74). ESL/EFL teachers are faced with several issues in classrooms. Most of the rich data of classroom occurrences is mainly collected by the instructor himself/herself. Other contributors are peers, teacher trainers, students themselves (one of the richest data is obtained through them). However, these occurrences are rarely detected or immersed in some sort of reflection. Many ESL/EFL teachers are more interested in completing the lesson plan they have organized (regardless its effectiveness) and never stop and reflect. Their daily lessons can be observed from various perspectives in order to obtain insights on understanding their own teaching (through analysis and interpretation) as well as the effect teaching has on students, positively or negatively (Pacheco, 2005).

According to Wajnryb (1999) teacher's observation of his/her own teaching is a way of discovering the classroom from a perspective other than the one s/he actually engages in; it is a way of granting focus and clarity; it is a tool of gathering classroom-observation data and information regarding teaching. Self-observation provides meta-language to teachers (a language to talk about with other colleagues about classroom situations and procedures). She has highlighted that it fosters a raised awareness of classroom realities and a 'reservoir of information and experiences' that will guide ESL/EFL teachers towards discussions and reflections of classroom situations with peers, and the decisions taken would be more informed and systematic. In addition, reflective observation builds the groundwork for better relationships among colleagues according to mutual support and respect (Wajnryb, 1999).

In his study, Fatemipour (2009) under the title of "The Effectiveness of Reflective Teaching Tools in English Language Teaching" concluded:

- Teacher Diary was the most efficient reflective tool.
- Peer Observation was more efficient than the other two remaining tools (Students' Feedback and Audio Recording) in obtaining the data.
- Students' Feedback was positioned in the third place.
- Audio Recording was the least efficient tool in obtaining the close to the mean of all data (p.87).

Arsene (2010) in an article entitled " Teacher development through peer observation: the reflective approach" addresses three major models of classroom observation. These models include:

- Directive supervision relying upon a clear-cut power relationship, with the supervisor as an authority figure and the only source of expertise, thereby able to judge;
- The alternatives approach – is no longer prescriptive: the supervisor concentrates upon a teaching problem suggesting some alternatives to what has been observed in class;
- Collaborative model in which supervisor and the teacher share responsibility for the teaching decisions.

Hosseini Fatemi, Elahi Shirvan, and Rezvani (2011) in their study entitled "The Effect of Teachers' Self-reflection on EFL Learners' Writing Achievement" investigated effect of EFL teacher's reflection on their learners' writing achievement. Participants were 100 EFL teachers teaching in Mashhad language institutes and their 1000 EFL learners. The results manifested that teacher's reflection significantly influenced EFL learners' writing achievement. Teacher's reflection, according to HosseiniFatemi et al.

(2011), necessitates teachers to control their professional development which is a result of an ongoing process of self-evaluation and self-assessment. EFL teachers need to stop following predesigned methods blindly. The must challenge such methods and try to rethink them regarding their teaching context. Action research would help them to come up with their own theories and implement them in the classroom (HosseiniFatemi et al. 2011). Jadidi and Keshavarz (2013) investigated the relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' reflection and strategy-based instruction and arrived at the finding that teachers' reflection is highly and positively correlated with their views regarding the incorporation of language learning strategies in instruction.

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1 Participants and Setting

To answer the proposed research question, fifty upper-intermediate EFL learners from three language institutes in Torbat-e Heydarieh, Iran participated in the study. These participants were selected based on Quick Placement Test (QPT) developed by Oxford University Press and University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate (2001). Both males and females took part in the study. Their age ranged from 20 to 28. Their native language was Farsi. Two female EFL teachers with similar teaching knowledge were selected from among 20 EFL teachers through administering Teaching Knowledge Test (TKT). Here, one of the researchers served as the reflective teacher.

3.2 Instrumentations

The following instruments were employed by the researchers.

3.2.1 Quick Placement Test (QPT)

In order to select participants, at the level of language proficiency is upper-intermediate, a placement test, developed by Cambridge University, was administered to 120 EFL learners. The test includes two parts (60 multiple-choice items). Those learners whose scores were 40 to 47 out of 60 were chosen as the participants of the study.

Its validity has been supported in 20 countries via administering to more than 2,000 learners. The standard error of measurement (SEM) of the test has been calculated which is around 4; also its reliability indexes are close to 0.9 for the 60 item test and 0.85 for the 40 item test which confirm the reliability of this test.

3.2.2 Teaching Knowledge Test (TKT)

To select two homogeneous EFL teachers, TKT developed by University of Cambridge ESOL Examinations (2004) including 45multiple-choice items was administered to 20 EFL teachers. Those teachers with similar teaching knowledge took part in the study. The test was adopted from Pirtaj's unpublished thesis (2013) at Islamic Azad University of Torbat-e Heydarieh Branch, Iran. The original test developed by University of Cambridge ESOL Examinations (2004) includes 80 multiple-choice items. Then, Pirtaj (2013) shortened the test to 45 items. To make sure that test is reliable, an analysis was conducted by employing Cronbach's Alpha. Coronbach's Alpha observed for the test was relatively high (α=.78).The selected teachers obtained 3/4 (75%) of the total score.

3.2.3 IELTS Speaking and Listening Module

To evaluate participants' speaking and listening skills at the start and at the end of the study IELTS speaking and listening module (Version 3) was administered. The test includes two sections as following:

3.2.3.1Listening Test

Composed of four sections, listening test contains 40 items. Section 1 asks the students to complete the notes (N=10 items). In section 2, participants are required to write no more than three words for each answer (11-12). Questions 13 to 17 ask the participants to complete the table. For items18 and 20 they need to write no more than two words or a number. Question 19 asks the participants to answer to a comprehension question. For questions 21-30(section 3) they need to complete the notes (write numbers and/or no more than three words for each answer). Section 4 (31-40) consists of two subsections and participants need to choose the best answer. The test was adopted from the book IELTS 3 developed by Cambridge Books for Cambridge Exams.

3.2.3.2Speaking Test

Composed of three parts, speaking test assess the participants' speaking ability. The questions include personal information (family members, description of an influential teacher, and discussion

3.2.4Materials

The books "Passages" (Number 1, Richards, 2001) and Tactics for Listening (Number 2, Richards, 2003) were taught to the participants of both groups. The focus was more upon speaking and listening skills.

3.3 Procedure

Administering quick placement test, 50 participants were selected. Participants were randomly assigned to control (N=25) and experimental (N=25) groups. By administering TKT, two EFL teachers out of 20 with similar teaching knowledge were selected.

Participants sat for the pretest (IELTS speaking and listening test). During the course of 14 sessions (7 weeks), participants in experimental group were taught speaking and listening materials by the reflective teacher. One of the researchers served as the reflective teacher to make it possible to reflect on her teaching practice, observe her colleagues' teaching practices, and elicit effective techniques of teaching speaking and listening skills. To do so, she used a reflective approach to teaching, that is, one in which she gathered required data regarding teaching, analyzed EFL teacher's attitudes, beliefs, assumptions, and teaching practices, and made use of the information obtained as a foundation for critically reflecting on her teaching. After every session, she assessed her teaching practice by asking some questions. In addition she provided two language experts at Islamic Azad University of Torbat-e Heydarieh Branch with reports from her classrooms to be assessed and criticized. Every session she took notes of her teaching practice, and made a portfolio of her notes, educational aids, lesson plans and so on.

By observing her colleagues' classrooms she became familiar with various teaching techniques, materials, and aids. Sometimes, she asked them some questions such as: 1. What did you set out to teach?2. Were you able to accomplish your goals?3.What teaching materials did you use? 4. How effective were they? (adopted from Richards & Lockhart, 1996).

In addition, this teacher used internet as an important database to enhance and update her teaching knowledge through searching on the internet (as a tool to gather information required for teaching and being up-to-date in teaching process). In other words, she was responsible for identifying her problems and seeking for solutions. Also, she evaluated her work in order to identify how to improve her professional activity in order to improve the quality of her students' mastery in speaking and listening. Observing her colleagues' oral communication classrooms, she adopted the effective techniques and integrated them into her classroom. In addition to observation, she took part in forums held among EFL teachers either in physical or virtual contexts such as Yahoo-group, Line, and Viber to benefit from their views on teaching speaking and listening skills. She organized a diary in which she wrote the accounts of her own teaching practices and observations as well as experiences and teaching knowledge that she got from her colleagues. This teacher tried a variety of effective techniques in her class and checked its feedback and outcomes. As a result, a comparison was made to evaluate the treatments implemented in the class.

On the other hand, participants in control group were taught by another EFL teacher without any reflective approach to teaching. This teacher possessed the same teaching knowledge as the former teacher without any endeavor to observe her colleagues' classrooms and to take part in the aforementioned meetings held among EFL teachers. She taught speaking and listening skills through using CDs, role-playing, note-taking, and repetition (these techniques were also used by the reflective teacher, but the reflective one tested different techniques to find the most effective ones via reflecting upon her teaching practices). The teacher of the class did not try various techniques, she insisted on using audio-visual aids and chain drills. Group discussions were also held to engage the students in speaking activities. Finally, at the end of the course the posttest was administered which was the same as the posttest.

4. DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

Having obtained the data from the instruments administered to the participants, the researchers used SPSS (19.0) to analyze them.

4.1 Results of Test of Normality of Data

To ensure that the data have been normally distributed, Kolmogrov-Smirnov Test was conducted. This test has a null-hypothesis which indicates the normality of the data. Table 1 shows the results.

Table 1:

Results of One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

		QPT	spre	spost	lpre	lpost
N		50	50	50	50	50
Normal Parameters[a]	Mean	43.4400	4.0000	5.1600	22.0600	24.2000
	Std. Deviation	2.15861	1.32480	1.11319	2.32476	2.09956
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.111	.160	.177	.156	.136
	Positive	.111	.160	.177	.156	.136
	Negative	-.105	-.120	-.155	-.118	-.128
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		.784	1.131	1.253	1.102	.963
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.571	.155	.087	.176	.312

a. Test distribution is Normal.

- *Note:*'QPT' stands for Quick placement test; 'spre' stands for speaking pretest; 'spost' stands for speaking posttest; 'lpre' stands for listening pretest; 'lpost' stands for listening posttest'.

As Table 1 shows, p-value for each instrument is greater than .05 (p=.57 for QPT; p=.15 for spre; p=.08 for spost; p=.17 for lpre; p=.31 for lpost). Accordingly the null-hypothesis of Kolmogrov-Smirnov Test is accepted which confirms that the data are normal.

Twenty EFL teachers took part in the present study. Results of TKT are as following.

4.2 Results of QPT

Table 2 shows results of independent samples t-test for QPT.

Table 2:

Results of independent samples t-test for QPT

Group	N	M	SD	df	t	sig(2-tailed)
Cont.	25	43.16	2.03	48	.91	.36
Exp.	25	43.72	2.28			

As Table 2 shows there is not any significant [df=48, t=.91, sig=.36>.05) difference between control (N=25, M=43.16, SD=2.03) and experimental (N=25, M=43.72, SD=2.28) in QPT. Therefore, it can be concluded that both groups enjoy the homogeneity in their language proficiency at the start of the study.

4.3 Results of Pretest Data Analysis

4.3.1 Results of Speaking Pretest Analysis

Table 3 shows results of independent samples t-test for speaking in the pretest to make sure of the lack of significance difference between groups with regard to speaking skill.

Table 3:

Results of independent samples t-test for speaking pretest

Group	N	M	SD	df	t	sig(2-tailed)
Cont.	25	3.96	1.27	48	.21	.83
Exp.	25	4.04	1.39			

As Table 3 shows, there is not any statistically significant difference (df=48, t=.21, sig=.83>.05) between control (N=25, M=3.96, SD=1.27) and experimental (N=25, M=4.04, SD=1.39) groups in speaking before the treatment. Therefore, it can be concluded that both groups enjoy the homogeneity in speaking skill at the start of the study.

4.3.2 Results of Listening Pretest Analysis

To make sure of the lack of significance difference between groups with regard to listening skill an independent t-test was run on the data from pretest. Table 4 shows participants' performances in listening pretest.

Table 4:
Results of independent samples t-test for listening pretest

Group	N	M	SD	df	t	sig(2-tailed)
Cont.	25	21.88	2.40	48	.54	.58
Exp.	25	22.24	2.27			

As Table 4 shows, there is not any statistically significant difference (df=48, t=.54, sig=.58>.05) between control (N=25, M=21.88, SD=2.40) and experimental (N=25, M=22.24, SD= 2.27) groups in the listening test administered before the treatment. Therefore, it can be concluded that both groups enjoy the homogeneity in listening skill at the start of the study.

4.4 Results of Posttest Data Analysis

4.4.1 Results of Speaking Posttest Analysis

To observe the probable significance difference between speaking skill of the groups after treatment, an independent t-test was run on the data from posttest. Table 5 shows participants' performance in the speaking test administered at the end of the study.

Table 5:
Results of independent samples t-test for speaking posttest

Group	N	M	SD	df	t	sig(2-tailed)
Cont.	25	4.84	.89	48	2.10	.041
Exp.	25	5.48	1.22			

Table 5 confirms that participants in the experimental group (N=25, M=5.48, SD=1.22) significantly (df=48, t= 2.10, sig= .041<.05) outperformed those in control group(N=25, M=4.84, SD=.89) in speaking posttest. According to the present finding the researchers claim that students taught by the reflective teacher performed better than those who were taught by a non-reflective teacher in the speaking posttest.

4.4.2 Results of Listening Posttest

To address the effectiveness of the treatment in the development of listening comprehension, independent samples t-test was conducted. Results are shown in Table 6.

Table 6:
Results of independent samples t-test for listening posttest

Group	N	M	SD	df	t	sig(2-tailed)
Cont.	25	23.48	2.02	48	2.55	.014
Exp.	25	24.92	1.95			

As Table 6 shows, the experimental group (N=25, M=24.92, SD=1.95) performed significantly (df=48, t=2.55, sig=.014<.05) better than control group (N=25, M=23.48, SD=2.02) in the listening posttest. Therefore, the reflective teacher's students were shown to perform significantly better than those in the other group.

4.5 Results of Analysis of Data from Speaking and Listening Tests

To test the research null-hypothesis "EFL teacher's reflective teaching does not have any different significant effect on Iranian upper-intermediate EFL learners' speaking and listening skills" one-way ANOVA was employed. Results are shown in Table 9.

Table 7: *Results of one-way ANOVA for different effect on speaking and listening skills*

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
spost	Between Groups	5.120	1	5.120	4.420	.041
	Within Groups	55.600	48	1.158		
	Total	60.720	49			
lpost	Between Groups	25.920	1	25.920	6.545	.014
	Within Groups	190.080	48	3.960		
	Total	216.000	49			

As Table 7 shows F-values for speaking and listening posttest are 4.42 (sig=.041<.05) and 6.54 (sig=.014<.05) which indicate the statistically significant difference between these two groups. The higher F-value indicates a less-value of p-value and more significant effect on the dependent variable. Here F-value and sig related to the listening posttest (F=.655, sig=.014<.05) are more that those related to speaking posttest (F=.014; sig=.041<.05). Therefore the null-hypothesis was rejected and it was found that listening skill was more significantly affected by the treatment.

4.6 Discussion

The major purpose of the present study was to see if reflective teaching can significantly affect EFL learners' speaking and listening skills. Three research questions were posed. Accordingly, three null-hypotheses were formulated. The first research null-hypothesis "EFL teacher's reflective teaching does not have any different significant effect on Iranian upper-intermediate EFL learners' speaking and listening skills" was rejected. Results of one-way ANOVA indicated that there was a different effect on the two dependent variables. It was shown that F value for listening comprehension was greater than that for speaking. Then, the researchers argue that reflective teaching put more significant effects on listening compare to speaking.

The second null-hypothesis "EFL teacher's reflective teaching does not have any significant effect on Iranian upper-intermediate EFL learners' speaking skill" was rejected. Therefore, it can be claimed that reflective teacher was significantly effective in improving her students' speaking ability.

The third null-hypothesis "EFL teacher's reflective teaching does not have any significant effect on Iranian upper-intermediate EFL learners' listening skill" was also rejected.

The present findings lent support to the findings obtained by HosseiniFatemi, et al. (2011) who focused on writing ability. They concluded that teacher's reflection significantly influenced EFL learners' writing achievement. Teacher's reflection, according to them (2011), necessitates teachers to control their professional development which is a result of an ongoing process of self-evaluation and self-assessment. EFL teachers need to stop following predesigned methods blindly. They must challenge such methods and try to rethink them regarding their teaching context. Action research would help them to come up with their own theories and implement them in the classroom (HosseiniFatemi et al. 2011).

Jadidi and Keshavarz (2013) investigated the relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' reflection and strategy-based instruction. Their findings was in line with the general consensus in the field that practicing teachers should be equipped with reflective skills to be able to deal with contextual instructional challenges. Pacheco (2005) concludes that EFL teachers need to reflect on their actions and classroom practices in order to bridge the gap between theory and practice.

According to the findings of the present study, reflecting on teaching process is as valuable as teaching itself, and may be more. The followings are the final remarks quoted from Pacheco (2005):

It calls for an appraisal of our own teaching, a willingness to change, an open mind to accept suggestions, and a serious attention to reflective practice. The answers to all our problems will not arise right away; it will take time, patience, responsibility, endurance, commitment, encouragement (p.16).

To sum up, the researchers arrived at the finding that a reflective EFL teacher compared to a non-reflective one was significantly more effective in improving their students' speaking and listening skills.

5. CONCLUSION

Review of literature showed that no single study has ever explored the effects of implementation of reflective teaching on Iranian upper intermediate EFL learners' speaking and listening skills. This gap in the relevant literature led the researchers to conduct the study among Iranian EFL learners. After having been collected by the researchers, the data were ready for the process of analysis. In line with the research questions posed at the beginning of the study, the researchers opted for a special statistical procedure. Normalizing test was conducted to make sure of the normality of the data. Then independent samples t-test was conducted to compare the means of control and experimental groups.

It was concluded that an EFL reflective teacher can have significant effect on his or her student's speaking and listening skills. Through reflection EFL teachers can ponder on themselves and their teaching profession. The actions of looking accurately at teaching and reflecting critically on practices cloud be attained through such sources as reflective journals, Learning logs, lesson reports, autobiographies, collaborative diary keeping, audio and video recording, teacher narrative, portfolios, observation and action research (Richards & Lockhart, 1996). Each could support teachers gain a better understanding of themselves as instructors and of how they mature in their own teaching/learning contexts. In journal writing, instructors and student teachers compose the actions and thoughts encountered and this writing procedure is believed to activate a discovery procedure (Richards & Lockhart, 1996). Therefore, reflection can be viewed as a teaching facilitator which can positively and significantly influence learning of EFL Students. The present study came up with findings that seem to be of great importance in EFL area in general and teacher education in specific. The present findings showed the significant role that reflective teaching may put on EFL students' speaking and listening skills. Through reflection EFL teachers can employ teaching techniques which seem to be more effective. This may be achieved over time when they are more experienced. Reflection according to the above findings can be regarded as an influential factor in the realm of teaching and its effects on learning process seem to be inevitable.

*5.1 Pedagogical implica*tions

EFL teachers should reflect on their teaching profession. There are some tools which can help them do so, for example they can record their presentations in the class and watch the videos to assess their practice. Also they can ask their peers to help them evaluate their performance. Technology can facilitate the process of reflection for instance they can upload a video clip of their presentation to social networks and ask their colleagues to express their opinions about it. Curriculum designers need to develop materials which enhance EFL teachers' reflective teaching and engage them in activities to assess and criticized their teaching practices and find the most effective teaching ways.

5.2 Suggestions for further research

The followings are suggested to be conducted in the future:

The present study focused on a traditional reflective teaching approach, further research is suggested to integrate technology into reflection; for example, the effects of web-based teacher reflection on EFL learners' performance.

The present study focused on speaking and listening skills, further research is suggested to consider other skills such as writing and reading.

In this study, EFL teachers' teaching knowledge was not taken into consideration, further research is suggested to investigate the effects of reflective teaching on EFL teachers' teaching knowledge.

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MJLTM

THE EFFECT OF COMPENSATORY STRATEGIES ON IMPROVING IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS' SPEAKING SKILL: THE CASE OF TIME GAINING AND CIRCUMLOCUTION

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ABSTRACT
THIS STUDY INVESTIGATED THE EFFECTS OF COMPENSATORY STRATEGIES (CSS) OF TIME GAINING AND CIRCUMLOCUTION ON IMPROVING IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS' SPEAKING SKILL. TO FULFILL THE OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY, 75 HOMOGENEOUS FEMALE STUDENTS WITH THE AGE RANGE OF 12 TO 20 FROM KIANFARDA ENGLISH LANGUAGE INSTITUTE, AHVAZ, IRAN WERE SELECTED AS THE TARGET PARTICIPANTS. THEY WERE DIVIDED INTO THREE EQUAL GROUPS OF 25- TIME GAINING AND CIRCUMLOCUTION EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS AND ONE CONTROL GROUP. ALL GROUPS WERE PRETESTED BY A RESEARCHER-MADE SPEAKING PRE-TEST. REGARDING THE TREATMENT, THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS WERE TAUGHT BY USING THE COMPENSATORY STRATEGIES INCLUDING TIME GAINING AND CIRCUMLOCUTION. THE RESEARCHER TAUGHT BOTH EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS HOW TO COMPENSATE THEIR FAILURES IN CONVERSATIONS BY USING TIME GAINING AND CIRCUMLOCUTION STRATEGIES. HOWEVER, THE CONTROL GROUP WAS DEPRIVED OF TEACHING THESE STRATEGIES. THE TREATMENT TOOK 12 SESSIONS OF 50 MINUTE (THREE SESSIONS IN A WEEK). FINALLY, THE THREE GROUPS TOOK THE SPEAKING POST-TEST. THEN THE COLLECTED DATA WERE ANALYZED THROUGH USING ONE-WAY ANOVA. THE RESULTS SHOWED THAT BOTH TIME GAINING AND CIRCUMLOCUTION EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS GAINED HIGHER SCORES THAN THE CONTROL GROUP IN THE POST-TEST. TIME GAINING AND CIRCUMLOCUTION STRATEGIES IMPROVED IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS' SPEAKING SKILL.

KEY WORDS: TIME GAINING, CIRCUMLOCUTION, SPEAKING SKILL.

1. Introduction

Although meaningful and fluent communication is the final goal of EFL learners but most of them have numerous problems to conserve and communicate in the target language. Attempting hard to express their minds through their limited English knowledge and having difficulties to initiate and maintain in conversations due to lack of linguistic knowledge are considered a big problem and cause anxiety and frustration to many learners. Lots of EFL learners are not satisfied with the results of studying English for many years and become demotivated gradually. Teaching compensatory strategies (CSs) can be a useful way to make up their breakdowns in conversations and to develop their strategic competence and to enhance their speaking ability.

Canale (1983) and Canale and Swain (1980) define strategic competence as the mastery of verbal and non-verbal communication strategies in L2 used when attempting to compensate for deficiencies in the grammatical and sociolinguistic competence or to enhance the effectiveness of communication. CSs have been defined as "mutual attempts of two interlocutors to agree on meaning in situations where requisite meaning structures do not seem to be shared" (Bialystok & Frohlich, 1980, p. 420).

According to Faerch and Kasper (1983), "communication strategies are conscious plans to solve learners' problems in achieving a special goal". It is also believed that learners can improve communicative

proficiency by developing an ability to use specific communication strategies that enable them to compensate for their target language deficiencies (e.g., Bialystok, 1990; Dornyei, 1995).
When faced with a breakdown in communication, students can either dispense with their original communicative goal or reach their original communicative goal via a different route by making use of the limited linguistic means they have at their disposal. When motivated learners encounter difficulties in communicating meaning in the target language without finding any solution and when they feel they have made no progress in learning, it leads them to become anxious, demotivated and unsuccessful language learners. Teaching compensatory strategies can be a solution to these problems and not only it can improve learners' communication skills, but also decrease their anxiety level, increase their motivation and pave the way for learners to become more successful EFL learners. This study taught two types of compensatory strategies- time gaining and circumlocution-to Iranian EFL learners in order to improve their speaking skill. So the following questions were raised in this study:
RQ 1. Is compensatory strategy of time gaining effective on Iranian EFL learners' speaking?
RQ 2. Is compensatory strategy of circumlocution effective on Iranian EFL learners' speaking?

2. Review of the Related Literature

2.1. Communication Strategy

A communication strategy is defined as an individual's attempt to find a way to fill the gap between their communication efforts and immediate available linguistic resources (Maleki, 2007). Although there are other definitions of communication strategies as well, the basic idea remains the same. For example, Faerch and Kasper (1983) defined CS as "potentially conscious plans" which are used by an individual to solve a problem in order to reach a specific communication goal. It is believed that communication strategies play an important role in the development of strategic competence (e. g., Faucette, 2001); therefore, one can define communication strategies within strategic competence framework. According to Canale and Swain (1980), strategic competence is "verbal and non-verbal communication strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance variables or to insufficient competence" (p. 30). Scattergood (2003) believed that strategic competence is cultivated if teachers create a language classroom in which communication strategies are taught and practiced.
The issue of communication strategies has been and still is an important topic in foreign language learning and second language acquisition. Van Lier (1988) said that SLA takes place through L2 learners' active participation in speech events. Rababah (2005) asserted that raising consciousness of CSs is crucial for a number of reasons; one of them is that it leads to learning by "eliciting unknown language items from the interlocutors" (p. 194). He continued to say that "successful language learning is not only a matter of developing grammatical, sociolinguistic, and semantic competence, but also the strategic competence which involves the use of CSs" (p. 194). Also, Maleki (2007) believed that the use of communication strategies is conductive to language learning and that "communication strategy training should be incorporated into school syllabuses" (p. 594). Other researchers such as Tarone (1984), Bialystok (1990), Dörnyei and Thurrel (1991), Dörnyei (1995), and Oxford (2001) have all praised the positive role of communication strategies in teaching and learning a second/ foreign language, specifically English.

2.2. A Typology of CSs

Tarone (1980, p. 429) summarized types of CSs under five main categories, along with their subcategories. The list goes as follows:
A. Paraphrase
Paraphrase includes three subcategories which are described below:
(a) Approximation: The use of a target language vocabulary item or structure, which the learner knows is not correct, but which shares semantic features with the desired item to satisfy the speaker (e. g., "pipe" for "water pipe").
(b) Word coinage: The learner makes a new word in order to convey a desired concept (e. g., "airball" for "balloon").
(c) Circumlocution: The learner describes the characteristics or elements of an object or action instead of using the appropriate TL structure (e.g., the thing you open bottles with for corkscrew).

B. Transfer

Transfer has two elements in it:

(a) Literal translation: The learner's translating word for word from the native language (e. g., "He invites him to drink" for "They toast one another").

(b) Language switch: The learner uses the NL (native language) term without bothering to translate (e. g., "balon" for "balloon" or "tirtil" for "turtle").

C. Appeal for Assistance

This refers to the learner's asking for the correct term or structure (e. g., "What is this?").

D. Mime

Mime refers to the learner's using non-verbal strategies in place of a meaning structure (e. g., clapping one's hands to illustrate applause).

E. Avoidance

Avoidance consists of two subcategories described below:

(a) Topic avoidance: The learner's by passing concepts for which the vocabulary or other meaning structures are not known to them.

(b) Message abandonment: The learner's beginning to talk about a concept but being unable to continue due to lack of meaning structure, and stopping in mid-utterance.

A series of other strategies called "achievement strategies" were proposed. They were named as so because it was believed that learners use their language resources to convey meaning, whether what they say is grammatically or socially correct. Johnstone (1989, p. 48) listed achievement production strategies as follows:

- Code-switching and gesticulation
- Literal translation and foreignizing
- Word coinage
- Simplification
- Generalization
- Paraphrase
- Restart and approximation
- Establish foreign identity
- Appeal for repair and confirmation

Some empirical studies were carried out concerning the effectiveness of communication strategies on improving learning English as a foreign or a second language; some of them are reported here chronologically.

Saemian (1991) inspected the relation between the effects of proficiency and the use of communication strategies (CSs) among Iranian EFL learners. The researcher found statistically significant difference between the groups in terms of both frequency and types of CSs employed. The high proficiency group resorted to more circumlocution and approximation. Yet, the low proficiency group used more repetition, paralinguistic, avoidance, and code-switching. Yarmohammadi and Seif (1992) conducted a research regarding the application of different CSs for solving communication problems in interrelated oral and written tasks. The researchers identified a link between the type of task (oral compared to written) and the use of specific CSs. For instance, strategies of literal translation, approximation and topic avoidance, were found aplenty in writing, while code switching strategies were employed more in oral tasks. However, from this tentative position, it is still unclear whether Iranian learners could use strategy such as paraphrase effectively.

Maleki (2007) investigated the teachability of CSs for university students. He used a textbook which dealt with specific CSs such as approximation, circumlocution, foreignizing, word coinage, appeals for assistance, and time stalling devices for the experimental group. The control group used a textbook without CSs use. After four months, the experimental group performed better on the Cambridge ESOL speaking test and a house-made achievement test than the 66 'Free' to Choose: Communication Strategy Use in EFL Classrooms in … control group. It was suggested that teaching CSs could be effective and conducive to English language learning.

3. Methodology

3.1. Participants

Deciding to carry out this work, the researcher selected 75 participants from among 100 intermediate students at Kianfarda English language institute, Ahvaz, Iran. The participants participating in this study were female students with the age range of 12 to 20 who were divided into three equal groups of 25- time gaining and circumlocution experimental groups and one control group.

3.2. Instrumentation

The first instrument which was utilized in the present study to homogenize the participants was the Oxford Placement Test (OPT). It helped the researcher to have a greater understanding of what level (i.e., elementary, pre-intermediate, intermediate) her participants were at. According to this test, the learners whose scores were 39 and above (out of 70) were considered as the intermediate learners.

The second and the most important instrument for gathering information was a researcher-made speaking pre-test. The pre-test included several questions and answers items concerned with the learners' text book. (i.e., New Interchange 1) developed by Richards (2008). The learners were wanted to talk about the topics of the units about 3 to 4 minutes and their speech was recorded for the second rater. The reliability of the pre-test was calculated through inter-rater reliability by means of Pearson correlation analysis as (r= .740).

The third instrument was a post-test of speaking: The post-test was similar to the pre-test in form and different on topics. The topics of this test were selected from the New Interchange 1 textbook. The difficulty level of the topics was the same in the pre and post-tests. The reliability of the post-test was computed through inter-rater reliability by means of Pearson correlation analysis as (r= .720). The pre and post-tests were validated by three English experienced teachers.

The fourth instrument was the speaking checklist (Hughes, 2003). It was used to aid the raters score the participants' speech. The raters scored the participants' speech based on the mentioned speaking checklist.

3.3. Procedure

In the first step, 75 female students with the vast scope of age range (12 to 20) from Kianfarda English language institute, Ahvaz, Iran were selected as the participants of the study. They were required to sit for the proficiency test (OPT) to deduce their proficiency levels in terms of homogeneity. They were assigned to three groups of 25- time gaining and circumlocution experimental groups and one control group.

All groups were pretested by a researcher-made speaking pre-test. Regarding the treatment, the experimental groups were taught by using the compensatory strategies including time gaining and circumlocution. One experimental group received instruction on how to compensate their failures in conversations by using time gaining strategy. The researcher taught them to use fillers or hesitation devices to fill pauses and to gain time to think (e.g., using well, now let's see, and uh). The researcher taught "the circumlocution strategy" to the other experimental group; she taught this group to make up their conversational breakdowns and failures through describing the characteristics or elements of an object or action instead of using the appropriate target language structure (e.g., the thing you open bottles with for corkscrew). On the other hand, the control group received traditional training, for example, they were wanted to memorize a large number of English vocabularies in order to maintain and continue their conversations. The treatment took 12 sessions of 50 minutes (three sessions in a week). Finally, the three groups took the speaking post-test. Then the collected data were analyzed and interpreted based on the objectives of the study.

3.4. Data Analysis

The collected data were analyzed and interpreted based on the purposes of the study. The purpose of the study was exploring the possible effects of compensatory strategies on improving Iranian EFL learners' speaking skill. In order to provide answers for the research questions, a series of statistical analysis were

applied to the collected data through using SPSS software version 17. Finally, One-Way ANOVA was run to analyze the data.

4. Results

Table 1: *Descriptive Statistics (Three Groups)*

Groups	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Time Gaining Pre-test	25	5.00	17.00	13.5500	3.0065
Time Gaining Post-test	25	10.00	20.00	18.1100	3.0689
Circumlocution Pre-test	25	4.00	17.00	13.4500	4.3682
Circumlocution Post-test	25	7.00	20.00	18.2100	4.1482
Control Pre-test	25	4.00	18.00	13.5000	3.6863
Control post-test	25	7.00	19.00	13.8000	3.6070

Based on the above table, all three groups' performance in the speaking pre-test was almost the same; their means reveal that they were at the same speaking proficiency level scores of time-gaining group's pretest is 13.5500; the mean scores of circumlocution group's pretest is 13.4500 and the mean scores of control group's pretest is 13.5000. But concerning their performance after the treatment, experimental groups- time-gaining and circumlocution- outperformed than the control group in their post-test. The mean scores of time-gaining group and circumlocution are 18.1100 and 18.2100 respectively in the posttest but the mean of control group is 13.8000.

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

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.100	2	.050	.003	.996
Within Groups	792.400	57	13.903		
Total	792.700	59			

Table 2 indicates the pre-test scores of the three groups. Since the observed F (.003) is less than the critical F (3.15) with df=2/57, the difference between the groups is not significant at ($p<0.05$). In fact, the performance of the three groups was the same in the pre-test.

***Table 3**: One-Way ANOVA (Post-test)*

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	163.632	2	81.816	6.190	.004
Within Groups	753.100	57	13.213		
Total	916.731	59			

The above table shows the post-test scores of both control and experimental groups. Since the observed F (6.190) is greater than the critical F (3.15) with df=2/57, the difference between the groups is significant at ($p<0.05$). The experimental groups got better scores in the post-test of speaking. It can be concluded that time gaining and circumlocution strategies had positive impacts on the performance of the experimental groups in the post-test.

5. Discussion

In this part the research questions are discussed one by one:

RQ 1. Is compensatory strategy of time gaining effective on Iranian EFL learners' speaking?

This study included three groups which their performance in the pre-test was almost the same. Based on the obtained results, both experimental groups-time gaining and circumlocution- and control group had almost the same scores in the pre-test. But regarding their performance in the post-test, the results showed that the scores of the students in time gaining group were increased. Time gaining improved Iranian EFL learners' speaking in the post-test.

The results of this research are in line with Maleki (2007) who examined the teachability of CSs for university students. He used a textbook which dealt with specific CSs such as circumlocution, approximation, appeal for assistance, word coinage, foreignizing, and time stalling devices for the experimental group. For the control group he used a textbook without CSs use. After four months, the experimental group performed better on the Cambridge ESOL speaking test and a house-made achievement test than the 66 'Free' to Choose: Communication Strategy Use in EFL Classrooms in … control group. It was suggested that teaching CSs could be effective and conducive to English language learning.

2. Is compensatory strategy of circumlocution effective on Iranian EFL learners' speaking?

After analyzing the data, it was proved that circumlocution group like time gaining group performed very better in their post-test in comparison to their pre-test performance. Teaching compensatory strategy of circumlocution to the Iranian EFL learners helped them to improve their speaking ability. After the treatment the participants could speak English more fluently without giving up their conversations. Though the participants had some English deficiencies, they could continue their conversations by using compensatory strategy of circumlocution.

The findings of the present study confirm the Majd's findings (2014), she inspected the impacts of teaching communication strategies- Circumlocution, Approximation, Word coinage and Appeal for help- on anxiety level and motivation of Iranian students. In her study, a Cambridge Proficiency Test was used and 40 Iranian homogeneous participants among learners who were 12-14 years of age were chosen. The learners were taught how to apply CSs they communicate in the foreign language. At the end of 3-month teaching and applying these strategies to the class activities, oral and written Cambridge Proficiency Test were held again to determine the effectiveness of the mentioned strategies on Iranian students'

communication improvement. A five point Likert Scale questionnaire was also used to measure their anxiety level and motivation during communication in English after learning and using CSs. The findings of the study proved that teaching CSs to EFL learners and applying them to the class activities is a practical way to improve students communication skills, increase their motivation and decrease their anxiety level.

6. Conclusion

This paper proved that teaching CSs has positive impacts on Iranian EFL learners' speaking skill as Dörnyei (1995) stated that through using CSs learners' rather than giving up their message, may decide to try and remain in the conversation and achieve their communicative goal. The results of the study confirmed that teaching CSs- time gaining group and circumlocution- is a fruitful approach to improve learners' communication skills which in turn can increase their motivation because they feel more secure and comfortable during communication. In fact, both strategies helped the students to improve their speaking skill equally. The findings of the present study revealed that both time gaining and circumlocution strategies can help Iranian EFL learners to improve their English speaking fluency and communicative ability. The results support the assumption made by previous research that strategy training in the use of strategies for speaking in a foreign language produces positive results (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Dörnyei, 1995). In a nutshell, learners can improve their speaking skill through learning to use CSs during communication.

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THE EFFECT OF INSTRUCTION ON THE DEVELOPMENT OF INTERLANGUAGE PRAGMATIC KNOWLEDGE AMONG IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS

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ABSTRACT

THE PRESENT STUDY WAS AN ATTEMPT TO INVESTIGATE THE EFFECT OF INSTRUCTIONAL TYPES ON THE DEVELOPMENT OF INTERLANGUAGE PRAGMATICS (ILP) AMONG IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS. TO DO SO, FORTY HOMOGENEOUS UPPER-INTERMEDIATE EFL LEARNERS TOOK PART IN THE STUDY. THE PARTICIPANTS WERE RANDOMLY DIVIDED INTO EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS AND WENT THROUGH THE PROCESS OF PRETEST, TREATMENT, AND THE POSTTEST. AN ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE (ANCOVA) WAS RUN TO COMPARE THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS' MEANS ON THE POSTTEST OF MDCT WHILE CONTROLLING FOR POSSIBLE EFFECTS OF THEIR ENTRY MDCT KNOWLEDGE AS MEASURED THROUGH THE PRETEST. THE RESULTS REVEALED THAT ACADEMIC INTERLANGUAGE PRAGMATIC KNOWLEDGE OF IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS COULD INCREASE THROUGH BOTH EXPLICIT AND IMPLICIT INSTRUCTIONAL METHODS; MEANWHILE, EXPLICIT INSTRUCTION COULD ENJOY MORE SUCCESS. IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY AS WELL AS ITS CLASSROOM APPLICATIONS ARE DISCUSSED.

KEYWORDS: INTERLANGUAGE PRAGMATICS, EFL LEARNERS, INSTRUCTION, MDCT

1. Introduction

In order to be successful in communication, it is essential for second language (L2) learners to know not only grammar and text organization but also pragmatic aspects of the target language (Bachman, 1990). Many intercultural miscommunications occur while trying to get meanings across in a second/foreign language, which shows the need to teach pragmatic norms and functions such as speech acts so that language users would use language in a pragmatically appropriate way. L2 learners encounter many pragmatic failures when they are involved in the act of communication (Bardovi-Harlig & Shin, 2014). Trying to get the meaning across, they may simply translate speech acts from their mother tongues to the second language. Pragmatic failure, which may be attributed to multifarious sources, such as rudeness, inexactness, and incomplete pragmatic competence is not receiving as much attention from teachers as it should, unlike grammatical errors.

Research into teaching speech acts has aroused great interest in the field of inter-language pragmatics (ILP). According to Kasper and Rose (2002), there is now large and fast-growing literature on learners' use and acquisition of L2 pragmatic ability, and many studies have proved that pragmatic ability is teachable (Takahashi, 2014; Yoshimi, 2001), but there still remains the question of how to teach pragmatic competence and accordingly what to include in such syllabi. Therefore, carrying out studies concerning teaching methods and contents of instruction in the ILP are necessary. Another matter to be investigated is the efficacy of input tasks as a means to practicing one's language for greater fluency and also as an important factor in the acquisition process (Cohen, 1997).

The relationship between the first language and the misunderstandings which may occur culturally or cross-culturally has been the home of choice for a lot of researchers, especially in the last two decades: Many researchers have focused on how non-native speakers learn and use speech acts through consciousness-raising activities, explicit instruction or other communicative practices (DeKeyser, 1995; Doughty, 2003; Yoshimi, 2001). In order to acquire pragmatic competence, learners must develop not only linguistic competence, but also socio-cultural awareness, attaining a useful understanding of how language functions in social and cultural contexts work (Kasper & Roever, 2005). Many recent research studies have investigated the effect of input and noticing (Kasper & Rose, 2002; Takahashi, 2005, Taguchi, 2015). The present study has mostly focused on the effectiveness of the two different instructional approaches-explicit vs. implicit-and whether or not the EFL learners' meta-pragmatic awareness is raised by the existence of these instructional types. Therefore, the following research question was posed based on the purpose of this study.

Does instruction of functions, situations, and speech acts affect the development of interlanguage pragmatic knowledge among Iranian EFL learners?

To answer the question mentioned above the present quasi-experimental study was designed in which the effect of teaching speech acts of academic situation on the learners' ILP was sought for. Teaching speech acts of academic situation was considered as the independent variable and ILP of the learners in the academic situation was the dependent variable. The coming sections of the present paper focus on the review of the related literature and research method of the present study.

2. Review of the Related Literature

Recent years have witnessed an increasing interest in pragmatics as an important branch of linguistics. Due to insufficiencies of the theoretical grammatical paradigms and previous purely formalistic views, abstract approaches to the study of the language have become more evident. Therefore, this particular area of research known as ILP has aroused the interest of an increasing number of scholars over the last three decades (Taguchi, 2014).

2.1 History

Levinson (1983) indicated that the interest in pragmatics appeared for the two following reasons. First, as a reaction to Chomsky who uses language as an abstract construct, and second, as a necessity to bridge the gap between accounts of linguistic communication and prenominal linguistic theories of language. Leech (1983) introduced a new paradigm by contributing to the progress of a shift of direction towards performance and away from competence. The focus of attention in this fresh paradigm, that is to say pragmatics, was meaning in use rather than, as Chomsky pointed out, meaning in abstractness. Based on Alcaraz (1990), some important characteristics of pragmatics are: (1) using language as a means of communication, (2) focusing on functions rather than on forms, (3) studying the processes that take place in communication, (4) using language authentically and in an appropriate context, (5) interdisciplinary nature of pragmatics, and (6) applying linguistic theories based on the concept of communicative competence.

Afterwards, a large number of definitions have been provided by various scholars (Leech, 1983; Levinson, 1983; Mey, 1993). Stalnaker (1972) defined pragmatics as "the study of linguistic acts and the contexts in which they are performed" (p.383). Compatible with this, Searle, Kiefer and Bierwisch (1980) referred to pragmatics, in their introduction to *Speech Act Theory and Pragmatics*, as being concerned with the conditions according to which speakers and hearers determine the context and use-dependent utterance meanings. Wunderlich (1980) supported the importance of context dependence and posited that "pragmatics deals with the interpretation of sentences (or utterances) in a richer context" (p.304). Pragmatics was also defined as "the study of the ability of language users to pair sentences with the contexts in which they would be appropriate" (Levinson, 1983, p.24). Pragmatics could be defined as the study of the use and meaning of utterances to their situations in Leech's (1983) words.

Considering pragmatics as a multidimensional concept according to the definitions provided above, learners face several problems in pragmatic acquisition. Most learners in English as a foreign language environments do not have identical exposure and possibilities to experience and practice the language use as those who are living in the English as a second language situation. On this account, it has been advocated that instruction in pragmatics is essential to developing pragmatic competence of the learners

(Kasper, 1997, 2001; Bardovi-Harlig, 2001). Furthermore, Kasper (2001) referred to some certain factors that are necessary for the development of pragmatics, among which the role of reflection and output received great importance.

2.2 Teachability of ILP

Kasper (1997) argues that while competence cannot be taught, students should be provided with opportunities to develop their pragmatic competence. He asserts that "without some form of instruction, many aspects of pragmatic competence do not develop sufficiently" (Kasper, 1997, p. 7).Therefore, providing the opportunity for the learners to get familiar with the aspects of ILP seems to necessitate instruction in pragmatics (Martinez-Flor & Fukuya, 2005). The studies concerned with the teachability of pragmatic features of language have suggested that those learners instructed outperform the control group receiving no instruction (Billmyer, 1990; Bouton, 1988; Morrow, 1996; Olshtain & Cohen, 1990; Wildner-Bassett, 1994). In a meta-analysis of thirteen empirical ILP studies carried out by Jeon and Kaya (2006), it was reported the ILP instruction seems to be an effective way of presenting the pragmatic aspects of language. This is in line with what Norris and Ortega's (2000) suggested regarding their grammatical instruction.

Cohen's (1996) study revealed that appropriate performance of speech acts is possible through practicing. Morrow (1996) also found that ESL learners' production of complaint and refusal speech acts would be enhanced following instructions. In another study, Cohen (1997) asserted that pragmatic ability of the learners studying Japanese developed through accelerated instruction. According to Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei (1998), L2 learners' pragmatic and grammatical awareness could be increased through instructed L2 learning. Bardovi-Harling (1999), referring to 'acquisitional pragmatics', contends that ILP is a process based phenomenon which could be energized though instructions. Norris and Ortega's (2000) study also confirms the effectiveness of L2 instruction in this regard and Da Silva's (2003) research which concentrates on teaching polite refusals in English supports the positive effects of instruction on pragmatic development. Martinez-Flor and Fukuya (2005) studied the effects of instruction on learners' production of appropriate and accurate suggestions and found such instructions highly useful. Jeon and Kaya's (2006) research confirmed the positive and significant effects of L2 instruction on ILP development; something which was confirmed by Jianda (2006) and later by Cohen (2007) in his study entitled as 'the teaching of pragmatics in the EFL classroom'.

In line with the previous research, Jalilifar (2009), who studied request strategies in a cross-sectional study of Iranian EFL learners and Australian native speakers, found that instruction of ILP is a necessity for the Iranian EFL learners. Moradkhan and Jalayer (2010) also found that using authentic audio-taped and video-taped materials could leave a positive impact on the level of EFL learners' pragmatic competence. Alcón Soler and Guzmán Pitarch' s (2010) study focused on speech act of refusals and revealed that instruction could highly increase learners' pragmatic awareness. Confirming the role of instruction in the improvement of Iranian EFL learners' use of politeness strategies and power relations in disagreement, Behnam and Niroomand (2011) found that such an effect can be positive across different proficiency levels, though the advanced level students can be benefited more.

In addition to instruction, the incidental learning of pragmatic issues has been found highly effective in the learners' ILP development. Farashaiyan and Amirkhiz's (2011) survey concerning a comparative analysis of apology strategies among Iranian EFL and Malaysian ESL university students indicated that both explicit instruction and incidental learning play crucial roles in increasing learners' awareness towards ILP. Jernigan (2012), on the other hand, contends that output-focused instruction of the ESL learners can facilitate their pragmatic development.

The positive effects of planned instruction on EFL and ESL learners' interlanguage pragmatic development have been investigated and confirmed in the more recent research (Al-Shboul, et al., 2012; Arghamiri & Sadighi, 2013; Ashoorpour & Azari, 2014; Mirzaee & Esmaeili, 2013; Pishghadam & Sharafadini, 2011; Salehi, 2013). In this regard both explicit and implicit instructional types have been found to be effective. Masouleh, Arjmandi, & Vahdany, 2014) found that explicit metapragmatic instruction could leave a positive effect on request speech act awareness of intermediate EFL students while Alcón-Soler (2015), in an implicit-based instruction, proved that email communication can bring about changes in the pragmatic knowledge of the learners. Hassaskhah and Ebrahimi's (2015) study

which studied the speech act of compliment while focusing on EFL learners'(Meta) pragmatic learning through explicit (teacher explanation) and implicit (foreign film) interventions, revealed that "instruction of both types improved learners' awareness of compliments. Also both types of instruction were beneficial in terms of raising learners' (Meta) pragmatic use". (p.292)

Taguchi (2014, p. 472) stresses the autonomous learning of pragmatics for the ESL and EFL learners saying that "strategy training can be an alternative form of formal instruction, assisting learners to take initiative in learning pragmatics from every day, non-pragmatics-focused materials". In another seminal work, Taguchi (2015) accounts for the significance of instructed pragmatics and urges that planned instruction pave the way for the learners' improvement in both proficiency and pragmatic knowledge of the target language.

2.3 Instruction Types

Current research over the last 20 years on SLA has shown that instruction makes a great difference on the efficacy of learning (Long, 1983, 1988, 1996; Doughty, 1991; Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991). In other words, it has been claimed that instruction affects acquisition in positive ways when it is compared with sole exposure to the target language (Doughty, 2003; Hassaskhah & Ebrahimi, 2015; Taguchi, 2015). Doughty (2003), following an experimental study presented that input enhancement techniques which amplify the prominence of target forms were as successful as providing explicit meta-linguistic explanations. This breakthrough supports the implication that focusing learners' attention on linguistic forms in context is extremely effective.

2.4 Explicit and Implicit Instruction

One of the main lines of ILP research considers the effect each of the explicit or implicit instructions might have on pragmatic proficiency of the learners (House, 1996; House & Kasper, 1981). Research results have also indicated that both explicit and implicit instruction of pragmatic knowledge could be successful (Alcón-Soler, 2015). Kasper (1997, p. 9) asserts that "research supports the view that pragmatic ability can indeed be systematically developed through classroom activities"

Explicit learning is defined as a process in which learners are consciously aware of the new knowledge they are receiving (Schmidt, 1993, 2001; Berry, 1994; Ellis, 1999). Besides, as Ellis (1994) mentions, explicit learning also involves the hypothesis forming and testing in an inquiry for the correct structure. In contrast, implicit learning refers to a process in which learners are not aware of what is being learned, while this process is a non-conscious one, and learners only pay attention to the surface features of a complex stimulus domain (Berry, 1994). More particularly, Ellis (1994) assumes that implicit learning is the acquisition of knowledge which is about the underlying and basic structure of a complicated stimulus context by a process which happens naturally, simply and with no conscious operations. Schmidt (2001) highlights the distinction of learning with or without awareness contending that directing learners' attention towards the target forms with the objective of discussing those forms is involved in explicit teaching. However, an implicit pedagogical approach attempts to attract learner's attention while preventing any type of metalinguistic explanation and downplaying the interruption of the communicative setting. Hence, the chief distinction between both instruction types refers to the provision or lack of rules. According to Doughty (2003), explicit instruction maintains all types in which rules are explained to learners, while implicit instruction makes no overt reference to rules or forms.

3. Method

3.1 Participants

The participants of the study in the process of running the experiment were forty upper-intermediate learners majoring in English at the B.A. level in Islamic Azad University of Damavand. The participants were selected based on their performance on a language proficiency test (TOEFL PBT) which was run for the purpose of homogenizing the participants. The students whose scores fell 1 SD below and above the mean were selected as the main participants of the study.

3.2 Instrumentation

Data collection instruments employed in the present study were a Standard Version of TOEFL PBT (2013), a test of ILP developed by Birjandi and Rezaei (2010) which was piloted and validated for the purpose of this study, and a validated, researcher-made, and comprehensive academic MDCT of ILP which will be described in the following section:

3.2.1 TOEFL PBT

A standard version of TOEFL PBT was used to gather the data from participants. This test was a standard previous exam released by ETS organization in 2013 and has been registered in the ETS web site (http://www.ets.org/toefl).

3.2.2 MCDT as the Pretest

A test of ILP developed by Birjandi and Rezaei (2010) was used as the pretest in the second phase of the study. The posttest used to collect the data for the present study was reported to enjoy .72 reliability index based on KR-21.

3.2.3 MDCT as the Posttest

The instrument employed as a pragmatic test of academic performance was a *Multiple-Choice Discourse Completion Test (MDCT)* which was developed, modified, validated, and used in the present research (see Amiri, Birjandi, & Maftoon, 2015). Reliability and content validity of a comprehensive discourse completion test of interlanguage pragmatics for academic situations. This 30-item test was constructed by the researcher and was an ILP test in the academic level focusing on the speech acts normally taking place in an academic situation between various interlocutors including professors and students, two or a group of students, students and the staff working in different sections and wards of a university or a college, two non-native speakers, a native speaker and a non-native speaker, and the like. The test covers various speech acts including *requests, apologies, complaints, disagreement,* and *refusals*. The reliability, content validity, expert judgment validity, internal validity, and construct validity of the MDCT developed were also calculated.

3.2.3.1 Procedure of Developing MDCT

In order to develop the MDCT which was used in the present study, the following steps were taken:

First, a thorough review of the literature and a meta-analysis were done to find the criteria for the categorization of academic speech acts. This was followed by consulting with academic native speakers and informed experts to enrich the criteria. Then fifty M.A students majoring in TEFL in the Iranian context were asked to identify situations in which various speech acts meeting the criteria developed (requests, apologies, refusals, complaints, and disagreement) might be required and to report how likely the speech acts were to occur in their academic daily lives. Next, a "metapragmatic assessment" (Jianda, 2007) involving both Iranians and North American students was used to ascertain the social variables applied in each scenario. This was followed by studies to validate the scenarios and to develop multiple-choice options for each scenario. This became possible through asking the native speakers to check the scenarios and putting the scenarios to the process of modification. Then the researcher derived multiple choices from the scenarios which had been reviewed and completed by the native speakers. The test totally included 30 items comprising various speech acts. Finally, the MDCT test was piloted with some 50 native speakers in the University of Toronto, in Canada. The results provided the researcher with the evidence for the reliability and validity of the test which was used in the present study.

3.2.3.2 Validity and Reliability of MDCT

An item analysis was done to check the item facility and item discrimination of the choices given. This helped the researcher to modify the items and the choices of the test. The content of the test and the items were also reviewed by some educated native speakers in England and America to whom the researcher emailed the test. This positively affected face and content validity, and expert judgment validity of the test. To identify the reliability of MDCT, Chronbach's alpha was calculated and represented a fairly acceptable reliability (α=.67). Bachman and Palmer (2010) present that content validity itself is an indication of construct validity. Hence, content validity of the test was ensured through expert checks, native speaker checked situations and items, and situational context analysis. The purpose of situational context analysis was to check the items developed against the real language settings (see Amiri & Birjandi, 2015). Reliability and content validity of a comprehensive discourse completion test of interlanguage pragmatics for academic situations.

For the purpose of measuring construct validity of the MDCT, Structural Educational Modeling (SEM) was run (Bachman, 2004; Hatch & Lazaraton, 1991). This was done to probe the trait structures of the

components in the pragmatic test and the results revealed that all the components (items of academic speech acts) fit the model.

3.3 Procedure

Forty upper-intermediate learners majoring in English at the B.A. level in Damavand University were selected based on their performance on a language proficiency test (TOEFL PBT) which was run for the purpose of homogenizing the participants. The participants were randomly divided into one experimental group and one control group taking part in a conversation course in English in which an 8-week treatment of ILP of academic situations was presented to the students of the experimental group in the explicit way, while the control group received the same information and materials through implicit method. The pretest of ILP was administered to the participants. This showed how well they were familiar with the ILP before the treatment.

The classroom treatment followed the procedures presented by Ishihara and Cohen (2010). Making the learners familiar with the concepts of speech acts, presenting cultural norms and factors related to each speech act, focusing on variations, possible selections and actions, real situation reflections, behaving in unexpected situations, social status in the academic situations, discourse related issues, and the like were among the issues which were discussed and practiced in the experimental group through the treatment given. Following the treatment, these participants received the validated academic Multiple-Choice Discourse Completion Test (MDCT) of ILP which had been constructed and validated for the purpose of the study. The results of the test were analyzed and reported.

4. Data Analyses

4.1 Subject Selection

Participants of the study were forty upper-intermediate learners selected based on the results of a standard version of TOEFL test (released by ETS in 2013) which was administered to sixty candidates of TEFL in Damavand University. Based on the mean of 83.53 plus and minus one SD, 40 subjects were selected to participate in the main study. The KR-21 reliability index for the TOEFL test was .92.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics; TOEFL Test

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance	KR-21
TOEFL	60	61	105	83.53	12.580	158.253	.92

4.2 Main Data Analysis

An analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was run to compare the experimental and control groups' means on the posttest of MDCT while controlling for possible effects of their entry MDCT knowledge as measured through the pretest. Based on this statement it was concluded that there were three variables involved in the present ANCOVA; groups (independent variable), posttest of MDCT (dependent variable) and pretest of MCDT (covariate). The ANCOVA tries to compare the groups on the posttest while controlling for the possible effect of pretest (Field, 2013). Before discussing the main results it should be mentioned that the assumption of normality was met (Table 2). As displayed in Table 2, the probabilities associated with the Shapiro-Wilk tests-a more powerful test of normality than KS test when sample sizes are 50 or below-were non-significant (t=.051,.365,.301,.076, and.139, p ≥.05)for the native speakers and (t=.143,.109m.106,.484, and.140, p ≥.05) for the nonnative speakers, hence normality of the present data was met. This is supported by the conviction that if the p-value is greater than the chosen alpha level, then the null hypothesis that the data came from a normally distributed population cannot be rejected (Field, 2013).

Table 2

Tests of Normality

		Kolmogorov-Smirnov			Shapiro-Wilk		
Group		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Control	Posttest	.200	20	.035	.949	20	.353

	Pretest	.180	20	.088	.961	20	.574
Experimental	Posttest	.176	20	.104	.947	20	.327
	Pretest	.161	20	.183	.939	20	.227

The ANCOVA has two more specific assumptions; homogeneity of regression slopes and linear relationship between the dependent variable and the covariate. Both of these assumptions will be probed through scatter plots.

4.2.1 Homogeneity of Regression Slopes

Based on this assumption, the relationship between the dependent variable (posttest) and covariate (pretest) should have the same regression slopes across the two groups. As *scatter plot* displayed in Figure 1 shows, the regression line for experimental group (upper dotted line) and control group did not show any interaction, they did not cross each other. Based on these results, it was concluded that the assumption of homogeneity of regression slopes was met.

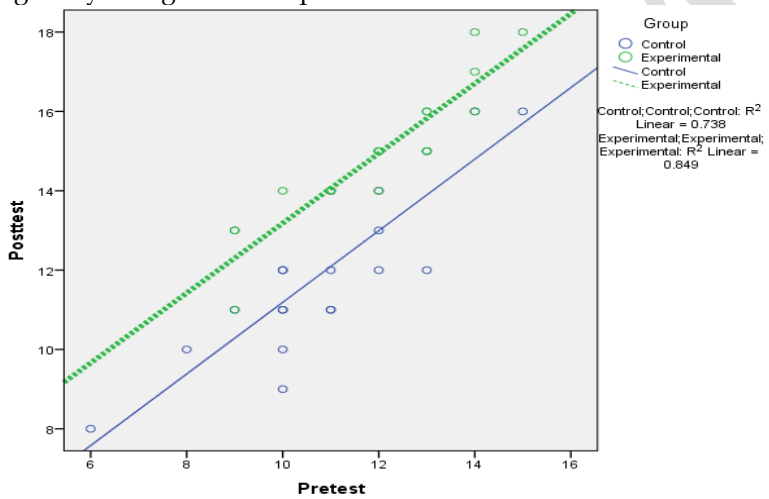

Figure 1: Scatter Plot; Homogeneity of Regression Slopes; MDCT by Groups

4.2.2 Linear Relationship between Dependent Variable and Covariate

If the same scatter plot is draw for the two groups separately, the spread of dots around the diagonals for the two groups should be similar. As the *scatter plot* displayed in figure 2 represents, the spread of dots for both groups showed linear trends.

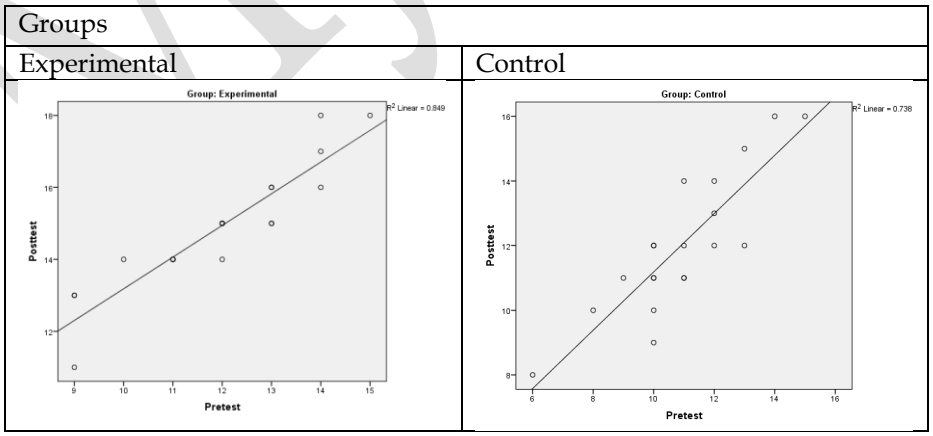

Figure 2: Scatter Plot; Linear Relationship between Dependent Variable and Covariate

Before discussing the results it should be noted that the assumption of homogeneity of variances was not met ($p < .05$). Although as noted by Bachman (2004) and Filed (2013) there is no need to worry about the violation of this assumption if the sample sizes are equal, as is the case in this study; to be on the safe side the significance level was reduced to .01 as suggested by Creswell (2013).

Table 3

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances

F	df1	df2	Sig.
6.070	1	38	.018

As displayed in Table 4 the experimental group (M = 14.43, SE = .20, 95 % CI [14, 14.85]) had a higher mean on the posttest of writing than the control group (M = 12.04, SE = .20, 95 % CI [12.04, 12.89]) after controlling for possible effects of pretest.

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics; Posttest of MDCT by Groups by Pretest

Group	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Control	12.469[a]	.209	12.045	12.893
Experimental	14.431[a]	.209	14.007	14.855

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: Pretest = 11.43.

Based on the results displayed in Table 5 ($F (1, 37) = 42.36$, $p < .05$, Partial $\eta^2 = .53$ representing a large effect size) it was concluded that there was a significant difference between the two groups' means on the posttest of MDCT. Thus the null-hypothesis as "instruction of functions, situations, and speech acts does not affect the development of interlanguage pragmatic knowledge among Iranian EFL learners" was rejected.

Table 5

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects; MDCT by Groups

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Pretest	110.639	1	110.639	131.373	.000	.780
Group	35.675	1	35.675	42.360	.000	.534
Error	31.161	37	.842			
Total	7462.000	40				

Note. The significant F-value for the covariate ($F = 131.37$, $p < .05$) can be interpreted in two ways. The covariate was correctly selected and there was linear relationship between the covariate and the dependent variable.

5. Discussion and Conclusion

Findings of the present study revealed that instruction of functions, situations, and speech acts though explicit teaching method affect the development of interlanguage pragmatic knowledge among Iranian EFL learners. This finding is in line with the ones reporting on the critical value of teaching pragmatic competence to the EFL learners. As the research conducted in this area are vast, the researcher prefers to account for the most significant and seminal ones here and now. Kasper (1997) argues that while competence cannot be taught, students should be provided with opportunities to develop their pragmatic competence. He asserts that "without some form of instruction, many aspects of pragmatic competence do not develop sufficiently" (Kasper, 1997, p. 7).Therefore, providing the opportunity for the learners to get familiar with the aspects of ILP seems to necessitate instruction in pragmatics (Martinez-Flor & Fukuya, 2005).

The studies concerned with the teachability of pragmatic features of language have suggested that those learners who were instructed outperformed the control group that received no instruction (Billmyer, 1990; Bouton, 1988; Morrow, 1996; Olshtain & Cohen, 1990; Wildner-Bassett, 1994). In a meta-

analysis of thirteen empirical ILP studies carried out by Jeon and Kaya (2006), they reported the ILP instruction seems to be an effective way of presenting the pragmatic aspects of language. This is in line with what Norris and Ortega's (2000) suggested regarding their grammatical instruction. Another line of pragmatic research considers the effect each of the explicit or implicit instructions might have on pragmatic proficiency of the learners (House, 1996; House & Kasper, 1981). The results indicated that the explicitly taught group outperformed the implicitly taught one. The two aforementioned conclusions, however, should be interpreted with caution because of the limited number of studies carried out thus far. Therefore, previous "research supports the view that pragmatic ability can indeed be systematically developed through classroom activities" (Kasper, 1997, p. 9). Cohen's (1996) study revealed that appropriate performance of speech acts is possible through practicing. Considering the aforementioned findings reported in the literature of ILP, the findings of the present study concerning the planned instruction of learners' awareness and information concerning speech acts, are in line with the latest research findings in this area. Pragmatic competence of EFL learners, mainly that of TEFL majors studying in the Iranian universities can be enhanced through paying more attention to the real language use of speech acts in the real or semi-real environment. As a good number of Iranian students aim at studying abroad for their PhD level and need to take high stake tests which include some pragmatic language items, they need gaining a moderate mastery over the pragmatic issues as well.

Teaching speech acts can take find way to the English classes in the Iranian universities and language institutes and its role in daily academic negotiations, lectures and talks could be highlighted; hence the present findings could be employed by second/foreign language teachers to make the learners more aware of what they are dealing with. The assumption is that participation in a noticing treatment facilitates learning (Doughty, 2001), and learners must pay attention to the features of input they are exposed to and notice the gap between the target like forms in it and the current state of their linguistic knowledge. This could be done through a kind of cognitive comparison which has been seen as one of the crucial processes in language acquisition (Rauber & Gil, 2004).

Mackey (2006), within the framework of SLA, pays attention to the role pragmatic noticing and interactional feedback play in L2 development. Although she does not directly use the term "speech acts", she emphasizes the importance of presence of noticing in prompting learners to notice L2 forms, meanings, and socio-cultural norms. In this regard, the instructional aspects of ILP could be taken in to consideration (Taguchi, 2014). Also, both explicit and implicit instructional types could be effectively employed in the second language classroom in an attempt to enhance EFL learners' ILP (Hassaskhah & Ebrahimi, 2015). That is why planned instruction of pragmatics and interlanguage pragmatics are expected to pave the way for the learners' improvement in both proficiency and pragmatic knowledge of the target language (Taguchi, 2015).

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THE EFFECTIVENESS OF EXPOSURE TO DOCUMENTARY FILMS WITH AND WITHOUT SUBTITLE AS AUTHENTIC LANGUAGE INPUT ON LISTENING COMPREHENSION OF INTERMEDIATE LEVEL LANGUAGE LEARNERS

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ABSTRACT
THE PRESENT STUDY WAS CARRIED OUT TO EXAMINE THE EFFECTIVENESS OF EXPOSURE TO DOCUMENTARY FILMS WITH AND WITHOUT SUBTITLE AS AUTHENTIC LANGUAGE INPUT ON LISTENING COMPREHENSION OF INTERMEDIATE LEVEL LANGUAGE LEARNERS. TO THIS END, 46 INTERMEDIATE PARTICIPANTS WERE SELECTED OUT OF A BIGGER POPULATION OF 89 LANGUAGE LEARNERS BASED ON A SAMPLE LISTENING TEST FROM THE INTERNATIONAL ENGLISH LANGUAGE TESTING SYSTEM (IELTS) PRE-TEST. DURING THE RESEARCH WHICH LASTED FOR 6 ACADEMIC WEEKS (6 HOURS A WEEK), 23 LEARNERS WERE EXPOSED TO DOCUMENTARY FILMS WITH ENGLISH SUBTITLE (THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP) WHILE 23 LEARNERS WERE EXPOSED TO DOCUMENTARY FILMS WITHOUT SUBTITLE (THE CONTROL GROUP). AFTER 6 WEEKS, ANOTHER SAMPLE OF IELTS LISTENING TEST WAS ADMINISTERED TO THE PARTICIPANTS AS POST-TEST TO FIND OUT THE EFFECTIVENESS OF DOCUMENTARY FILMS WITH/WITHOUT SUBTITLE ON LISTENING COMPREHENSION. THE RESULTS OF THE STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF THE PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST REVEALED THAT THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP OUTPERFORMED THE CONTROL GROUP. IN OTHER WORDS, EXPOSURE TO DOCUMENTARY FILMS WITH ENGLISH SUBTITLE HAS THE POTENTIAL TO ENHANCE THE LISTENING COMPREHENSION OF LANGUAGE LEARNERS.

KEYWORDS: DOCUMENTARY FILMS, LISTENING COMPREHENSION, SUBTITLE

1. INTRODUCTION

Technology as a pedagogical tool for learning and swelling a language has been the focus of many researchers and teachers (Bahrani & Tam, 2012). Computer as an old technology helps in improving language learning. According to Adams, Morrison and Reedy (1968), computer assisted language learning (CALL) has the potential not only to supervise the language learners' performance in an informal setting, but also to oversee, record, analyze and summarize data about their learning.

Egan (1999) considered computers as a technology which makes learners access genuine language sources in listening, reading, sending emails, taking part in chat room and etc. According to Egan (1999), most commercial computer programs designed for language learning need language learners to do some exercises such as filling blanks, choosing the correct answers, practicing in reading and listening to authentic written and spoken language, producing language by repeating words or sentences, recording their responses, and comparing them to native models.

Technology gives the chance to the learners to access authentic materials which motivate students to learn a second or foreign language. The use of authentic materials in second or foreign language has a long history. Sweet (1899) was one of the first linguists who used authentic texts in his books because of

the advantages attached to authentic materials over other materials. According to Taylor (1994), authentic materials are not prepared for language teaching purposes. In contrast, they contain the characteristics of language used by the native speakers. Gilmore (2007) defined authentic language input as the language conveying a real message produced by a real speaker or writer for a real audience.

There are many advantages of authentic materials which make them pedagogically valuable sources of exposure to second or foreign language. Martinez (2002) mentioned a number of advantages for authentic materials. An initial advantage is that authentic language materials provide a wide range of language change of the target language. For example, through listening to authentic songs and stories in the target language, language learners will be able to hear dialectal differences of various countries that speak the target language. Brinton (1991) underscored the point that authentic materials from media can reinforce the direct relationship between the language classroom and the outside world for the students.

Nunan (1999) highlighted the point that authentic language input can be extracted from many different sources including TV and radio broadcasts, recorded conversations, meetings and newspapers. The use of authentic materials extracted from audiovisual programs has been the focus of many studies. For instance, different songs as authentic programs can motivate language learners to learn the language better if they are used besides the lessons to be learned (Schoepp, 2001), different films can improve listening comprehension and motivate language learners (Chapple & Curtis, 2000; Ryan, 1998, Heffernan, 2005; Gebhardt, 2004), TV and radio news utterances as teaching material have proved effective in improving listening comprehension of EFL learners having difficulty in dealing with comprehending news utterances (Brinton & Gaskill, 1987; Baker,1996) and cartoons have proved to engage the attention of the learners and present information in a non-threatening atmosphere (Clark, 2000; Rule & Ague, 2005).

Many researchers have considered the pedagogical values of various audiovisual programs, however, to the best knowledge of the researchers of the present study, almost none of them considered the pedagogical value of documentary films empirically. To fill the potential gap in the literature, the effect of exposure to documentary films with/without English subtitle on listening comprehension of language learners will be scrutinized in the present research.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

The use of various types of audiovisual programs has been the focus of many studies since 1980s (Bahrani & Tam, 2012).

According to Brinton and Gaskill (1987), exposure to audiovisual news language input has the potential to improve the listening skill because different newscasts bring reality into the classroom and enable the students to focus on substantive issues.

A study conducted by Mackenzie (1997) showed that TV and radio news can be used for all levels of EFL learning. Mackenzie rejected the assumption that because the reporters speak too fast, the content is too complex and the vocabulary is too difficult, TV and radio news cannot be used by EFL learners with low level. Cabaj and Nicolic (2000) also noted that a great amount of exposure to TV and radio news could help students cope with comprehending TV and radio news broadcasts easier.

A review of the related literature in the area of using songs in language teaching provides limited empirical evidence on the effect of listening to songs on language acquisition. Some researchers (Aida, 1994; Gatti-Taylor, 1980; Leith, 1979; Martinez, 2002; Miché, 2002; Schoppe, 2001; Trapp, 1991) have proposed songs in the foreign/second language classroom to decrease anxiety and increase motivation, provide physiological benefits, guide lesson planning and practical classroom, and enhance cultural awareness and sensitivity.

A study conducted by Schoppe (2001) underlined affective reasons, cognitive reasons, and linguistic reasons as three important factors that make songs pedagogically effective authentic language materials for the enhancement of language learning.

Leith (1979) and Gatti-Taylor (1980) emphasized that listening to songs is a better and quicker way to teach phonetics because it is easy to find songs that are filled with lyrics which stress a particular phoneme.

Martinez (2002) also emphasized that through listening to authentic songs and stories in the target language, language learners will be able to get familiar with dialectal differences of various countries that speak English language.
Limited number of studies have focused on the pedagogical value of cartoons as authentic materials (Bahrani & Tam, 2012).
Clark (2000 highlighted the point that cartoons have the potential to reinforce thinking processes and discussion skills (Clark, 2000). Schoppe (2001) also indicated that songs have the pedagogical potential to create low affective filter atmosphere for language learning, cartoons can also create the same situation. According to Rule and Ague (2005) cartoons are preferred because they create low affective filter atmosphere which causes high degree of motivation. The high confidence and motivation achieved through exposure to cartoons is claimed to enhance the memory of the language learners when they try to make connection between the new materials and the prior knowledge through analogy in a comfortable atmosphere (Rule & Ague, 2005). Rule and Ague (2005) also claimed that students who use cartoons can improve different language skills and achieve higher test scores.

Movies have long been regarded as an important resource for foreign language instructors because it is an authentic source of material (Kaiser, 2011). According to Stempleski (1992), movies provide language learners exposures to the real language uttered in authentic settings.

Audiovisual programs with/without subtitle have also attracted the attention of some researchers (Hayati & Mohmedi, 2011; Zanon, 2006; Buck, 2001; Markham & McCarthy, 2001; among others). Subtitle is defined as the printed translation or the textual version of the dialogue in various audiovisual programs that can be read at the bottom of the screen when watching a foreign film (Canning-Wilson & Wallace, 2000).

Considering the use of audiovisual programs with/without subtitle/caption, a quantitative study conducted by Hayati and Mohmedi (2011) showed that language learners who were exposed to movies with English subtitle performed significantly much better than the participants who had exposure to movies with Persian subtitle and the participants who had exposure to movies with no subtitle.
A bulk of the research has indicated that language learners who watch subtitled videos have shown improvement in reading and listening comprehension, word recognition, decoding skills, motivation, and vocabulary acquisition (Evmenova, 2008; Goldman, 1993; King, 2002; Koskinen et al., 1995; Neuman, 1990; Shea, 2000). Using subtitle has also proved to have a positive effect on listening comprehension. Zanon (2006) claims that through using subtitled films, a triple connection between images, and sound in one language and text which is provided normally in another sound and text are linked by translation.
In particular, subtitling as a pedagogical resource can efficiently enhance comprehension of idea units (Buck, 2001). Moreover, subtitles have been perceived as the most useful and efficient auxiliary for watching videos (Hsu, 1994). Markham and McCarthy (2001) have indicated that videos with subtitles facilitate listening comprehension. The language is spoken at a normal conversational speed and varieties of various ages are encountered. Although authentic videos can be challenging for the average student, the language can be understood with the help of subtitles, either by having them already visible on the screen or by creating them" (Talaván 2010: 295).

To resolve the issue of the effects of subtitle on documentary films, the present study was conducted to answer the following research questions:

1. To what extent does exposure to documentary films with English subtitle improve the intermediate EFL learners' listening comprehension?
2. To what extent does exposure to documentary films without English subtitle improve the intermediate EFL learners' listening comprehension?

3. METHODOLOGY

Participants

Initially, a total of 89 language learners including both males and females from Yasouj Islamic Azad University volunteered for the research. The participants aged from 19 to 26 at the time of the study. A smaller population of 46 participants was selected out of the initial 89 participants based on a sample listening test from International English Language Testing System (IELTS) pre-test.

Then, the 46 participants who scored one standard deviation above and one standard deviation below the mean were selected and randomly divided into two groups of equal number.

Instrumentation

The only instrument utilized to elicit the necessary data for the present research was a set of two parallel IELTS listening test.

IELTS listening tests

A set of two sample IELTS listening tests were utilized from Cambridge IELTS 3 as pre-post-tests. Prior to the study, the sample IELTS listening tests were verified to be parallel and reliable to ensure the internal validity of the findings.

Materials

Documentary films with/without subtitle

The materials used in the current research consisted of similar samples of documentary films, one with subtitle and the other one without subtitle. The documentaries were several episodes about wild life (10 hours) and one series called 1000 places to see before you die (10 hours).

Procedure

The first step before the main data collection was to assure the reliability of the two sample IELTS listening tests. To this end both tests were given to two trials groups of language learners (each including 10 participants). Then, the reliability of both tests was calculated separately using KR-21 formula. Both tests received high reliability (test 1=0.89 and test 2=0.86). Once the reliability of the pre-post tests was assured and in order to start the main data collection procedure one of the parallel IELTS listening tests was administered as a pre-test to a population of 89 language learners who volunteered to be part of the study. They included both males and females. From this 89, 46 language learners who scored SD above and below the mean were selected.

The 46 intermediate participants were randomly assigned into two groups. These two groups watched the selected documentary films in two separate classes. One group watched the documentary films with English subtitle and the other group watched the same documentary films without subtitle. These two groups watched the same documentary films 3 days a week and each day for 2 hours. The researcher was the same for both groups. The only difference in both groups was that one group watched documentary films with English subtitle and the other group watched the same documentaries without subtitle. Both groups watched 20 hours documentary films for 6 weeks, each week 6 hours. The first 10 hours were one series called "1000 places to see before you die" and several sections about wild life. The other 10 hours were the repetition of the series "1000 places to see before you die" and the sections about wild life. It means that participants watched the documentary films for two times. Immediately after 6 weeks, the second sample IELTS listening test was administered to the participants in order to evaluate their listening comprehension.

RESULTS

The present research employed SPSS 19 statistical software to analyze the data. Statistical analysis was carried out on the data obtained from the two parallel IELTS pre-post tests.

In order to answer the first research question, a paired sample t-test was run on the data obtained from the administration of the pre-post tests to the participants who had exposure to documentary films with subtitle.

According to the descriptive analysis of the language learners' data in the documentary films with subtitle group presented in Table 1, there was a significant difference in the means of the pre-test (M=14 SD=1.25) and the post-test (M=18, SD=0.32). Moreover, the results of the paired-samples t-test (Table 2) show that the mean difference between the pre-post tests band scores of the participants in the documentary films with subtitle group is 4, t (22)=-3.551, and p=0.008 which is smaller than 0.05. A comparison of the two means shows that the mean for the post-test was higher than the mean of the pre-test.

The magnitude of the differences in the means was large (η^2=0.363). Comparing this obtained eta-squared value (η^2=0.363) to Cohen's (1988) criteria, it is obvious that the obtained effect size of 0.363 is a large effect size. A large effect size suggests that the mean difference of the pre-post tests band scores of the participants in the documentary films with subtitle group is very big or large. This implies that the effectiveness of exposure to various documentary films with subtitle was major in improving the listening skill of the participants in the documentary films with subtitle group.

Table 1: the participants in the documentary films with subtitle group s' descriptive analysis of the pre-post tests band scores

Tests	Mean	N	SD	Std. Error Mean
Pre-test	14	23	1.25	0.23
Post-test	18	23	0.32	0.41

Table 2: Descriptive analysis of the paired-samples t-test for the intermediate level language learners' data

Tests	Paired Differences					T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	SD	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pre Band Score-Post Band Score	-4	0.31	0.06	-0.28	-0.03	-3.551	22	0.008

The analysis of the data obtained from the results of the pre-post tests of the participants in the documentary films without subtitle group (Table 3) indicated that there was a minor difference in the mean of the pre-test (M=15.25, SD=1.05) and the post-test (M=16.56, SD=0.33). Additionally, the results of the paired-samples t-test presented in Table 4 show that the mean difference between the pre-post tests band scores of participants in the documentary films without subtitle group is 1.31, t (22)=-0.720, and p=0.895 which is bigger than 0.05.

A comparison of the two means indicates that the mean for the post-test was higher than the mean of the pre-test. The magnitude of the differences in the means was not large (η^2=0.066). Comparing this eta-squared value obtained (η^2=0.066) to Cohen's (1988) criteria, it can be concluded that the obtained effect size is a small effect size. A small effect size implies that exposure to documentary films without subtitle was not effective in improving listening skill of the participants in the documentary films without subtitle group.

Table 3: The intermediate language learners' descriptive analysis of the pre-post tests band scores

Tests	Mean	N	SD	Std. Error Mean
Pre-test	15.25	23	1.05	0.05
Post-test	16.56	23	0.33	0.66

Table 4: Descriptive analysis of the paired-samples t-test for the intermediate level language learners' data

Tests	Paired Differences					T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	SD	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pre Band Score-Post Band Score	-1.31	0.43	0.08	-0.049	-0.14	-0.720	22	0.895

In other words, it can be concluded that participants who had exposed to subtitled documentary films had improved their listening comprehension more significantly than the participants who had exposed to documentary films without subtitles.

DISCUSSION

Considering the first research question, the findings of the paired-samples t-test of the participants' pre-test and post-test mean band scores in the documentary with subtitle group indicated that the participants' could improve their listening skill significantly.

The findings of this study support the finding of the study conducted by Markham (1989) who considered the effect of subtitled TV movies on listening comprehension of beginner, intermediate and advanced English learners. He used two subtitled movies that their topics were unknown to learners. Each group watched both with and without subtitle movies. He measured learners` comprehension by using multiple- choice questions according to the language of the movies. The result of his study showed that all three groups subtitled movies performed better, which is in congruent with this study that learners who expose to documentaries with subtitle performed better.

The findings of the present study also highly support the study conducted by Abdolmanafi Rokni and Ataee (2014) who investigated the effect of the use of movie with subtitle and without subtitle on the improvement of listening comprehension in EFL intermediate students at Golestan University.

Using subtitle is the most effective way of language learning because of combination of aural, visual and textual. By looking at subtitles learners can comprehend what they hear and it facilitates language learning. In the class those learners who were exposed to documentary films with subtitle did better than those without subtitle, they heard the sound of the films and simultaneously they looked at the text at the bottom of the screen so they could understand the film better. Because they were exposed to documentaries, they learned about the culture and language of the films, so subtitles helped them for better understanding of the culture and language of different countries even they could discuss about what they see and it was interesting for them.

By hearing English language and seeing those audio in a form of a text at the same time learners could understand what they did not hear correctly or what they had difficulty to understand.

Many researchers such as Bird and Williams (2002), Grignon, Lavaur, and Blanc (2005), Kusumarasdyati (2005), and Zanon (2006) emphasized using subtitles in movies, news and etc. for better understanding of the materials which learners expose to. So reading subtitles make participants motivated toward understanding what is shown and said.

In the present study, some learners took notes during watching documentaries so at the end of the class they repeated the statements that they learned during watching and they used them in their discussions about the scenes of the films. It was a kind of motivation for them to keep interested in watching and

focusing on the films. At the end of the class learners claimed that using subtitle made them learn new vocabularies and new structures both with correct spelling and pronunciation. Using subtitle made them interested in continual watching and they were not tired.

Considering the second research question, the findings of the paired-samples t-test of the participants' pre-test and post-test mean band scores in the documentary without subtitle group indicated that the participants' could also improve their listening skill but it was not statistically significant.

This result is highly congruent with the findings of Hayati and Mohmedi (2011), who conducted a study on the effect of films with and without subtitles on listening comprehension of EFL intermediate students.

In this study, the participants who had exposure to documentary films without subtitle had some problems comprehending some unfamiliar words which ultimately hindered their comprehension process. They did not see the text, so just relied on listening. They just heard the sound and because of this, they had problems in understanding difficult vocabulary or statement they heard. These problems made them unsatisfied and not motivated in continual watching.

Sometimes learners learned incorrect pronunciation, so if the native speakers in documentaries pronounced the same words, learners thought that they were new words but once they saw the text they realized that they were the same words but they pronounced them incorrectly.

During the period of exposure to documentaries, no subtitle group was a kind of nervous and uneasy compared to the subtitle group. Because this group had problems in understanding; therefore, they were not motivated to continue watching the documentaries. But the subtitle group watched documentaries carefully and they were eager to watch more and more, because they understand films better and they motivated to learn more.

Authentic programs with no subtitle may create insecurity and anxiety in learners. Hence incorporate audiovisual materials with subtitle provide a positive reinforcement in learners; therefore, they feel confidence and help them feel ready and motivated toward expose to authentic materials.

CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this study was to consider the pedagogical values of documentary films with/without subtitles as one of the authentic audiovisual materials to help language learners enhance their listening skill. The finding of the current experimental study indicated that exposure to documentary films with subtitle could significantly enhance listening comprehension of intermediate language learners.

The present research showed the pedagogical value of one of the types of audiovisual programs as potential sources of authentic language input. Teachers are recommended to use this type of audiovisual program with subtitle for learners' better understanding. Besides, they are recommended to provide their language learners with more language input of this type.

To fully maximize the intermediate level proficiency learners' preference for documentaries, the programs can be appropriately selected by the teachers to include those aspects of the language input which have not been acquired yet. Besides, teachers can incorporate some activities to assure the comprehension and the internalization of the language input.

In a nutshell, the results of the study may be important to language teachers, practitioners, and institutions for investment in audiovisual technologies for language learning by exposing the language learners more than before to the most effective types of authentic audiovisual materials.

This project was limited to the study of the effect of exposure to documentaries with two modes on listening comprehension and other skills were not taken into account. The participants in this study were in the age range of 19 to26; therefore, the results may not be generalized to other learners with different ages. In this study only two modes (English subtitle and no subtitle) were considered, the other mode

(Persian subtitle) was not regarded. There was no variety in documentaries, so documentaries with different topics were not available or the time did not allowed to use different documentaries.

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THE IMPACT OF ENHANCING SKEWED VS. BALANCED INPUT ON IRANIAN LOW INTERMEDIATE EFL LEARNERS' KNOWLEDGE OF VERB USE

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ABSTRACT
THE PRESENT STUDY ATTEMPTED TO INVESTIGATE THE IMPACT OF ENHANCING SKEWED VS. BALANCED INPUT ON IRANIAN LOW INTERMEDIATE EFL LEARNERS' KNOWLEDGE OF VERB USE. IN ORDER TO TEST THE RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS OF THIS STUDY, A QPT TEST WAS ADMINISTERED TO 90 EFL STUDENTS LEARNING ENGLISH LANGUAGE AT SAMIN LANGUAGE SCHOOL IN RASHT, GUILAN, IRAN. LEARNERS WHO SCORED BETWEEN ONE ABOVE AND BELOW THE STANDARD DEVIATION WERE SELECTED FOR THE STUDY. 40 LEARNERS WERE SELECTED FOR THIS STUDY AND THEY WERE DIVIDED INTO EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUP, EACH GROUP CONTAINED 20 LEARNERS. THEN A PART OF SPEECH RECOGNITION TEST WAS ADMINISTERED TO BOTH GROUPS AS A PRE-TEST TO TAKE THEIR INITIAL KNOWLEDGE OF VERB USE. THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP RECEIVED TREATMENT IN SKEWED INPUT IN TEN SESSIONS .THE CONTROL GROUP DID NOT RECEIVE TREATMENT. FINALLY BOTH GROUPS SAT FOR THE POST-TEST FOR PART OF SPEECH RECOGNITION TEST. BASED ON THE FINDINGS OF THIS STUDY, THE RESULTS OF ANCOVA ANALYSIS REVEALED THAT ENHANCING SKEWED INPUT HAD SIGNIFICANT IMPACTS ON IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS' KNOWLEDGE OF VERB USE.

KEY WORDS: INPUT HYPOTHESIS, BALANCED INPUT, SKEWED INPUT, EFL LEARNER, ESL LEARNER

1. Introduction

Languages across the world encode argument-verb relationships differently. For instance, while transitivity in English relies on word-order in rendering the grammatical function of the two arguments, other languages use case marking to disambiguate the agent-patient interaction. In this latter category, there are languages that mark all their direct objects (they are non-restrictive; Sinnemäki, 2009) and languages that mark them differentially (they are restrictive), based on the pragmatic or semantic properties of the arguments, a phenomenon called differential object marking (Aissen, 2003). Case-marking in differential object marking languages depends on degrees of prominence, with the most prominent argument being preferentially marked in order to disambiguate agent-patient roles in the case of non-prototypical constructions (when the agent is inanimate and the patient is animate). On the animate scale, prominence is assessed as Human > Animate > Inanimate, while on the definiteness scale, as Pronoun > Proper Noun > Definite > Indefinite Specific > NonSpecific (Aissen, 2003). As restrictive languages display differences as to which property affects case-marking, Sinnemäki (2009) proposed a further classification of restrictive languages into restrictive based on animacy, restrictive based on definiteness, and restrictive based on both animacy and definiteness. Definiteness languages tend to mark

all their definite/specific objects regardless of the animacy/inanimacy property (e.g., Turkish), whereas some animacy languages such as Malayalam case-mark only the objects in non-prototypical instances. Although languages may differ with respect to which aspect they give priority to in case-marking, both characteristics may be used to further disambiguate agent-patient roles.

2. Statement of the Problem

According to Aghajani & Rahimy (2013), quoting from Ellis (2006) mastering the grammar of a second language and being able to correctly implement this knowledge is a challenging task to accomplish. That is why most ESL/EFL learners often have problems using language forms accurately in oral and written production. They may have a good knowledge base of the L2 structures but might find it difficult to implement their declarative knowledge when it comes to practice. This very deficiency is what makes grammar instruction open to research (Ellis, 2006). In foreign language teaching process, teaching grammar is one of the stressed points that teachers cannot disregard. Despite the various views whether it should be presented or not, there is a general agreement that a systematic and purposeful teaching of it is vital to master the target language.

According to Rahimy & Moradkhani (2012), quoting from Fotos (1998) the reason that any grammar instruction figures heavily in the EFL curriculum is manifested by the particular characteristics of EFL settings. However, learners of English as a foreign language are well aware of the fact that, despite years of study, they are still unable to use the English language communicatively. It is evident that by having a good knowledge of L2 grammar system L2 learning would be accelerated as well. However, the question raised is 'how and by which methods and techniques we can achieve such an aim'. Since learning English as a second language is considered as an essential need nowadays and the performance of students in grammar learning has not been that much satisfying so far, the application of efficient methods and techniques to promote their output is quite significant. The reasons for such failure should be traced but certainly most of them will remain out of scope of this study.

A review of formal grammar instruction, over the past 30 years, revealed that the curriculum for teaching grammar in elementary and secondary schools has changed, resulting in less emphasis on grammar labels and more emphasis on developing awareness of grammar structures through various pedagogical methods. Currently, little or no grammar instruction is provided at the college level (Dunn & Lindblom, 2003; Long, 1996; Meyer, 2003; Sams, 2003).

According to Koosha & Jafarpour (2006), the majority of Iranian EFL learners have a good knowledge of English grammar and vocabulary; however, they seem to have serious problems with the production of collocational patterns, specifically collocations of prepositions. This inefficiency seems to be, to some extent, due to the lack of collocational knowledge among Iranian EFL students, and to a large extent, the inadequate emphasis given to collocational patterns in their textbooks, and the type of instructions they receive. Moreover, such multi-word lexemes, i.e., prepositions and their collocational patterns have not usually been a major focus of teaching and research in our country.

3. Significance of the Study

Some "theory of the child" is necessary, then, to bring the facts about the input – how adults speak to children – and the facts about the output – how children speak – into some sort of responsible alignment. This alignment is what linguistic theory is designed to be about (Chomsky, 1965). Understanding how environment and nature in this sense come together to explain the course and outcome of language learning is a crucial question. Indeed, it is the only question worth asking in this domain given that children's exposure to a language is finite and limited, and yet they come to say anything they choose (or at least anything they can get away with). In the present research, the researcher examined the effects of skewed versus balanced input on the knowledge of verb use in an EFL context.

4. Research Question

Does enhancing skewed vs. balanced input have any significant effect on Iranian low intermediate EFL learners' knowledge of verb use?

5. Review of the Related Literature

Learners' acquisition of a second language (L2) depends on their experience of this language and on what they can make of it. Accounts of successful L2 acquisition have accordingly emphasized the importance of the quality of the input available to learners (e.g., Gass, 1997; Lightbown, 1992; Swain, 1988).

Extensive corpus linguistic investigations of the frequencies, frequency distributions, and salience of forms in language input and longitudinal corpora relating the properties of learner interlanguage to the available input have the potential to provide crucial insights into the input–acquisition relationship. An understanding of this relationship is also informed by experimental work, but, to date, we have a relatively limited body of research in second language acquisition in which fine-grained manipulations of learners' experience with natural language input (such as skewed vs. balanced exposure to target features) has been explored. These corpus-based and experimentally generated data are the data necessary for the investigation of how the learning of linguistic constructions (the units of the linguistic system that specify the morphological, syntactic, and lexical form of language and their associated semantic, pragmatic, and discourse functions) might follow general cognitive principles of category learning.

In Year and Gordon's study (2009), the direct link between input and production is also examined, this time in an actual foreign language classroom. The issue under investigation is the role of skewed versus balanced input on the acquisition of the ditransitive construction in L2 English (e.g., give someone something), a phenomenon that has not received much research attention in the L2 literature. Although the actual learning in the two conditions is similar, the balanced group shows more productive use of the target construction and greater long-term retention, results that differ from previous research of the same phenomenon in L1 acquisition (Goldberg et al., 2004) in which a high-frequency prototypical verb has been found to facilitate the learning of novel constructions.

In interpreting their findings, Year and Gordon (2009) consider some of the input and learning factors that distinguish L2 learning from L1 learning (including explicit vs. implicit learning modes) and that distinguish classroom and naturalistic language learning from laboratory learning (including differences in the way in which stimuli are experienced in the two learning contexts).

The issue concludes with a commentary by Boyd and Goldberg (2009) on the five studies presented herein. They describe the tenets of the constructionist framework that informed much of the research presented before focusing on the issues of type/token frequency, contingency, and learner cognition. They weigh the merits of different operationalizations of these constructs and of different accounts of their effects in acquisition, pitting the alternatives against each other to identify areas for future research. In addition, they explore further the role that skewed input may play in initial acquisition with reference to additional research of their own, thereby providing readers with alternative interpretations of some of the data presented in the volume.

6. Methods of research

In order to check the level of general language proficiency of students at the beginning of the study, and to make sure of their homogeneity, an Oxford Placement Test was used.

6.1. The Design of the Study

The current study followed a quasi experimental design in which subjects of the study were non-randomly selected, were made homogeneous, and then their intact classes were randomly assigned into control and experimental groups in order to investigate research question of the study.

6.2. Participants

The study was conducted with 40 Iranian low intermediate EFL students who were studying English at Samin Language School in Rasht, Guilan, Iran. The participants were selected from four intact classes taking conversation courses. Twenty participants were randomly chosen as the experimental group and the other 20 with the same number and features were regarded as the control group. All participants were aged 18 to 24. In order to make sure of homogeneity, the participants were selected out of a pool of 90 based on their result in QPT. Having calculated the mean and the SD, participants with the score of 1 SD above and below the mean (± 1SD from the mean) were selected to conduct the study. The experimental group received a 10-session treatment in which they encountered treatment in parts of speech recognition i.e. recognizing verbs, nouns, adjectives and adverbs with the emphasis on verb use in

conversation. Classes were held two sessions a week. Each session took 90 minutes. The control group did not receive any treatment.

6.3. Materials

To answer the research question of this study, the following instruments were used:

6.3.1. Oxford Quick Placement Test (QPT)

The Quick Placement Test (QPT) is a flexible test of English language proficiency developed by Oxford University Press and Cambridge ESOL to give teachers a reliable and time-saving method of finding a student's level of English. It is quick and easy to administer and is ideal for placement testing and examination screening. There are two versions available, a computer-based (CB) version and a paper and pen (P&P) version.

The QPT is designed to help teachers and course managers make rapid decisions about which class to place students in or whether a learner can join a particular course, such as an exam class. The test can be used for learners of all levels and all ages.

The computer-based version uses multiple choice questions to assess students in listening, reading, and structure, including grammar and vocabulary. The paper and pen version can be used to place students in classes in the same way as the computer-based version but in circumstances where the CBT (computer-based test) is not feasible, for example, because of technical limitations. All students who take the paper and pen version should complete Part One. Part Two should only be completed by those students who have scored more than a predetermined score in Part One.

As with the computer-based version, the test administrators will probably want to combine the test score with other forms of assessment, such as speaking and writing skills, to get an overall picture of proficiency that is most appropriate for the objectives of their courses.

In order to check the level of general language proficiency of students at the beginning of the study, and to make sure of their homogeneity, Quick Placement Test was used. All participants in four intact classes took this test. QPT consisted of three parts. The test had 60 items and a writing part. Due to administration problems, the writing section was excluded.

6.3.2. Pretest

The purpose of this test administered before the treatment was to find the possible initial differences between the knowledge of verb use in the experimental and control groups. In so doing, a test was used to test the participants' knowledge of verb use.

6.3.3. Posttest

This test which was administered after the treatment sessions was equal in all respects to pretest except for the topic of the question. In fact, another version of the test was used to test the participants' knowledge of verb use after the interventions.

6.4. Procedures for Data Collection and Analysis

This study was conducted in September and November 2015. Two classes including 40 students at Samin Language School, Rasht were randomly selected as the experimental group and the other one with the same number of students were randomly chosen as the control group. To make sure of their homogeneity, all the participants, sat for the QPT. Among those participants who passed the exam the ones who could obtain the score one SD above and below the mean were selected for the study. Therefore, 40 participants (20 in each two classes) remained and the scores of other students were excluded from the data analysis in the remaining phases of this study (i.e. pretest and posttest).

A pretest of verbs was administered to both groups. After that the experimental group received treatment, which included the teaching of word categories including verbs, nouns, adjectives and adverbs in ten sessions. The control group did not receive treatment. After the treatment both groups were given a posttest of verbs. The following diagram illustrates the steps taken in this study.

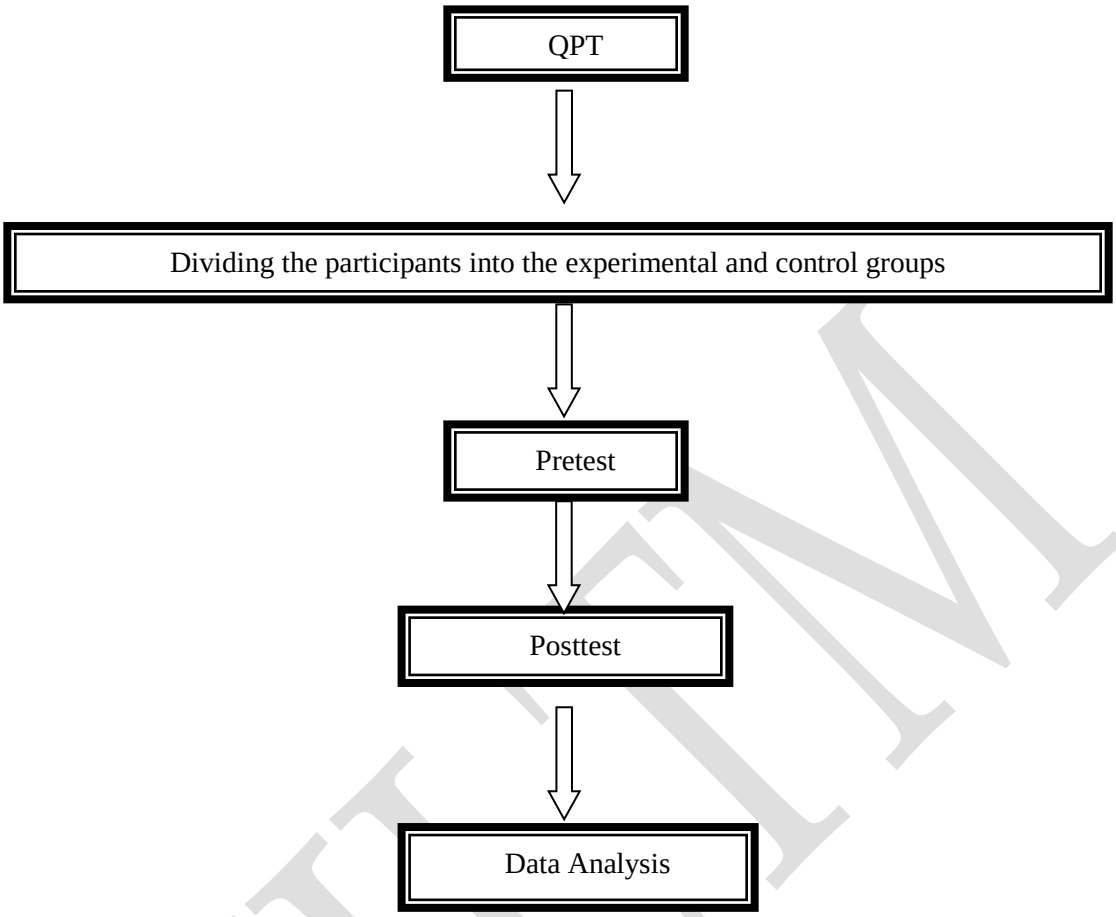

Figure 1. Design of the study

6.4.1 Data Analysis Procedure

The results of posttest were analyzed for further discussion via one-way ANCOVA on the scores obtained from experimental and control group to see whether using skewed or balanced input had any effects on EFL learners' knowledge of verb use.

7. Results and Discussion

A descriptive statistical analysis was done on the collected data of QPT (Oxford Quick Placement Test). The results are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics for the proficiency test QPT

N	Valid	90
	Missing	0
Mean		25.57
Std. Deviation		5.075
Variance		25.754

Table 2 shows the number of students who took the pretest and posttest. It should be mentioned that no one was excluded.

Table 2. Number of students who participated in pretest and posttest

	Included	**Excluded**	**Total**

	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Pretest group	20	100%	0	0%	20	100%
Posttest group	20	100%	0	0%	20	100%

Table 2 represents the number of participants in the present research. All participants took part in pretest and posttest in this study.

Table 3. Descriptive statistics for the pretest and posttest

type of class	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
experimental	45.87	3.767	20
control	35.13	5.532	20
Total	40.50	7.163	40

The descriptive statistical analysis done on the collected data of pretest and posttest is shown in table 3.

The descriptive statistical analysis done on the collected data of pretest and posttest is shown in the table 3. The mean and standard deviation of each group are included.

In the present study, in order to investigate the research hypothesis" Enhancing Skewed vs. Balanced input does not have any significant effect on Iranian low intermediate EFL learners' knowledge of verb use" the differences between mean scores of pre-test and posttest of the control and the experimental groups were calculated through one-way ANCOVA.
In order to examine the equality of variances, Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances was run. It tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups. Table 4 illustrates the results of the Levene's test of equality of variance.

Table 4. Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variance

Dependent Variable: posttest

F	**df1**	**df2**	**Sig.**
0.31	1	38	.59

The details in the Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances table allow us to check that we have not violated the assumption of equality of variance. We want the Sig. value to be *greater* than .05. If this value is smaller than .05 (and therefore significant), this means that our variances are not equal and that we have violated the assumption. In this case, we have not violated the assumption because our Sig. value is .59, which is much greater than our cut-off of .05. The main ANCOVA results are presented in the next table, table 5.
The main ANCOVA results are presented in this table. We want to know whether our groups are significantly different in terms of their scores on the dependent variable (skewing vs. balanced input).

The line corresponding to the independent variable (Group) and reading it across to the column labeled Sig. shows whether there is a significant difference between groups. In this study, the value is .00, which is smaller than .05; therefore, the result is significant. There is a significant difference in the performance of the participants in the experimental group after controlling for scores on the pretest administered prior to the intervention.

Table 5. Test of between subject effects

Dependent Variable: posttest					
Source	**Type III Sum of Squares**	**df**	**Mean Square**	**F**	**Sig.**
Corrected Model	1040.644[a]	2	520.322	20.135	.000
Intercept	2338.596	1	2338.596	90.498	.000
pretest	10.419	1	10.419	.403	.529
group	1040.584	1	1040.584	40.268	.000
Error	956.131	37	25.841		
Total	68175.000	40			
Corrected Total	1996.775	39			

a. R Squared = .521 (Adjusted R Squared = .495)

As it can be seen the results (Sig=.00) shows that there is a difference between two groups. It means that there is a significant difference between the experimental and the control groups. As a result, the null hypothesis "Enhancing Skewed vs. Balanced input does not have any significant effect on Iranian low intermediate EFL learners' knowledge of verb use" was rejected.

It is clear from the preceding reviews that some form of comprehension must take place before we can begin to talk about intake and acquisition. Accordingly, most of the empirical studies on this issue have focused on how input affects comprehension or task performance. The main objective of these studies has been to identify and quantify various conversational modifications, without taking into consideration the effect of skewed input and the difference between this type of input and the balanced one. However, the theory of input cannot bypass the fundamental problem of how it is that input becomes intake (see Chaudron, 1985; Sharwood Smith, 1985), and how intake is eventually utilized in the generation of output.

Although it is not clear whether it is language that influences thought or vice versa, L1-specific encodings of argument properties may lead their speakers to pay attention to those specific aspects in the initial phases of categorization, and these aspects can affect pattern detection regardless of input quality. It is important to understand that categorizations over linguistic structures are dealt with in terms of both form and meaning, and form-meaning mappings require more than attention to input, with detection of meaning being influenced by a speakers' L1. For instance, the prototypical meaning of the transitive construction, *X acts on Y* is identical across languages, but it is only an abstraction that does not always correspond to real life situations.

The results showed that skewed input seems facilitate English verb recognition although its efficacy may be limited. The mean score of the experimental group was higher than that of the control group on the posttest. The results are accordance with those of the most reviewed studies (Kim, 2003; Kong, 2007; Parker & Chaudron, 1987; Urano, 2002). Although the results of the current study are different from those of Brewer's (2008), it seems hard to deny the positive effect of skewed input due to the different objectives of the two researches, verb recognition for the current study and reading comprehension for Brewer's study.

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LEARNING CULTURE AND IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS' ATTITUDES AND PREFERENCES

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ABSTRACT
TEACHING CULTURE IS ONE INDISPENSABLE PART OF LEARNING A FOREIGN LANGUAGE. HOWEVER, BECAUSE OF ITS COMPLICATED PROCESS OF TEACHING AND LEARNING, IT MAY CREATE PLENTY OF PROBLEMS. IN FACT, CULTURE ENCOMPASSES EVERYTHING FROM DAILY LIFE TO TRADITIONS, OR FROM WAYS OF SHOWING POLITENESS TO IMPORTANT OCCASIONS OR SPECIAL DAYS IN A SOCIETY. THE CURRENT STUDY IS TO PINPOINT IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS' ATTITUDES AND PREFERENCES IN TERMS OF LEARNING AND TEACHING OF CULTURE SO AS TO ELABORATE ON THE PRACTICE OF LANGUAGE TEACHING IN AN EFL CONTEXT. ACCORDINGLY, A QUESTIONNAIRE WAS ADMINISTRATED TO 60 ENGLISH TRANSLATION STUDENTS IN SIRJAN PAYAME NOOR UNIVERSITY, IRAN. TO SUM UP, THE RESULTS OF THE STUDY SUGGESTED THAT IRANIAN UNIVERSITY STUDENTS AGREED UPON THE IMPORTANCE OF LEARNING TARGET CULTURE. WHAT IS MORE, THE PARTICIPANTS OF THIS STUDY BELIEVED THAT ALTHOUGH CULTURE IS IMPORTANT, IT CAN'T SOLELY CREATE AN EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION.

KEYWORDS: LEARNING CULTURE, PREFERENCES, IRANIAN EFL LEARNER

1. Introduction

The definition of culture is not easy. For some people it is related to general knowledge and for others it is related to ways of life. Concerning latter, interestingly, it may define a whole bunch of choices that range from very simple categories like *holidays* to the *flag of the target* country or from *food* to *special occasions*. Pedagogically speaking, language teachers and planners are inevitably faced with the issue of selection of the cultural elements that are most applicable for their teaching contexts.

On the other hand, other type of culture can be named *art*, *literature*, *customs* and *everyday lives* of a peculiar group form the culture. These are, however, manifestations of the implicit culture. There are also values, beliefs, norms, and attitudes. When it comes to the relation between language and culture, many researchers seem to indicate the close relation between them. Brown (2000), for example, states that "a language is part of a culture, and a culture is a part of language; the two are intricately interwoven so that one cannot separate the two without losing the significance of either culture or language". According to Byram (1994), "the language holds the culture through denotations and connotations of its semantics". All in all, the relation between language and culture is so tight that it is almost impossible to think one as independent of the other. Therefore, the teaching of any language inevitably involves the teaching of culture, either explicitly or implicitly. Therefore, a study into target culture learning and teaching would have to include everything that can be viewed as part of a culture. All in all, learning cultures can be considered in a range of ways. Two ways will be mentioned in this part.

1. A learning culture has often been considered in terms of the environment and experiences created by teachers for students. A learning culture is one in which experiences are structured in such a way that students have opportunities to investigate, explore and take risks in developing
new ideas and insights.

2. A professional learning culture has often been thought of as something that is a feature of class and of class leadership. In this sense a professional learning culture is the promotion of professional learning as a normal and valuable part of teachers' work and the collaborative development process and goals for professional learning.

2. Background of the Study

It is evident that teaching how to use language in classroom setting is not a simple task that can be changed readily. Learning a second/foreign language is a holistic process that requires not just the mastery of structural, discoursal, and strategic rules but also, learners have to internalize sociolinguistic rules to assist them in the choice of appropriate forms. A professional learning culture is one which engages with learning in many different contexts. Broadly speaking, it is not simply the students' learning or an individual teacher's learning, but rather it is a commitment to learning as a valued activity in its own right. Creating a culture of learning for students is an important part of teaching and learning culture. A professional learning culture involves more than regular participation in organized learning activities, so it requires active engagement with ideas and issues and critical reflection of knowledge and practice. As an international language, English has spread all over the world and created a lot of varieties. Cultural awareness is the foundation of communication and it involves the ability of standing back from ourselves and become aware of our cultural values, beliefs and perceptions. In fact, cultural awareness becomes central when we have to interact with people from other cultures. People see, interpret and evaluate things in a different ways. What is considered an appropriate behavior in one culture is frequently inappropriate in another one. Misunderstandings arise when one uses a meaning to make sense of somebody's reality. Misinterpretations occur primarily when we lack awareness of our own behavioral rules and project them on others.

Nevertheless, teaching and incorporating culture has long been in doubt in English classes. According to Dornyei (2005) language and culture are indeed inseparable. Accordingly, profiles of English users and learners are changing. In this regard, Kachru (1992) proposed some terms, for instance, "inner circle countries", "outer circle countries", and "expanding circle countries". Culture seems to be the most relevant, at least in the case of immediate language needs, in the "inner and outer circle countries" due to the fact that in these countries English is used in daily transactions either as first or second language. Hence, cultural elements assume significance in 'inner circle and outer circle countries. Teaching and learning a foreign language in the expanding circle denotes that needs of language learners are different. Therefore, in the "Expanding Circle Countries", practitioners must be relatively more selective in the learning and teaching culture. Correspondingly, Iran can be considered as an expanding context.

Furthermore, as a result of the spread of English worldwide, there are now assumptions that American or British cultures may no longer be the relevant cultures (Alptekin, 2002) on account of the fact that there are too many varieties and users of the English language. In order to reduce the complexity and determine how much culture is needed and how it is to be handled in L2 classes, studies must be conducted accordingly. The present study was undertaken to investigate Iranian EFL university students perspectives, attitudes, and preferences on the learning of target culture with a view to unearth how they approach the issue and more importantly to help curriculum designers and language teachers in their practices.

Pedagogically, instructional providers must become knowledgeable enough and fully aware of the cultural differences existing among the EFL learners they teach. According to Lea & Goodfellow, (2003), with an unpredictable learner population in most settings, specifically in non-native contexts and in open and distance learning settings, instructional providers can no longer make overarching judgments about

the demographics of their learners before having the opportunity to interact with them. Tragically speaking, culture is often overlooked because the analysis phase of instructional design is one of the most commonly skipped phases. Thomas, Mitchell, and Joseph (2002) mentioned that, "culture is so much a part of the construction of knowledge that it must underpin not only the analysis phase but all phases of the design process" (p. 41). Thus it is essential that instructional providers continue to familiarize themselves with the learners' cultures throughout the implementation phase and even through the evaluation stage. They might consider including a cultural expert as part of the design team or asking a representative participant to help plan a course, training event, or product before implementation occurs.
Furthermore, lack of promoting sociolinguistic competence in foreign language learners becomes more evident when they start to use English for actual communication in real life. In the past, students used to learn English as part of curriculum and mainly for passing the tests to be able to graduate. However, today most of them need to learn another language for using it actively as a result of increasing needs. This changing need should be carefully analyzed and integrated into the curriculum and classroom practices through the teachers who serve as the agent of change and development.

3. Methodology

3.1. Subjects

Regarding subjects, 60 university EFL students participated in this study. The participants were all majoring in English translation at Sirjan Payame Noor University aged 18 to 26, both females and males. They were all the students of one of the researchers at university. In fact, the selection of the sample was based on convenience sampling.

3.2. Instruments

Concerning instruments of the current study, a questionnaire consisted of 12 questions regarding attitudes, preferences, and beliefs in teaching and learning culture has been adopted and adapted to this study. The reliability of the questionnaire has been calculated. According to KR-21 formulae, the reliability was .74, which is highly significant. By and large, demographics and questions regarding some possible intercultural experiences of the subjects and personal preferences in relation to the teaching and learning of culture are sought respectively. All in all, the questionnaire was administrated to the participants. The application stage went smoothly because the questionnaire was piloted prior to this study.

3.3. Procedures

First and foremost, three EFL classes in university have purposefully been selected. Then, the questionnaire with 12 questions has been distributed among them. It has been presented in one single session. The participants were supposed to answer the questions according to 5-point Likert scale. In the end, the questionnaire was analyzed and the data were fed into SPSS software so as to be analyzed. The mean score and standard deviation have been calculated in details.

4. Results and Discussions

Learning and teaching target culture has been investigated in this study. In essence, Iranian university students' beliefs, attitudes, and preferences have been evaluated. All in all, it can be mentioned that Iranian EFL learners considered "English Culture" as the relevant culture to study. Most importantly, Iranian EFL learners seemed so motivated in order to learn about target culture.

Table 1

Iranian university students' attitudes and preferences towards learning culture

Items	Mean	SD
1-Culture is an indispensable part of language learning.	4.70	0.70
2-Lack of cultural awareness hinders communication in second language context.	3.42	0.78
3- Learning a foreign language is the same as learning any other academic subject	4.69	0.60

4- I will lose my native culture if I learn the target culture	2.88	1.09
5- While learning the target culture it is important to study certain communities like family, or political parties.	3.61	0.85
6- Learning the target culture gives harm to the home culture	3.44	0.96
7- I could learn cultural aspects better if I had a native teacher.	4.80	0.50
8- I would like to learn more about English speaking countries.	4.50	0.63
9- I don't mind what others do in their own cultures, what really a matter for me is just to learn the language.	2.69	1.09
10-We generally work on cultural issues in our English lessons.	3.12	1.01
11-Our English books in Iran have sufficient cultural knowledge.	2.71	1.25
12- Working on culture motivate me to learn language.	5.08	0.69

The ultimate results of the questionnaire are presented in the table above. Regarding question number 1 that is investigated the importance of learning culture; the mean score is *(M=4.70, SD=0.70)* that stands the highest mean score among the other categories in this group. Therefore, it can be inferred that learning culture is important for the EFL students.

For item 2, the mean score of *(M=3.42, SD=0.78)* revealed that Iranian EFL learners believe that learning culture is important and lack of culture learning may hinder communication. Item 3 was particularly important on account of the fact that we need to find out how language learners view learning a second language. Approximately the majority of the participants stated that they agreed on this statement *(M=4.69, SD=0.60)*. Iranian EFL university students' viewed learning a second language similar to learning any other subjects. Concerning category 4, which indicates that Iranian EFL learners scarcely think that they may lose their native culture and identity when they learn the target culture *(M=2.88, SD=1.09)*. The result of item 5, which is about whether certain communities like family or political parties bear importance in the eyes of Iranian EFL learners, reveals that they are actually important. Accordingly, the mean score is *(M=3.61, SD=0.85)*.

Item 6 that is about whether learning the target culture gives harm to the students home culture with the mean score of *(M=3.44, SD=0.94)*. Item 7 regards whether learners could learn the target culture better if they had a *native* English teacher. The results are surprising because most of the students with the mean score of *(M=4.80, SD=0.50)* agreed upon this category. In essence, they thought that they can learn culture better with a native English teacher rather than a non-native teacher. This item seems to verify the emerging view that the status of native speaker as a point of reference is presumably increasing.

According to item 8, it can be inferred that the majority of Iranian EFL students like to learn more about English speaking countries *(M=4.50, SD=0.63)*. Besides, item 9 in the questionnaire is regarding whether Iranian EFL learners think they will lose their own identities when they learn the target culture with this mean score *(M=2.69, SD=1.09)*. It appears that Iranian learners liked to learn target culture with target language, by and large, they have the tendency towards working on cultural issues in their English lessons and have appreciated it *(M= 3.12, SD=101)*.

Concerning item 11, Iranian EFL learners believed that their books in Iran have not got sufficient cultural knowledge to cover all the details *(M=2.71, SD=1.25).* Interestingly enough, the result of item 12 *(M=5.08, SD=0.69)* revealed that working on culture can highly motivate Iranian EFL university students so as to learn a foreign language. Accordingly, there are a lot of activities and ways to teach the target culture. In fact, culture can be applied in the process of teaching and learning. The results can be categorized under these headings. Regarding *persons* the items that sought whether learners would prefer to work on different groups within the target community found out that the Iranian EFL university students are actually eager to get to know how people live in their daily lives. With regard to *products*, we can note that learners consider them important as well because they stated that they would like to learn the literature pertaining to English. Concerning practice, the findings indicate that practices also occupy an important place in the views of learners. Last but not least, *communities* were also favored by Iranian EFL university students.

5. Conclusion and Suggestions

The main focus of the current study was to find out to what extent Iranian EFL learners consider learning of the target culture in their effectiveness of language learning. Accordingly, Iranian university English learners' previous experiences, their beliefs and attitudes were investigated. Besides, certain issues about the learning of culture and their preferences about what cultural topics they would like to work on were investigated. The results of the study revealed a number of important points on how Iranian EFL learners consider learning the target culture. Pedagogically, the EFL learners should be fully aware of the existence and the importance of culture. In short, this research was significant in that it found out a number of important points that can be reconsidered in curriculum design for the future language teaching practices. In fact, the relationship between motivation and learning culture has upmost importance. Interestingly enough, the present study touched upon an overall picture of teaching and learning culture, specifically in non-native context.

Additionally, instructional providers must become knowledgeable enough and fully aware of the cultural differences existing among the EFL learners they teach. Academically speaking, EFL learners should become more aware of the cultural points and possible gaps between native and target culture. More importantly, teachers must pay more attention to their own method of teaching and instructional designs, including the selection of instructional activities, their presentation styles (both verbal and non-verbal communications), and their expectations of students. Ignorance of these biases could prevent them from seeing opportunities for more effective avenues of interaction with learners.

To sum, becoming aware of target cultural dynamics is a difficult task because culture is not conscious to us. Since we are born, we have learned to see and do things at an unconscious level. Our experiences, our values and our cultural backgrounds lead us to see and do things in a certain way. Sometimes we have to step outside of our cultural boundaries in order to realize the impact that our culture has on our behavior. L2 learners presumably need to understand pragmatic aspects of the target culture better in order not only to speak grammatically but also to interpret appropriately what they hear and to interact effectively with members of the target culture. On the other hand, L2 teachers may need to incorporate many cross-cultural pragmatic analyses in their teaching so as to address learners' possible communicative problems. That is to say, EFL teachers should have conscious attention to the relevant sociocultural factors in a given context, L2 teachers can better help learners avoid lapsing unconsciously into the norms of their native language and thus causing unintended offense in second language learning.

It is obvious that development of grammatical competence is inadequate for communication in second language. On the other hand, promoting sociolinguistic competence in foreign language learners becomes more evident when the EFL students tend to start to use English for real communication. In the past, students used to learn English as part of curriculum and mainly for passing the tests to be able to graduate or pass a level of study. Nevertheless, nowadays most of the students need to learn another language for using it actively in real contexts. This changing need should be carefully analyzed and integrated into the curriculum and classroom practices through the teachers who serve as the agent of

change and development. Therefore, cultural norms of language use should be fully integrated in the existing curricula of EFL learners.

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MJLTM

UTILIZING REFLECTIVE JOURNAL TO RAISE CRITICAL LANGUAGE AWARENESS: A CRITICAL LITERACY PRACTICE IN A READING CLASSROOM

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ABSTRACT
THIS STUDY EMBARKS UPON PROBING THE EFFECT OF CRITICAL ORIENTED READING STRATEGIES ON EFL LEARNERS THROUGH REFLECTING JOURNAL WRITINGS. TO UNDERTAKE THE STUDY, 109 HOMOGENIZED MALE AND FEMALE STUDENTS OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE LITERATURE WERE SELECTED OUT OF A SUBJECT POOL OF 160 STUDENTS DUE TO ADMINISTERING AN OXFORD PLACEMENT TEST (OPT) AMONG THEM. THEN, THEY WERE RANDOMLY CLASSIFIED INTO A CRITICAL (EXPERIMENTAL) AND NON-CRITICAL (CONTROL) GROUP. BOTH GROUPS WERE EXPOSED TO THE SAME NOVEL, NAMELY JANE EYRE. DURING THE INTERVENTION PROGRAM, PARTICIPANTS IN THE CRITICAL GROUP WERE ENCOURAGED TO USE CRITICAL READING STRATEGIES (CRS) WHILE THE NON-CRITICAL GROUP RECEIVED THE CONVENTIONAL TREATMENT IN READING SKILL. MOREOVER, STUDENTS IN CRITICAL GROUP WERE INVITED TO WRITE REFLECTIVE JOURNALS TO EVALUATE THE EFFECTIVENESS OF CRS IN TERMS OF THEIR INTERACTIONS, PERSONAL, AND SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT. USING THEMATIC ANALYSIS, A NUMBER OF THEMES EMERGED THAT ILLUSTRATED THE CONTRIBUTION OF THE CRS TO LEARNERS' LITERAL, PERSONAL, SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT AND SELF-AWARENESS. THE RESULTS GIVE EMPIRICAL SUPPORT FOR THE POSITIVE EFFECT OF CRITICAL ORIENTED READING STRATEGIES ON ENABLING LEARNERS TO RECOGNIZE, MAKE CLEAR, COMPARE AND SOLVE AMBIGUITIES IN THE TEXTS.

KEYWORDS: CRITICAL LITERACY, CRITICAL READING STRATEGIES, READING COMPREHENSION, REFLECTIVE JOURNAL WRITING

1. Introduction

Most of EFL students who do not have adequate exposure and experience of English language find it difficult to understand English literary works. This problem happens partially due to the lack of qualified teachers or improper methodology for teaching. Considering language teaching, it seems that reading is of two kinds. According to Burns, Roe, and Ross (1999), the first one is literal comprehension which is the immediate meaning of the words and is directly expressed in the text. The second one is a higher level of reading comprehension which is beyond the literal understanding of a context. It includes higher-order perception process called as critical reading which is the building block of literary competence (LC). The problem was in the fact that LC is almost ignored and underestimated by EFL instructors. In fact, many

literature reading classes mostly focus on the first type that is on elements such as correctness, lexical diversity, structural details, literal meaning and other linguistic matters to the neglect of students' creativeness (Khabiri & Pakzad, 2012). What happens as a result is a chaos in which students remain uncritical readers with poor LC who are totally disappointed whenever confronted with the task of comprehending literary works. Freire (1972) believes that this kind of reading is problematic and encourages insensitivity in students and closes their minds to the wider objectives of learning literature, i.e. critical reading to find subtle and underlying ideas conveyed through literary texts.

Actually many students can easily read and look through the texts but to be able to communicate with the content and comprehend it, remains as the main challenge. He/She may not know how to appreciate a literary work such as a piece of poem or a novel. His/Her knowledge of language might help him/her to understand the literal meaning of words, phrases and sentences but he/she may not know the implicit concepts, breadth and depth of meaning or the other ideas the novel tries to express. Isenberg (1990) believes that EFL/ESL students need to make a good progress in their reading strategies which is one of the primary premises of literature courses. In fact, critical reading can pave the grounds for in depth understanding of texts as learners try to understand and analyze the ideas in the context and suggest new methods of confronting the text. Actually, reading words, phrases, or sentences in any text can encourage a reader to think (Mangal, 2005). For this reason Halpern (1996) insists on comprehension in the realm of critical thinking and states that critical thinking and critical reading stand on the same pedestal. Thus, critical reading can promote reading skill as well as independent LC because it calls for a profound operation of delivering conveyed concepts of the text which seem to be vital if a literary comprehension should be acquired (Kodama, 2012).

Furthermore, reading comprehension of literary works means the realization of all dimensions of the text that are needed to be understood correctly with no erroneous interpretation which are not beyond the intention of an author (Kavcar, Oguzkan, & Sever, as cited in Aksan & Kisac, 2009). The difficulty is that, a prosperous reading comprehension along with a high LC is hardly achieved because it needs a dynamic role of a reader, and a self-organizing manner while reading a text (Harris & Sipay, 1990). In fact, a critical reader needs to bridge the gap between the text and his personal knowledge by emphasis on the procedure of discovering the main concept from words and involving with text instead of just reading the words. Amer (2012) believes that this kind of reading can play a significant role in eradicating the so-called barriers which prevent students from moving beyond and over the surface meaning of literary words to reach to a superior comprehension of the literary works. Akin, Koray and Tavukcu (2015, p.2445) assert that "an individual's ability to keep what he has read in his mind for a long time can only be possible with critical reading which requires a process of active communication where comments and evaluation on the text are conducted". They argue that in critical reading, the context being read, forms the foundation for other readings and even if the reading process finishes, the meaning transmission of the text will be still in progress.

Although nowadays the updated teaching programs in many countries encourage critical approaches that put the learners in focus point and guide them toward communication, questioning and problem solving (Kirbaslar & Ozsoy-Gunes, 2015), but these approaches are not common in Iran. Actually, what is happening in Iranian EFL literature courses is merely the act of reading not comprehending, which mostly deals with the language form rather than content (Khabiri & Pakzad, 2012). Nasrollahi, Krishnasamy and Noor (2015) confirm that many Iranian EFL learners are poor in reading skills and consider themselves passive toward their own linguistic capabilities. Similarly, Ebrahimi and Rahimi (2013) come to the conclusion that EFL learners take up a submissive condition when dealing with texts. In order to fill this gap, implementing critical reading strategies may help a reader to discover ways so as to deeply understand the hidden values of a text. It also persuades learners to follow reading strategies in order to get the most out of literary texts accompanying by a high level of LC (Noaman, 2013). Accordingly this research is an endeavor to put into pedagogical practice the insights gained from applying critical reading strategies (CRS) in an EFL reading classroom and probe learners' conception about advantages and disadvantages of such a critical reading course based on the reflective writings written by them. Put it differently, the purpose is to explore what themes emerge in students writing and

the ways in which the course build up their personal development. To comply the purpose of the research the following question was formulated:
RQ - What is EFL learners' attitude toward critical reading of literary texts?

1. **2. Methods of Research**

2.1 Participants

One hundred and nine participants, 41 male and 68 female B.A students of English language and Literature of Azad University of Tehran North Branch, took part in this study. They were native speakers of Persian language who had one to five years of English learning before entering the university. They were aged between 22 and 30, but the average age was 25.

2.2 Instruments

To fulfill the purpose of the present research the following tools were used: (a) An Oxford Placement Test (OPT) and (b) A reflective journal writing.

2.2.1 OPT

To check the students' proficiency level an OPT was administered among them. The OPT was a reliable and efficient means of grading and placing students into classes and measures practically the following aspects of students' English proficiency: (a) grammar; (b) vocabulary; and (c) sentence recognition. The test was comprised of 60 multiple-choice items for measuring the knowledge of students' grammar, vocabulary and sentence recognition. Those who scored one standard deviation above or below the mean were considered as the subject of the study.

2.2.2 Reflective Journal Writing

The second instrument in which the students were involved at the end of the course was writing reflective journals. In the sense that every student was persuaded and encouraged to assess their own performance and also the effectiveness of such a critical reading course in terms of their interactions, personal and social development and wrote a reflection on it. The underlying reason was to explore the participants' attitudes and perceptions about the outcome of such a critical reading course which includes their understanding of advantages and disadvantages of the course and the ways in which the critical reading strategies affect their personal and educational attitudes.

2.3 Procedure

In order to discover learners' conception about the critical reading course, students were exposed to the novel of Jane Eyre. To tap their proficiency level an OPT was administered among the subject pool. Those students who scored one standard deviation above or one standard deviation below the mean were considered as the subject of the present research. Next, they were randomly separated into two sections: critical and non-critical group. Both groups were given the same kind of novel as the literary text. The novel for both groups was the same- in terms of materials selection.

All students in critical group received their treatment in the form of different kinds of CRS listed as: previewing, questioning, contextualizing, summarizing, scheming, topic assessment, and comparative study of similar references (Khabiri & Pakzad, 2012). The corresponding CRS were incorporated in readings of the critical group. The strategies were accompanied by a detailed description about each strategy and how to implement them in the text so as to survey the reading texts critically. However, the students in non-critical group were exposed to the conventional instruction of reading comprehension. More specifically, it entails reading a text while finding the new vocabularies, the corresponding meanings as well as the relevant synonyms and antonyms. Traditionally, there were required to write the new words, and memorize them.

Next part of the research was allocated to a question asking learners in critical group to write a reflective journal at the end of the instruction. They were asked to evaluate their own performance and the effectiveness of such a critical literacy practice in terms of their interactions, their personal and social development and then to write a reflection on it. It was aimed to uncover learners' critical language awareness and the way in which the critical-oriented practices inform their social and personal development.

To explore students' attitude of the critical reading course a thematic analysis of their reflective journal writing was applied. After color and conceptual coding of their writings, the topics which were mentioned by the learners were classified under various categories. As the result a number of themes were emerged that may illustrate the contribution of the critical reading approach to learners' personal development and self-awareness.

3. Results

To fulfill the purpose of the research, an OPT was administered among 160 students from Azad university Tehran-North branch. The table 1 displays the descriptive statistics of the OPT.

Table 1. The Descriptive Statistics of the OPT

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Opt	160	17.00	56.00	35.1500	8.82335
Valid N (list wise)	160				

In order to select the sample, all given scores were analyzed and as table 2 illustrates, those who scored one standard deviation above or one standard deviation below the mean were considered as the subject of the research.

Table 2. The Descriptive Statistics of Sample Selection

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Opt	109	27.00	44.00	34.7064	4.62342
Age	109	22.00	30.00	23.5963	1.69487
Valid N (list wise)	109				

Later on, as table 3 represents, among 109 students, 54 of them were assigned to the critical group including 20 male and 34 female and 55 students were assigned to the non-critical group including 21 male and 34 female.

Table 3. The Descriptive Statistics of Group and Gender Classification

		gender		Total
		male	female	
Group	critical	20	34	54
	non-critical	21	34	55
Total		41	68	109

Then, the students were asked to read the Jane Eyre novel written by Charlotte Bronte. The process of reading was monitored periodically in the sense that, during 5 sessions each of which comprise 22 students came and summarized assigned chapters for other learners to make sure that they were really involved in the process of reading. Next, both critical and non-critical groups received the corresponding treatment for 6 sessions which lasted for 3 weeks.

Fifty four journal entries of students' reflective writing were collected after the intervention program throughout the course. They were then subjected to qualitative thematic analysis in order to specify any recurring theme in common among students and also to evaluate their progress during the course. After reading the reflective writing of all students, various points mentioned by them were categorized under different kind of themes and subsequently classified into two categories of pros and cons. In the mentioned thematic analysis applied to the students' reflective writing, seven recurring themes were found among which, five were related to the advantages of using CRS and two were referred to the disadvantages of such a course from the perspective of the learners. Before mentioning the themes, a word of caution is required. One shouldn't take it for granted that a group of students' understanding necessarily reflect the entire reality specifically when all learners cannot share the same perception of the

procedures of the course. So, the themes mentioned below are not all students understanding but the majority of them (Izadinia & Abednia, 2010).

3.1 Positive Recurring Themes

1. Freedom of expression; 2. Stress-free environment; 3. Fostering self-esteem; 4. Critical thinkers; 5. Fluent speakers

3.1.1 Freedom of expression

The most frequent theme to which the majority of students referred was freedom of expression. They believed that critical reading course made them feel free in order to express their ideas while the teacher giving them enough space for voicing their opinions.

Offering learners adequate space for stating their ideas while teaching them how to put value on others opinions can be a helpful tool in order to propagate the culture of voicing opinions in learners rather than the culture of silence in them (Freire, 1972) that make students not to express their ideas both in classrooms and also in more social contexts.

The following quotations from the students' reflective writing are illustrative regarding the mentioned point:

- *"During the critical course no one reckons that my idea is something stupid even if it is so primary or even childish. The teacher always mentions the point that any ideas with which I came up is a new idea which is worth listening to."*
- *"We can mention what we really think about the subject at that very moment without fearing that it might be irrelevant to the topic about which the teacher is talking."*
- *"There is not one superior idea during the class and everyone can share their opinions with others according to the instructor's respect to the learners' words."*

3.1.2 Stress-free environment

Due to the critical nature of the course, students feel a complete liberty whenever initiate to have some discussion regarding the subject. The teacher is not the only knowledgeable person talking to the students from a superior position but "talk with them in a dialogical manner" (Izadinia & Abednia, 2010, p.58). This way the students can have enough opportunity to show themselves and to voice their opinions in a pure democratic atmosphere and eventually to reduce the stress and fear which prevent them from being bold enough to talk during the class. The bilateral communication of teachers and students can call for students' personal and also social development which are counted as critical reading course intensions (Ghahremani-Ghajar & Mirhosseini, 2005).

The following quotations clearly shed light on the mentioned issue:

- *"I felt like my instructor as one of my close classmates throughout the course and it really reduced my fears and stress when I decided to talk about something."*
- *"I was almost always afraid to initiate talking in a free class discussion because I thought that my speaking is terrible and also my ideas are not worth listening to but in this course my teacher gave me a peaceful opportunity to talk by having a dialogue to me and listening carefully to my words."*
- *"I was an introverted person and I think this course helped me to find my voice even outside of the class that is to dear sharing my ideas at my workplace whenever there is a chance to talk about different issues with my colleagues."*

3.1.3 Fostering self-esteem

Due to the fact that a critical reading course can help learners to play as a part of the class leadership, they are encouraged and persuaded to be a part of any kind of class discussion by the help of a "debating and consulting interaction" which plays a significant role in building their self confidence (Finch, 2012, p. 77). So, they gradually come up with the idea that they are capable of conducting a class discussion while their ideas are really worth listening with respect and attention on the part of other students and also the teacher.

Some of instances in students' writing were the evidence of students gradually gaining more self esteem:

- *"My instructor helped me very much to improve my self confidence by letting me share my thoughts during the class and also by encouraging me to speak even with a very poor grammar."*

- *"To have chances to talk about your opinions in public while all students including my teacher are listening to me give me such a self confidence no one can take it away from me."*

3.1.4 Critical Thinkers

Developing critical approaches ability is a main purpose in any critical-oriented course that is making students to think more skeptically towards those issues which are among "commonly accepted truisms" (Burbules & Berk, 1999, p. 45). Students can "remake their identities" and also "recognize themselves" better, while they are engaging in the process of "thought-provoking" and "critical" questions during a critical reading course. Different kind of CRS can help students raise their "critical consciousness" (Izadinia & Abednia, 2010, p. 62).

Following examples illustrate what discussed earlier:

- *"My teacher always encouraged me to pose various kinds of questions even trivial ones while reading a piece of work which made me to operate my thinking deeply in order to extract some issues out of the words."*
- *"It made me not to simply accept things as they really are and try to discover hidden points that always there are some, and this way I've became an exact person who is always looking for hidden dimension of things and events."*
- *"I simply accepted and believed whatever was told to me by others before, but recently I wonder more and more about what people ask or tell me about by the help of learning critical manner."*

3.1.5 Fluent Speakers

While improvement of students' reading skill and LC were the main aims of teaching CRS, developing students' speaking skill was also achieved along with the first item due to the class discussion and oral representation of the novel in which students were involved during the course. CRS used in this course pushed the students to move beyond the simple and mere reading of literary texts in order to discover underlying layers of the text and also to expand a more profound perception through reading. It helped them moving over the superficial meaning of the words while using CRS to voice and share their ideas with each other throughout the class.

Here are some examples of students' reflective writing considering the issue:

- *"This critical course was like a dual functional course for me because it strengthened my speaking as well as my reading skill. Those summaries which we were supposed to present during the class were really an aid for my fluency."*
- *"One of the results of this class was increasing my lexical knowledge and vocabulary which I can use in my speaking because all the students one by one told their stories in their own vocabulary and their own style."*
- *"This course made me a good speaker due to several summaries I had to prepare frequently during the class."*
- *"In the critical course I've learned that whenever we get involved in critical reading then we will get more ideas for speaking by going beyond simple reading of the text and it finally leads us to be good speakers."*

3.2 Negative Recurring Themes

1. Excessive criticism; 2. Hinder students

3.2.1 Excessive criticism

Sometimes students tend to get caught up in the sequential nature of such a critical-oriented course and therefore it results in excluding other kinds of thinking such as innovative thinking or intuitive type of thinking which require their innate and instinctive perception of different concepts. Pessimism and also skepticism, as the result of excessive criticism would be empowered (Dienstag, 2006), and this in turn would result in students who are changed into radical critics who are always trying to oppose other ideas rather than making profound negotiation without any pre judgment regarding the issue.

The following examples of student's reflective writing stand for the mentioned issue:

- *"Is there really an urgent need to always oppose what I read or think and all the time just see the negative side of issues while I can read a work and simply enjoy my time."*

- *"I think most of the time my perception of whatever happens in my life is directly based on my innate perception and It makes me to trust my inner call, so there is no need to be skeptical towards and argue about it with others."*
- *"While there is a clear self evident truth about something, is there still any need to force myself to extract some illusion out of it?"*

3.2.2 Hinder students

Shy pupils find such a critical course very frightening due to the fact that they are put under pressure in order to voice their ideas during the class while everyone are looking at them and waiting for them to share their ideas therefore they don't feel safe and relaxed enough to take part in class discussion. Because this kind of shyness can be originated from various sources such as gene, psychology, culture and conditions of their family and also society so it would be normal always to have such students in any courses (Juhana, 2012).

- *"I often prefer to keep silent and just listen to other students' words. In this course whenever it was my turn to speak and share my ideas I felt very anxious and nervous which put me under so much pressure that I couldn't walk away from."*
- *"Every student had to take part over and over during the critical course and it was really irritating for me because all the students were just looking at me expecting me to share my words but I really couldn't talk even one word. Because I had a fear of being laughed by others. I didn't have a good feeling during the class."*
- *"Fear of mistakes is always with me. This course forced me to talk several times and present the chapters orally in front of other students which didn't give me a good feeling. I hate such a class."*

4. Discussion

This research was an effort to probe the impact of CRS on learners' literal, personal development and self-awareness. The analysis showed the contribution of the critical reading approach to learners' personal and social development, self-awareness and affirmed the learners' positive view of a critical reading course. 54 journal entries of students were gathered after the treatment and were subjected to a qualitative thematic analysis in order to specify any recurring theme and to evaluate their progress during the course. After color-coding and conceptual-coding of the journals, the items were subsumed under different themes, and subsequently classified into two categories of advantage and disadvantage themes respectively. Totally, seven recurring themes were found among which five were related to the advantages of using CRS and two were referred to the disadvantages of such a course from the point of view of the students.

The most frequent positive themes to which the majority of students referred to were respectively: 1. Freedom of expression, 2. Stressless atmosphere, 3. Developed self esteem, 4. Critical thinkers and 5. Fluent speakers. Likewise, the most frequent negative themes which were mentioned by the students were respectively: 1. Excessive criticism and 2. Hinder students

Overcoming the affirmative effects on negative cases implies the effect of CRS on private and social improvement of students, as observed in their reflective writings.

It is noteworthy that the findings of this research were supported by many studies, some of which are outlined below. For instance the result of this study is harmonized with Johnson (2002) believes that critical approaches provide a person with the possibility to reach the most comprehensive understanding of literary resources. Yudkin (2006, p. 101) emphasizing on the importance of critical reading, states that "when we read critically, we are always alert, always on the look out for hidden clues, never reliant on the infallibility of the author" which eventually leads students toward activating their LC. Similarly the findings support Kennedy, Fisher and Ennis (1991) who found out that learners with any level of intelligence and language background can make a benefit from critical reading skills and so as from LC as the quick result of it. The finding also is in line with Lewis and Smith (1993) who argue that critical reading strategies can include everybody to learn and apply them to different genres of reading specifically literary works to explore what the underlying layers and facts building up the whole story. Likewise, Shokrpour, Sadeghi and Seddigh (2013) discuss that utilizing critical reading strategies would change the reading comprehension courses while practiced by Iranian EFL students. Additionally, the research finding is in line with Icmez (2009) exploring different methods in which CRS could be adjusted

to conventional EFL reading courses in order to raise learners' awareness to use literary comprehension techniques. Koupaee Dar, Rahimi, and Shams (2010) investigate the developmental level of critical reading skills of Iranian EFL learners, following the critical reading strategies applied to literature. Their findings reveal that nearly 90% of learners' critical language abilities were increased and their motivation also was sarcastically enhanced after being acquainted with critical reading techniques. According to Bosely (2008) some of university instructors believe that the graduates can read critically, while many researches suggest that CRS should be taught explicitly and also reinforced by the help of practice.

5. Conclusion

Although the conventional method of reading instructions in schools and universities are still focusing on the act of reading, not comprehending, which mostly deals with the language form rather than content (Khabiri & Pakzad, 2012), but many studies, including this research, make an effort to prove and introduce some new methods toward expanding reading horizons and providing maximum understanding of literary resources. Recent studies lead to a growing focus on critical reading ability that apparently empower students to recognize, make clear, compare and solve ambiguities in texts. (Waters, 2000). Critical reading can be considered as a tool in the process of analyzing literary works in order to achieve the abstract ideas conveyed throughout the text which leads to a progress in learners Neranjani (2011). Integrating reading courses with influential CRS (Khabiri & Pakzad, 2012) can play out as effective approaches that create methods in which the learners will have a deeper interaction with the text and will help the learners' procedure of engaging with the context to understand the main themes and sub-themes through the text (Khabiri & Pakzad, 2012).

On the other hand, involving students in selecting their favorite texts can make them encouraged toward reading. A motivated instructor allows learners to express their views about what that should be read and suggest them related topics for more practice. (Alden, Lindquist & Lubkeman, 2003). To do so, it is best to motivate stydents to voice their ideas by focusing on the act of comprehending the context not reading the language. This method really can help learners manipulate their own reading while incorporating CRS. It can be a critical literacy practice which paves the ground for CLA.

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THE IMPACT OF EFL TEACHERS' EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE ON THEIR TEACHING PREFERENCES

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ABSTRACT
LANGUAGE TEACHERS' CHOICE OF TEACHING TECHNIQUES AND ACTIVITIES CAN PLAY A PIVOTAL ROLE IN LEARNERS' MOTIVATION AND THEIR LANGUAGE LEARNING SUCCESS. THE FIELD, HOWEVER, SUFFERS FROM DEARTH OF RESEARCH ON THE FACTORS THAT POTENTIALLY INFLUENCE TEACHERS' TEACHING STYLE. THIS STUDY IS THEREFORE INTENDED TO INVESTIGATE THE EFFECT OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE ON EFL TEACHERS' TEACHING STYLE. IN SO DOING, TWO QUESTIONNAIRES WERE ADMINISTERED TO 53 MALE AND FEMALE TEACHERS WORKING IN PRIVATE LANGUAGE INSTITUTES. THE RESULTS WHICH ARE OBTAINED THROUGH PEARSON CORRELATION COEFFICIENT CONFIRMED THAT THERE IS NOT A SIGNIFICANT RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN IRANIAN EFL TEACHERS' EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND THEIR TEACHING STYLE.

KEY WORDS: EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE – TEACHING STYLE- EFL

Preliminaries

Generally, emotions play a significant role in individual's lives because they are feelings which enliven life, allowing us to experience the joys and grief of our lives (Aghayar & Sharifi, 2008). Human beings have two minds, a thinking mind and a feeling one. These two minds, put together, form an individual's mental life. When the emotions are aroused, the balance between these two minds is disturbed, causing the Emotional Intelligence (mind) to overcome the thinking mind. Therefore, the focus has shifted towards the role of Emotional Intelligence in everyday life (Extremera & Fernandez, 2005).

From the resource based view, firm competencies entail not only knowledge, skills, beliefs, and routines, but also emotions. The term emotion demonstrates both expressive communications and to inner states related to feelings, as love, hate, courage, fear, joy, sadness, pleasure and disgust. Emotions are also considered as signs of intelligence, as well as an ability to grasp and reason correctly with concepts or as personal intelligence because of one's access to one's own feeling life. Accordingly there is a common tendency to combine emotion with intelligence (Cekmecelioglu et al., 2012).

Many theorists have tried to explain the concept of emotional intelligence. Goleman, Boyatzis and Mckee (2006) hold that the employees of organizations, in their attempt to raise productiveness and performance, should have, in addition to technical and professional abilities, other characteristics which put together, are called emotional intelligence, since it is these features that prompt an individual, when faced with other individuals and other situations to be conscious, serene, respectful, considerate, supportive, attentive, responsive, elucidatory and receptive. He is believed that in order to overcome the incoming challenges, one should enhance the components of Emotional Intelligence including self awareness, self management, social awareness and relation control.

Academic articles exploring the concept of Emotional Intelligence began to appear in the early 1990s. Little was known about the concept in the general public or academia until it was popularized in 1995 by Daniel Goleman's book, *Emotional Intelligence: Why it can matter more the IQ*. The book captured the attention of the general public, media, and researchers by claiming that Emotional Intelligence can be "as powerful, and at times more powerful, than IQ" in predicting how successful one is in life (Goleman, 1995).

Emotional Intelligence is basically identified as the ability to perceive emotion, integrate emotion to facilitate. Mayer and Salvoey (1995) defined Emotional Intelligence as ' the ability to perceive emotion, integrate emotion to facilitate thought, understand emotions and to regulate emotions to promote personal growth'. At a theoretical level EI reflects the extent to which a person attends to, processes, and acts upon information of an emotional nature intrapersonally and inter-personally (Kafetsios, Zampetakis, 2008).

Mayer and Salovey (1990) defined Emotional Intelligence as "the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions". Goleman defines Emotional Intelligence as abilities "which include self-control, zeal and persistence, and the ability to motivate oneself" (1995).

Teacher's teaching style

According to Biggs (2001) Fan and Ye (2007), the term Teaching Styles was introduced around the 1970s when the role of styles in teaching and learning were increasingly drawing the attention of educators due to their significance in influencing the quality of teaching and learning process. Teaching Style is a very influential factor in students' learning experiences (Knowles, 1980), and is a critical component in determining the extent of students' learning because teachers provide the "vital human connection between the content and the environment and the learners" (Heimlich & Norland, 1994, p. 109) and because it stems from 8 Teachers' Teaching Styles, Sense of Efficacy and Reflectivity… an educational philosophy that lends direction and purpose to a teacher's teaching (Galbraith, 1999). This claim about the effectiveness of Teaching Style is supported by a comprehensive body of research, especially in mainstream education, which links it also to student achievement outcomes. The existence of this rich body of research about Teaching Style is based on the premise that teachers do not all teach alike and that classroom Teaching Styles are not all equally effective (Baily, 1984).

In what follows, the instruments used in the present paper (e.g. Intellectual Excitement (IE) – Interpersonal Rapport (IR)) and the justification for their application will be explained briefly. The instrument is a rigorously developed and frequently referenced two-dimensional model for characterizing the range of Teaching Styles of different teachers (Larson, 2007). This instrument was developed by Lowman (1995) through an ethnographic analysis of over five hundred nominations for teaching awards. The model is presented as a two-dimensional matrix which is used to provide a global perspective on teaching that is framed within the concepts of Intellectual Excitement (IE) and Interpersonal Rapport (IR). Intellectual Excitement focuses on the content to be learned – the clarity of what is being presented and how it is being presented. Interpersonal Rapport focuses on the learner – classroom psychology and awareness of the interpersonal phenomena. The measure consists of 22 items, eleven of which measure teacher's intellectual excitement and the remaining items measure teacher's interpersonal rapport. The instrument employs a 5-point Likert format ranging from 1 = never to 5 = always; teachers will be placed on the various points of the two continua of Intellectual Excitement and Interpersonal Rapport based on their scores in each of the dimensions.

The reason why this measure is used in the present paper is that the scores obtained from this instrument can be easily converted into interval data, thus giving a numerical value for each of the components of intellectual excitement and interpersonal rapport, and in this way lending itself easily to regression analysis. Also, the present measure is reported to be a rigorous, valid, reliable and frequently-referenced measure of Teaching Style (Larson, 2007; Razak, 2007, cited in **A**kbari, Kiany, ImaniNaeeni&KarimiAllvar, 2008).

Research Question

Does Iranian EFL teachers' emotional intelligence significantly affect their teaching style?

Methodology

Participants

The researcher intended to seek the cooperation of teachers working in English language institutes located in Shiraz. To do so, 52 male and female teachers were conveniently sampled to fill out the questionnaires. The participants were all within the 23-42 age group and they were either B.A. or M.A. holders in one of the following majors: TEFL, English Literature or Linguistics. Further, their teaching experience ranged between 5 to 8 years.

Instruments

Lowman's two-dimensional teaching style scale

Being a dependable measure developed by Lowman (1995), this scale was used to assess teachers' teaching style by investigating their perceptions and preferences with respect to concepts of Intellectual Excitement (IE) and Interpersonal Rapport (IR). The instrument had been scored based on a 5-point Likert scale beginning with 1 representing that 0% to 10% of the time the item applied to the respondents and ending with 5 showing that 95% to 100% of the time the item was true about them. It included 22 items eleven of which measured teachers' IE and the rest measured teachers' IR.

Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire

For measuring the participants' EQ, Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire – Short Form (TEIQue-SF) test was used. This is a 30-item questionnaire designed to measure *global* trait Emotional Intelligence (trait EI). It is based on the long form of the TEIQue designed and validated by Petrides & Furnham (2003). Items were responded to on a 5-point Likert scale. The TEIQue has been constructed with the aim of providing comprehensive coverage of the trait EI domain.

Data Collection and Data Analysis Procedures

The participants were requested to answer the two questionnaires simultaneously in 30 minutes. Both person to person and group administration were utilized to collect the required data. Cronbach alpha and Pearson correlation coefficient were employed to decide on the internal consistency and significance of the relationship between the variables of the study respectively.

Results

Reliability estimates

Cronach's Alpha was utilized to estimate the reliability of the two scales. Table 1 clearly shows that all the Cronbach values are above 0.6 (note that a reliability score of 0.6 or above is considered acceptable). This entails that the questionnaires drawn on in this study were all reliable and accordingly suitable to be used as instruments in this study.

Table 1. Reliability estimates

instruments	Cronbach's Alpha	No of Items	No. of Participants
Emotional intelligence	0.731	30	53
Teaching Style	0.834	22	53
Intellectual Excitement	0.727	11	53
Interpersonal Rapport	0.831	11	53

Table 2 reveals the results of correlation statistical procedure which was run to analyze the relationship between teachers' EQ and their teaching style. According to this table, there is not a significant relationship between teachers' EQ and their teaching style (sig 2-tailed=0.59). As shown in figure 1, no statistically significant correlation is seen in the scatter plot.

Table 2. Correlation between total EQ and total teaching style

		TOTAL EQ	score
TOTAL EQ	Pearson Correlation	1	.221
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.594
	N	53	53
score	Pearson Correlation	.221	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.594	
	N	53	53

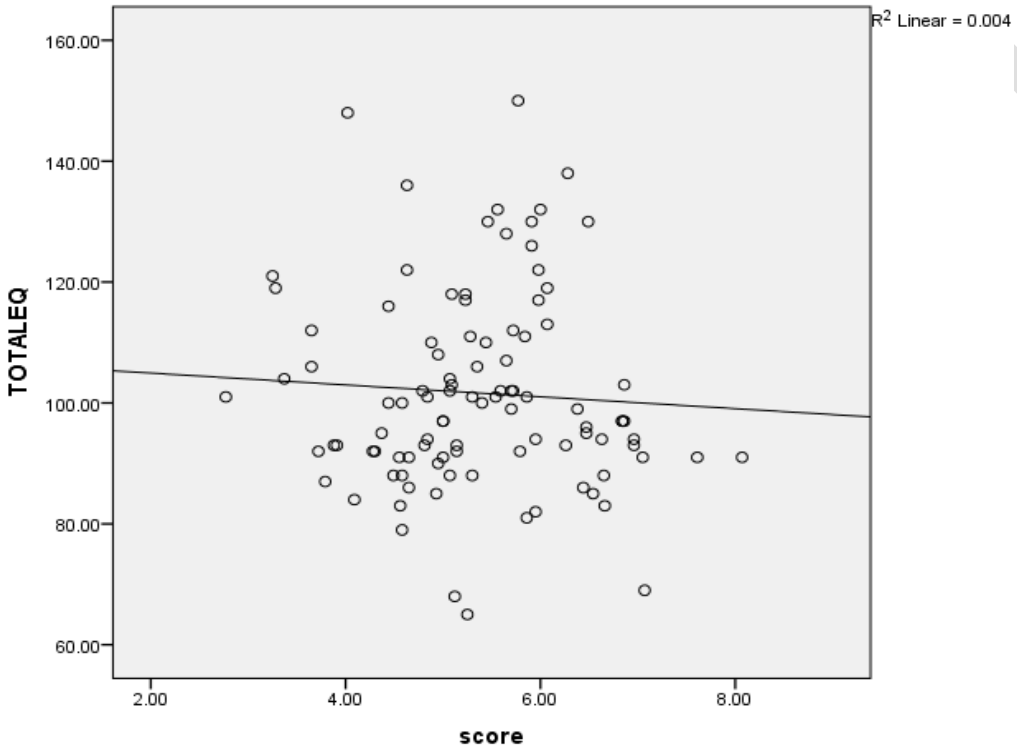

Figure 1. Scatter plot

Tables 3 and 4 show the results of Pearson correlation between emotional intelligence and the two subscales of teaching style.

Table 3. Correlation between Teachers' emotional intelligence and Intellectual Excitement

Variables	Pearson Correlation	Sig. (2-tailed)	N
emotional intelligence and Intellectual Excitement	0.244	0.396	53

Table 4. Correlation between Teachers' emotional intelligence and interpersonal rapport

Variables	Pearson Correlation	Sig. (2-tailed)	N
emotional intelligence and interpersonal rapport	0.108	0.621	53

As it is evident from the findings neither intellectual excitement nor interpersonal rapport has significant relationships with teachers' emotional intelligence.

Conclusion

The results of the correlation statistical procedure are presented in table 2 as a way to analyze the relationship between teachers' Emotional Intelligence and their teaching style. These results reveal that there is no significant relationship between the variables of the study. This finding keeps the controversy over the impact of genetic factors such as emotional intelligence on teachers' choices of techniques and procedures in the class. One explanation for this finding could be the limited sample used in this study to collect data. Another explanation could be the way Emotional Intelligence is being investigated by the researchers. This gives an insight for further research projects and research designs. The final verdict, however, is that teachers' teaching style is more affected by environmental factors rather than their personal predispositions.

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MJLTM

ON THE IMPACT OF IMPULSIVITY VS. REFLECTIVITY COGNITIVE STYLES ON IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS' QUALITY OF TRANSLATION

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ABSTRACT
THIS RESEARCH WAS AN ATTEMPT TO CAREFULLY INVESTIGATE THE SUBJECT OF TEST BIAS. DIFFERENT SOURCES OF BIAS HAVE BEEN MENTIONED BY DIFFERENT SCHOLARS. THE MOST COMPREHENSIVE ACCOUNT OF THESE SOURCES HAS BEEN GIVEN BY BACHMAN (1990). HE CONSIDERS CULTURAL BACKGROUND, BACKGROUND KNOWLEDGE, COGNITIVE CHARACTERISTICS, GENDER, AND AGE AS DIFFERENT SOURCES OF BIAS. IN THIS STUDY, THE RESEARCHER WENT THROUGH THE IMPULSIVITY-REFLECTIVITY COGNITIVE STYLES, AND ATTEMPTED TO FIND OUT THE IMPACT OF THIS SOURCE OF BIAS ON THE IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS' TRANSLATION ABILITY. THE PARTICIPANTS OF THE STUDY CONSISTED OF 126 STUDENTS STUDYING EFL AT ISLAMIC AZAD UNIVERSITY, RASHT BRANCH. FROM THESE PARTICIPANTS, 91 UPPER-INTERMEDIATE EFL LEARNERS WERE SELECTED BASED ON THEIR PERFORMANCE ON QPT. IN THIS STUDY THE DATA WAS COLLECTED BY THE USE OF QPT AND EYSENCK'S PERSONALITY QUESTIONNAIRE. BASED ON THE RESULT OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE PARTICIPANTS WERE DIVIDED INTO TWO GROUPS OF IMPULSIVE AND REFLECTIVE, THEN, THE TRANSLATION TESTS WERE ADMINISTERED TO THE STUDENTS. FARAHZADS' RUBRIC WAS USED FOR EVALUATION OF STUDENTS' TRANSLATION. THE STATISTICS AND RESULTS SHOWED THE REJECTION OF THE NULL HYPOTHESIS OF THE PRESENT STUDY. THE REJECTION OF THE NULL HYPOTHESIS INDICATES THAT THE IMPULSIVITY-REFLECTIVITY COGNITIVE STYLES OF TEST TAKERS AFFECT IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS' TRANSLATION ABILITY.

KEY WORDS: IMPULSIVITY, REFLECTIVITY, QUALITY OF TRANSLATION, COGNITIVE STYLES

1. Introduction

Translation is the process in which a word, segment, or text is conveyed from one language into another, going beyond sheer words. It includes inter-lingual relationships, cultural differences - and when spoken, gesture - in order to ultimately transfer the source text's message in the target language (Sewell, 1996).

The world today is getting smaller and smaller as communication and information systems are developing and becoming more and more complex. In the process of such a rapid exchange of information and for the purpose of improving cultural contacts, translating becomes inescapable. One-

time, translation was undertaken by individuals for individuals. However, increasing universal demands prompted businesses seek markets worldwide, which generated further needs for translation of all types. Some researchers like Catford (1965), Savory (1968), Nida (1984), and Bell (1991) put emphasis on equivalence in translation, but others like Al-Qinai (2000), stated that translation is a complex hermeneutic process in which intuition plays a crucial role in interpreting the intentions of the source text writer, thus they believe that translation is a quality and quality is relative, and it will not be absolutely accurate where the end user imposes his/her own subjective preferences of style in translation.

With the development of human communications through the world, translation and teaching translation and interpretation have gained enormous importance around the countries and especially in academic systems. In Iranian universities, teaching translation and interpretation is coming into interests as the need for communication expands.

Meanwhile, translation is an instance of the wider notion of communication, and this, together with the decision-making process involved, is accounted for in terms of such coherence relationships as 'cause and effect'. As Hatim and Munday (2004) write, "these relations underpin the process of inferencing a cognitive activity that is central to any act of communication and thus crucial in any act of reading or translation" (p. 78).

In this study, quality of translation is considered by researcher, so we need to know more about quality of translation. Quality of translation is often used in opposition to quantity of translation. In the field of translation studies, however, translating is considered as a practical activity in classes. As translation trainees being aware of theoretical frameworks and having knowledge of theories of translation may affect the quality of the translation product. However, the other factor influencing target language text (TLT) quality is individual differences and characteristics. One of these characteristics is impulsivity-reflectivity which Brown (2000) believes that impulsivity is a person's quick or gambling guess at an answer to a problem and reflectivity is a person's slower and more calculated decision.

Another case that related to this study is test bias. The subject of test bias has been searched by different scholars. Different sources of bias have been mentioned by different researchers, to be taken into consideration while constructing and administering a test. The most extensive account of these sources has been given by Bachman (1990). He considers cultural background, background knowledge, cognitive characteristics, native language, ethnicity, sex, and age as different sources of bias. Some scholars like (Krashen, 1975; Selinker, 1982; Walsh & Diller, 1981), have worked on the examining of learners variables and individual characteristics in this area to explain differences in one's ability to acquire an L2. Since many researches have tried to connect learning differences to variables such as gender, age, brain plasticity, and lateral cerebral dominance (Krashen, 1975; Selinker, 1982; Walsh & Diller, 1981), other scholars have emphasized on variables such as integrative and instrumental motivation, attitude, anxiety, aptitude, ambiguity tolerance, field dependence/independence, and reflectivity/ impulsivity (Chapelle & Roberts, 1986; Oxford, 1989).

In recent years, language researchers and teachers have begun to focus on the individual differences of learners, such as age, language proficiency, learning motivation, cognitive styles, and so on. Cognitive style or thinking style is a term used in cognitive psychology to describe the way individuals think, perceive and remember information. Thus, in the present study, the researcher is trying to investigate one of these sources of bias namely the impulsivity – reflectivity cognitive styles and she attempts to find out the impact of these sources of bias on the test takers' quality of translation. In general, the present study has investigated whether or not the impulsivity vs. reflectivity has impact on Iranian EFL learners' quality of translation.

2. Significance of the Study

The significance of this study lies in investigating the impact of impulsivity vs. reflectivity on the Iranian EFL learners' quality of translation. It is assumed that the use of impulsivity vs. reflectivity cognitive style will help significantly to improve the present teaching and learning methods and strategies. So, the findings of this study are important because they can help the Ministry of Education, the EFL teachers to find methodologies for effective teaching, the curriculum developers of second

language, the designers of assessment tools, and foreign language institutes, learners, material developers, and test developers.

The significant issue, related to the present study is that of determining the extent to which translation ability affect test takers' characteristics. If studies demonstrate that these extraneous factors have impact on students' translation ability, then language test developers need to take into consideration the impact of these factors while developing tests or interpreting learners' test scores.

3. Literature Review

3.1. Theoretical Framework

Test bias refers to some differences in test performance for different individuals.

Bachman (1990, p. 271) defines test bias as "the possible systematic differences in test performance that are the result of differences in individual characteristics, other than the ability being tested of test takers".

For instance of test bias suppose you are interested in studying the possibility that gender differences exist in mathematical ability. You give a reasonably reliable mathematics test to a representative group of males and females, and you find that, on average, males have higher math scores than females. As a researcher you would be tempted to interpret your test scores in terms of the psychological construct that they are intended to reflect – that males tend to have greater mathematical ability than females. However, it is possible that the participants' test scores should not be interpreted as reflecting purely their mathematical ability. That is, it is possible that the test is biased in some way.

Nitko (1983) believed that:

The topic of test bias is a complex one. It may take an extended range of forms, including the misinterpretation of test scores, sexist or racist content, unequal prediction of criterion performance, unfair content with respect to the experience of test takers, inappropriate selection procedures, inadequate criterion measures and threatening atmosphere and conditions of testing (Nitko, 1983, pp. 43-7).

Different source of bias also is presented. Cultural background as a first source of bias is the extent to which a test offends or penalizes some students based on their ethnicity, gender or socioeconomic status.

Another source of bias was background knowledge that as Schmidt-Rinchart (1994, p. 180) believed "background knowledge operationalized in a different ways: cultural knowledge, technical knowledge, topic familiarity, vocabulary knowledge, religious knowledge, and contextual visual" (Schmidt-Rinchart, 1994, p. 180).

3.2. Test Bias

3.2.1. What is test bias?

A test that yields clear and systematic differences among the results of the test-takers is biased. Typically, test biases are based on group membership of the test-takers, such as gender, race and ethnicity. A test is not considered biased simply because some students score higher than others. A test is considered biased when the scores of one group are significantly different and have higher predictive validity, which is the extent to which a score on an assessment predicts future performance, than another group.

"Technically, test bias refers to differential validity for definable, relevant, subgroups of persons (Sattler, 1992, p. 616)". Angoff (1993, p. 4) worked on item bias and summarized various definitions as follows: "an item is biased if equally able or proficient individuals, from different groups, do not have equal probabilities of answering the item correctly". Gregory (2004, p. 242) defined test bias as "objective statistical indices that examine the patterning of test scores for relevant subpopulations". Scheuneman (1975, p. 2) talked about normal items and believed that "an item is unbiased if, for all individuals having the same score on a homogenous subtest containing the item, the proportion of individuals getting the item correct is the same for each population group being considered". Item response theory which is also known as latent trait theory and item characteristic curve theory was developed to explain how and why certain items favor particular groups (i.e. are biased).

Lord (1980) explained the basic assumption of the item response theory, which accounts for the distinction between biased and unbiased items, as follows:
If each test item in a test had exactly the same item response function in every group, then people of the same ability or skill would have exactly the same chance of getting the item right, regardless of their group membership. Such a test would be completely unbiased .If on the other hand an item has a different response function for one group than for another, it is clear that the item is biased (p. 212).

3.2.2. What are potential sources of test bias?

3.2.2.1. Cultural background

Most test biases are considered cultural bias. The work of Briere (1968, 1973; Briere & Brown, 1971) in developing language tests for use with American Indians in the 1960s is illustrative of an early concern with cultural differences as a potential source of bias in language tests. Chen and Henning (1985), using item response theory, found that "some items in a multiple choice vocabulary test appeared to be biased in favor of members of one linguistic and cultural subgroup" (Bachman, 1990, p. 273).

3.2.2.2. Cognitive characteristics

One of the potential sources of bias in language tests is differences in cognitive characteristics of test takers. Brown, 1987 believed that there is a general agreement among language acquisition researchers and scholars that cognitive characteristic is a factor that influence language acquisition (Brown, 1987) and at the same time, performance on certain types of language tests (Bachman, 1990, p. 275). Most of the studies related to the field dependence-field independence cognitive style (FD/FI). Hansen and Stansfield (Hansen & Stansfield 1981; Stansfield & Hansen, 1983) considered the relationship between FI and language test performance among American college students studding Spanish as a second language. Abraham (1985) reported FI to be a significant predicator for performance on a fill in the blank grammar test as composition for adult ESL students (Jamieson, 1992).

3.2.2.2.1. Reflectivity vs. impulsivity

Reflectivity – impulsivity that is also called conceptual tempo was first introduced by Kagan in 1965 and is the easiest of the theories to measure. Kagan administered the Matching Familiar Figures Test to children and measured the time it took them to make decisions. One group of children made decisions after briefly looking at the figures, thus they were cognitively impulsive, while the other group carefully deliberated the choices before coming to a decision, thus, they were cognitively reflective. Kagan tested repeatedly to find that conceptual tempo is stable that is test subjects will repeatedly test as either impulsive or reflective. There is some hesitation as to whether this applies in high-uncertainty situations only (Sternberger & Grigorenko, 1997). It is also important to note that impulsivity, as a cognitive style is not the same as having an impulsive personality (Sternberger & Grigorenko, 1997).

Impulsive and reflective cognitive styles are considered to be an individual's different style of solving problems, thinking, and forming concepts. They are ways in which individuals process information and select hypotheses.

3.3. Translation

Translation has different meanings. One of meaning of translation is transferring information from one language to another language. Translation is a way that is used for communication. Translation refers to rendering the meaning of a text into another language in the way that the author's intended text does not change. Apparently, it seems to be simple to our common sense to say something as well in one language as in another. So in different types of text (dialect, local and cultural) the main effort is to transfer as many source language words to the target language as possible. (Munday, 2001) has searched on translation. He found that the term translation itself has different meanings: It can be referred to as the general subject field, the product (the text has been translated) or the process (the act of producing translation, known as translating).

3.3.1. Quality of translation

There are a variety of views on translation quality, but setting universal criteria for translation quality is practically impossible. Translation quality assessment has always been a tricky issue and subject to an extensive discussion. Translation was expected to comply with vague and often contradictory requirements.

According to Schaffner (1997), "the aim of each translation activity is to produce a good text" (p. 1). Now this remains a question in our mind about what the definition of a good text is and what are its characteristics? What should a good text include or omit?

4. Objective of the Study

In general, this study aimed to find the impact of impulsivity vs. reflectivity cognitive styles on Iranian EFL learners' quality of translation. So, the researcher shed a light on the case that how much using these two cognitive styles i.e. impulsivity vs. reflectivity cognitive styles affects students' translation ability. More specifically, this study attempted to answer the following research question:

Do types of cognitive style have significant impact on translation ability of Iranian upper- intermediate EFL learners?

5. Method

5.1. The Design of the Study

The present study followed a descriptive design. More specifically, an Ex-post-facto design was used in this study, as all the requirements for such a study listed below were observed in this study:

1. There is no treatment
2. There is no control over the independent variable.
3. The relationship between the variables is not a cause-effect relationship.

This study investigated the possible impact of impulsivity and reflectivity cognitive styles on translation ability of upper-intermediate EFL learners in Rasht Islamic Azad University. In the present study, a sample of (N= 91) upper- intermediate EFL learners were selected based on their performance on QPT test. After that, the participants were given a questionnaire. Based on the results of this questionnaire, the selected participants were divided into two groups of impulsive and reflective group. Then, both groups were given a passage of IELTS reading to translate. In order to test the research null hypothesis, the Independent samples T- Test was run to the results of the translation scores of the two groups.

5.2. Participants

This study was going to investigate the impact of impulsivity vs. reflectivity cognitive styles on Iranian upper intermediate learners' translation ability. To this end, 126 participants took park in the test. Then, a sample of (N= 91) upper- intermediate EFL learners were selected based on their performance on QPT test as the population of this study. They were junior students at Rasht Islamic Azad University, Iran. Their age ranged from 19 to 24 years. Then, on the basis of their grades on Eysenck's Questionnaire, they were divided into two groups of impulsive and reflective personality made up of 40 and 36 participants, respectively. The rest (N=15) EFL learners participated in the pilot study.

5.3. Materials

5.3.1. Proficiency Test

At the early stage of the present study, the overall number of 126 learners took the QPT. QPT was used to make sure the participants were homogeneous in terms of their language proficiency. The test consists of structure, vocabulary, and reading comprehension with a maximum possible score of (60) points.

5.3.2. Eysenck's Personality Questionnaire

A questionnaire prepared by Eysenck (1975) to assess the participants' degree of impulsivity / reflectivity was used. It includes 30 items and in front of each item three answers including 'Yes', 'No', and '?' are presented.

The participants are instructed to answer each item by putting a circle around the 'Yes' or the 'No' as quickly as possible. If they find it impossible to decide one way or the other for any reason, they are asked to put a ring around the '?'.

5.3.3. Translation Tests

The translation tests administered to the students were taken from IELTS reading books on the market. Translation test was administered to two groups of impulsivity and reflectivity.

5.4. Procedure for Data Collection and Analysis

(1): Oxford Quick Placement Test (QPT) was administered to the 126 participants, in order to make certain that participants were homogeneous in terms of their language proficiency. 126 participants took the test, and again for the abovementioned reasons, 35 of them were excluded from the study.

(2): Eysenck's Personality Questionnaire was administered to 91 students to assess their degree of impulsivity-reflectivity.

(3) Independent Sample t-test: In order to test the research null hypothesis, the Independent samples t-test was run to the results of the translation scores of the two groups.

(4) Farahzads' Rubric: Although, the researcher had different methods of translation's evaluation, available, but she used Farahzad's method for evaluation of students' translation. The researcher scored the students' translation based on five criteria of the selected rubric model presented by Farahzad in 1992 that were known as 'accuracy', 'appropriateness', 'naturalness', 'cohesion', and 'style of discourse'.

6. Results

Based on the data obtained from the cognitive style questionnaire, the main participants were divided into two groups including reflexive (N=36), and impulsive (N=40). In order to test the research null hypothesis, the Independent samples t- test was run to the results of the translation scores of the two groups.

After assigning the participants into two groups of reflective and impulsive, they were given a translation test to examine the possible impact of cognitive style on their translation proficiency for the groups. Independent Samples t- tests were carried out to make a comparison between the two groups in terms of their translation. Table 4.7. displays the results of the group statistics for the students' scores on the translation test.

Table 4.7.
Group statistics for the two groups' performance on translation test

	cognitive style	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
translation scores	reflexive	36	15.08	331.47	115 .24519
	impulsive	40	13.25	001.38	675 .21926

For the translation test, the mean scores for the "*reflexive and impulsive groups*" were (*M*= 15.08) and (*M*= 13.25), respectively. Furthermore, the standard deviation for the reflexive group was somewhat higher than that of the impulsive group ($SD_{\text{reflexive group}} = 1.47$; $SD_{\text{impulsive group}} = 1.38$).

The independent Samples T-test procedures were run to make a comparison between the performances of the two groups on translation test. The T- tests displayed two tests of the comparison between the two groups (See the following table).

Table 4.8.
Independent samples test for the two groups' performance on translation test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	t-test for Equality of Means

		F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower	Upper
translation scores	Equal variances assumed	.000	1.000	5.59	174	.000	1.83333	.32790	1.17998	2.48668
	Equal variances not assumed			5.57	172.025	.000	1.83333	.32893	1.17762	2.48904

The Levene statistic examined the homogeneity of the variances and it was shown that the significance value of the statistic for the translation scores amounted to sig= 1.00. Since this value was higher than 0.05, it could be concluded that the two groups had equal variances and as a result the first test (equal variances assumed) was considered. As it was displayed in Table 4.8, the results of Independent Samples T-Test for the translation test revealed that there was a significant difference between the two groups with respect to their translation performance (t (74)= 5.59, p≤.05). The following figure illustrates the comparison between the two groups on translation test.

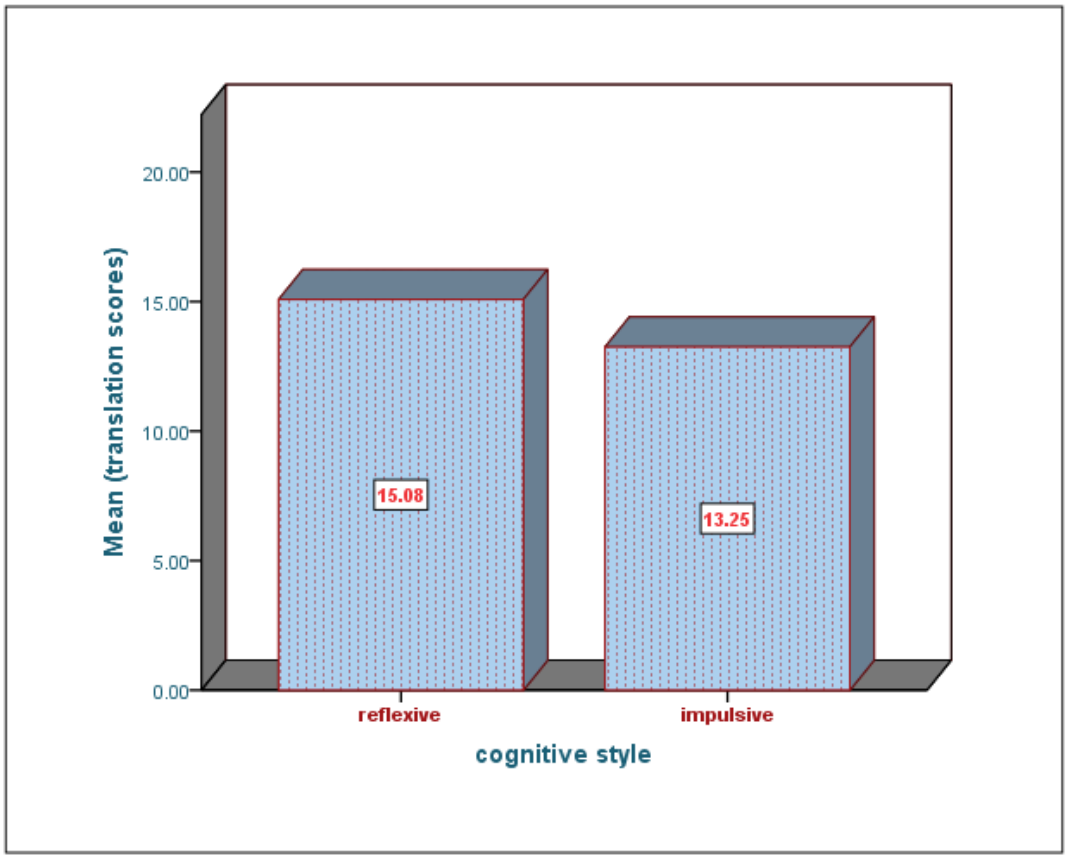

Figure 4.3. The comparison between the two groups on translation test

The above chart visually compared the mean scores of the total translation test scores between the two groups with different cognitive styles. As it is shown by the graph, the participants with high scores in translation test were those who reported that they were reflexive ($M_{\text{reflexive}}$= 15.08). On the other hand, impulsive participants had lower mean score in the translation test ($M_{\text{impulsive participants}}$= 13.25).

6.3. The Results of hypothesis testing

RQ: Do types of cognitive style have significant impact on translation ability of Iranian upper-intermediate EFL learners?

The following null hypothesis was suggested:

H0: Cognitive style does not have significant impact on translation ability of Iranian upper- intermediate EFL learners.

To the extent that the research question is examined, i.e., whether types of cognitive style affects Iranian EFL learners' translation, Independent Samples T-Tests were run to the results of the translation tests. They were carried out to make a comparison between the two groups in terms of their translation. The results revealed that types of cognitive style significantly affected the translation proficiency of the two groups differently ($t(74) = 5.59$, $.00<.05$). In fact, learners' performance in the reflexive group ($M = 15.08$) outweighed that of the impulsive group ($M=13.25$) on translation test and this difference was statistically significant.

The results reflected that cognitive style had been influential on EFL learners' translation ability and thus the null hypothesis was rejected implying that Cognitive style has significant impact on translation ability of Iranian upper- intermediate EFL learners.

5. Discussion

Results pertaining to the research question of the present study are discussed below. The aim of this study was to restate the finding of this study and to test the null hypothesis: "Impulsivity vs. reflectivity cognitive style does not affect overall translation ability of Iranian upper- intermediate EFL learners". On the basis of the results of independent samples t-test, cognitive style has a significant positive impact on overall translation test scores. The positive effect inferred that the students with different cognitive style showed different levels of translation proficiency. Thus, the research null hypothesis was rejected implying that positive cognitive style affects Iranian upper-intermediate EFL students' translation proficiency. The results of using impulsive vs. reflective cognitive style were fruitful.

In this study, the researcher compared the findings of the present study with the findings of the other studies that were in case of the present study and similar to the researcher's findings. To compare the research findings with those of previous empirical literature, the results of the present study are in agreement with the study done by Taghipour Bazargani and Noroozi Larsari (2013) who studied the impact of impulsivity- reflectivity cognitive styles and gender on multiple choice items. The results of their study demonstrate that the null hypothesis of the study is rejected; implying that the performance of test takers on a multiple – choice test is affected by their impulsivity / reflectivity cognitive styles.

6. Conclusion and Implications

The results of this study confirm the impact of cognitive characteristics (as one source of test bias) on the Iranian EFL learners' quality of translation. The difference between the means of the two groups (i.e. impulsive and reflective) encourages the researcher to claim that this result was just due to the independent variable. The participants with high scores in translation test were those who reported that they were reflexive. Concerning the hypothesis, the researcher came to the conclusion that reflective participants performed better than the impulsive ones on the translation test. Several reasons might account for this. The most tangible and important reasons are the features of each style and also the nature of translation tests. Having characteristics of impulsive – reflective and features of translation quality, it can be concluded that the result of the present study was somehow predictable; that is, translating a passage just requires the psychological process of recognition, and in translating a passage, there is no "obstacle" (utilizing other psychological processes) to the hurried and premature decisions of impulsive examinees. Thus, in this type of test item, the speed with which the impulsive examinees take a decision is very high and this adds to the probability of having more mistakes. However, this is not the case with reflective subjects. As they always think before making a decision, so the presence or absence of this "obstacle" makes no (or little) difference. The findings of this study can be useful for English teachers

(involved in language testing) in that their judgment about students' scores on difference types of test including translation should not be merely attributed to their language ability, but factors such as the impulsivity – reflectivity cognitive styles of test takers should be taken into consideration.

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INVESTIGATING THE STRATEGIES USED IN TRANSLATION OF SOCCER IDIOMATIC EXPRESSIONS FROM ENGLISH TO PERSIAN BASED ON THE MODEL PROPOSED BY BAKER (1992)

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ABSTRACT

SOCCER IS THE WORLD'S MOST POPULAR FORM OF SPORT, BEING PLAYED IN EVERY NATION WITHOUT EXCEPTION. IDIOMATIC EXPRESSIONS HAVE AN IMPORTANT ROLE IN THIS FIELD AS THEY ARE THE UNSEPERATABLE PART OF SOCCER. THE PURPOSE OF THIS STUDY WAS TO INVESTIGATE THE STRATEGIES USED IN THE TRANSLATION OF SOCCER IDIOMATIC EXPRESSIONS FROM ENGLISH TO PERSIAN BASED ON THE MODEL PURPOSED BY BAKER (1992). THIS STUDY WAS AN ATTEMPT TO FIND OUT WHICH STRATEGIES WERE USED MOST/LEAST FREQUENTLY IN TRANSLATION OF SOCCER IDIOMATIC EXPRESSIONS. TO DO THIS, 200 ENGLISH SOCCER IDIOMATIC EXPRESSIONS WERE RANDOMLY EXTRACTED FROM 3 SPORTS WEBSITES AND 96 OF THEM (SINCE ONLY FOR THESE 96 IDIOMS PERSIAN EQUIVALENTS WERE AVAILABLE IN ALL THE FOUR ENGLISH-TO-PERSIAN DICTIONARIES APPLIED) WERE USED AS SAMPLE DATA BASED ON PURPOSIVE SAMPLING. TO ANALYZE THE DATA OF THE STUDY, BAKER'S (1992) MODEL WAS EMPLOYED. THE FINDINGS REVEALED THAT STRATEGY 2, 'USING AN IDIOM OF SIMILAR MEANING BUT DISSIMILAR FORM' WAS USED MOST FREQUENTLY BY THE FOUR TRANSLATORS AND STRATEGY 5, 'TRANSLATING BY OMISSION' WAS USED LEAST FREQUENTLY BY THEM. EACH TRANSLATOR USED THE STRATEGIES DIFFERENTLY. SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES WERE NOT OBSERVED AMONG THE TRANSLATORS IN THE APPLICATION OF STRATEGIES 1(USING AN IDIOM OF SIMILAR MEANING AND FORM), 2 (USING AN IDIOM OF SIMILAR MEANING BUT DISSIMILAR FORM) AND 3(BORROWING THE SOURCE LANGUAGE IDIOM) BUT WERE OBSERVED IN THE APPLICATION OF STRATEGY 4(TRANSLATION BY PARAPHRASE). THE THIRD LEVEL OF INTER TRANSLATOR CONSISTENCY WAS ALSO OBSERVED TO BE MOST FREQUENT (42 TIMES, 43.8%) MEANING THAT 42 TIMES THREE TRANSLATORS HAD USED A COMMON STRATEGY. THE FINDINGS OF THE PRESENT STUDY WERE IN LINE WITH THOSE REPORTED BY RASHIDI AND MAVADDAT (2014). STUDENTS, TEACHERS AND WRITERS WITHIN THE REALM OF SPORT COULD BE POSSIBLE USERS OF THE FINDINGS OF THE PRESENT STUDY.

KEYWORDS: SOCCER, IDIOMATIC EXPRESSIONS, TRANSLATION, TRANSLATION STRATEGIES.

Introduction

There are some expressions in every language and every culture, which are linguistic or lexical items representing objects, concepts or phenomena of material life. These are called 'idioms' or 'idiomatic expressions'. Idiomatic expressions are necessary to keep a language colorful. As Larson (1984, p. 20) said, "Idiom is a string of words whose meaning is different from the meaning conveyed by the individual words." He also continued, "They carry certain emotive connotations not expressed in the

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other lexical items" (Larson, 1984, p. 142). Translation has been always one of the topics in teaching and learning. Brislin (1976, p. 1) defined translation as follows:
The transfer of thoughts and ideas from one language (source) to another (target), whether the languages are in written or oral form; whether the languages have established orthographies or do not have such standardization or whether one or both languages is based on signs, as with sign languages of the deaf."Idiomatic expressions have always been the inseperable part of every language. Translation of idiomatic expressions is a delicate job depending not only on talent and taste but also on having theoretical information" (Kasaiyan, 2004, p. 1). As put by Baker (1992, p. 64): The notion of translation strategy has a great effect on translating which has gained more momentum and attention than the past. The existence of different definitions and categorizations for translation strategies indicates that strategies are vibrant and relevant concept in translation. In translation, lack of adequate knowledge of translation strategies leads to mistranslation especially when it comes to idiomatic expression, because idioms of one language hardly match with idioms of other language.

As stated in "Idioms: May News" (2014):
Football (or soccer) is one of those odd sports which do not tend to leave people in different: you either love it or you hate it. No matter whether you're a lover or a hater, you will come across plenty of football-related idioms in everyday life. Football has been one of the most popular sports ever since the 19th century. This means we've had a good 120 years to steal words and phrases from the world of football and turn them into everyday use idioms. It seems that they are particularly popular in both business and political contexts. (p. 2).
"Sport phrases are commonly used outside of the sport's contexts, especially in business and politics. These phrases can be difficult to understand for non-native speakers and can be a challenge to accurately translate. As a result, it is important to give proper attention to these phrases to make sure that your target audience understands your message" (Enlaso, 2015, para. 2).

Idioms have a great position in sports especially in soccer. Little work has been done on this subject and the present researcher tried to study translation of idioms by Iranian translators. But, no doubt, much work is to be done in the future. . There are many fields in which translation is being used, sports being only one of them. There are words and phrases in every language that are called idioms and idiomatic expressions. They are important because most of them do not have their literal meanings. So, the issue of translating these idiomatic expressions is deemed as significant in itself. This study examined translation of idiomatic expressions in soccer. Works and researches have already been done on many majors and fields other than soccer (Trongwatananom, 2008; Vaxjo, 2014). There have been a few researches done on the soccer field. So, from this respect, the present thesis is again significance since it can enrich the literature on this topic.

The results of this study could be used by different groups. Translation students can get familiar with suitable strategies in translating idiomatic expressions and find better ways to translate them. Students majoring in soccer, soccer coaches and also soccer players can know correct and suitable equivalents for idiomatic expressions in their major. It is not only good for the people mentioned but also for anyone who is somehow a part of this major. It is useful for translators as well. They can improve their knowledge of both languages to be better translators. Other users of the results of the present study include teachers and university instructors. They can use suitable strategies and teach them to their students. Sport reporters, media, newspapers, websites and magazines are among other users of this study. Reporters and writers can also benefit from the results of the present study. They can improve their work substantially.

Nippold and Martin (1989) researched idiom interpretation in isolation versus context. They examined 475 adolescents whose ages ranged between 14 and 17. Results demonstrated that accuracy was greater for idioms in context than idioms in isolation and that accuracy for both presentations modes slowly improved during the target age range. Nippold and Rudzinski (1993) undertook a research on familiarity and transparency in idiom explanation. They found that idioms differed widely in their degree of difficulty for children and adolescents. Two factors that might account for these differences—familiarity and transparency—were examined. Children and adolescents ages 11, 14 and 17 years were asked to

explain in writing the meaning of the 24 different idiomatic expressions, each presented in a brief story context. Results showed that performance on the task gradually improved as subjects' age increased and that high-familiarity idioms were gradually easier to explain than moderate or low-familiarity expressions. Easier idioms also tended to be more transparent. The results were consistent with the 'language experience' view of figurative development and questioned the hypothesis that idioms were learned as giant lexical units.

Straksiene (2009) analyzed the idiom translation strategies from English to Lithuanian. He also analyzed the difficulties he had faced in his research. The aim of the research was to compare English and Lithuanian idioms in general, to present the problems of no equivalence in the target language, to look through main translation strategies used in translation of idioms and examine the choice of translation strategies used by the participants. Alrishan and Smadi (2015) investigated the difficulties EFL Jordanian university students encountered in translating English idioms into Arabic. He said that due to the existence of some problems in translating idiomatic expressions, it is necessary to overlook some arising difficulties and propose some solutions in order to deal with these problems. Al-Shawi and Mahadi (2012) also did research on the strategies for translation of idioms from Arabic to English and vice versa. The main object of the study was to focus on problems of translating idioms both in social and religious culture from Arabic to English and vice versa. Azmi Salim and Mehawesh (2013) carried out a case study on color idiomatic expressions in the translation of Mahfouz's novel 'The thief and the dog'. They investigated the translation of color idiomatic expressions and checked to what extent color idiomatic expressions had been retained, wasted and distorted.

Balfaqeeh (2009) explored the strategies for translating idioms and culturally-bound expressions within the human development genre. She declared that Arab readers became more interested in reading translated books within the sub-genre of personal and professional development because of their openness to other cultures. She also said that this type of genre was full of idioms and culturally-bound expressions that needed to be carefully translated to Arabic. Qassem and Vijayasarathi (2015) investigated the problematicity of translating cultural idiomatic expressions from English into Arabic. He chose forty adult Yemeni students of translation in their final year of graduation, whose ages ranged from 22 to 23 years. They were asked to translate several authentic texts from English into Arabic. Trongwattananon (2008) analyzed sport news translation on the body of news articles in the Siam Sport Daily Newspaper. The study emphasized translation strategies used in modification at lexical and syntactic levels in translation based on the suggestions of Saibua (1999). In this study, fifty translated sport articles, randomly selected from the Siam sport Daily Newspaper, were used as sample. Schmidt (2006) examined interfacing lexical and ontological information in multilingual soccer FrameNet. He presented ongoing work on a multilingual lexical resource of soccer language-the Soccer FrameNet (SFN). He took three languages (French, British English and German) into account. The overall goal was to organize verbs, nouns, adjectives and idiomatic expressions that were used to describe actors, objects and events in and around a soccer match into a lexical network.

Afshunpour and Memari (2014) analyzed the interlingual transfer of idioms by Persian learners in EFL sentence writing. They found out that the low proficient group had chosen the literal meaning of the idioms significantly more than the high proficient group. Adelnia and Vahid Dastjerdi (2011) investigated translating of idioms. She classified idioms into different categories and in the end, introduced some techniques and procedures to translate them. . Khosravi and Khatib (2012) attempted to find the strategies used in translation of English idioms into Persian in novels. She chose two novels. The researcher wanted to find out which strategies of the model of Baker (1992) were used most and whether there were any significant differences among the uses of these strategies. Mohseni and Rezaee Mozafar (2013) analyzed the strategies employed in translation of idioms in English subtitles of two Persian television series. They considered the difficulties of translation of idioms and also specific constraints of subtitling such as space and time limits. Eftekhari (2008) undertook a research on idiomatic translation. She claimed that although some stylists considered translation 'sprinkled with footnotes' undesirable, their uses could assist target text readers to make better judgment of the source text contents.

Akbari (2013) defined strategies for translating idioms. She indicated that there were no ready-made, fixed strategies to be prescribed to translators in dealing with idioms and it was up to the translator

himself or herself to draw upon the best strategies while translating idioms. Rashidi and Mavadat (2014) investigated the strategies used by Persian translators in translating idiomatic expressions from English into Persian. He did a comparative study based on Gottlieb's (1997) model. Sadeghi and Farjad (2014) attempted to find the translation strategies of English idioms used by EFL learners based on Baker's (1992) model. The analysis of data revealed that the use of each strategy depended on many factors such as subject's prior knowledge of target and source idioms and the context of use of idioms.

Objectives of the Study

The primary objective of the present study was to determine the strategies used by translators in translation of soccer idiomatic expressions from English into Persian based on the model proposed by Baker (1992). To obtain this objective three research questions were formulated as follows:

1. Does each translator use the strategies similarly?

2. Are there any statistically significant differences among the translators in the application of each strategy?

3. Are there any statistically significant differences among the four degrees of inter translator consistency in the data of the study?

Methodology

Data of the Study

Two hundred English soccer idiomatic expressions were extracted from the three English websites randomly. Then, out of these 200 terms and through purposive sampling, 96 expressions were selected as final data of the study. The expressions were selected for which Persian equivalents were also available in the four English-to-Persian dictionaries.

- Three soccer websites including:

1) http://www.footballglossary,lingo,argot,idioms_soccer vocabulary.htm

2) http://www.soccervocabulary&expressions,idioms-footballdictionary.htm, and

3) http://www.footballphraseandidiomstouseinenglish.htm

- Four soccer dictionaries were also used. They included:

1) Shams, M. (2013). A Concise Dictionary of Soccer Terms. Tehran: Jangal.

2) Elmi, M. J. (2013). A dictionary of football terms: English-Persian, Persian-English. Mashhad: Hekmati.

3) Noshadi, B. (2010). Sport technical term dictionary: English-Persian. Tehran: Zanis.

4) Ghasemi, H. (2008). Physical education & sport dictionary: English-Persian. Tehran: Bamdad Ketab.

Procedure of the Study

First ninety six English soccer idiomatic expressions were extracted from the three English websites through purposive sampling. Then, their Persian equivalents were extracted from the four English-to-Persian dictionaries. Later, the strategies used in each dictionary to translate each expression from English into Persian were recorded based on the model proposed by Baker (1992). Finally, the data extracted were input into SPSS for further analysis.

Reliability

Inter-rater reliability was used for the issue of reliability. The two raters were the present researcher and another senior M.A. student majoring in translation. The reliability of data labeling by the two raters computed using the correlation coefficient statistical technique was found to be 0.69. The mismatched

items were discussed by the two raters and hence the strategies on which both raters agreed were deemed as final.

Description of the Model

The five strategies used in this study are those proposed by Baker (1992). They have been illustrated below:

- **Using an idiom of similar meaning and form**: By using this strategy, the translator tries to find an idiom in the target language which is equivalent to the source language in terms of both meaning and lexical items. This strategy is hardly achieved because languages differ radically in the way they identify a single concept. However, it is regarded as the ideal strategy to translate idioms. For example, translation of 'advantage' into 'آوانتاژ'.
- **Using an idiom of similar meaning but dissimilar form**: In this case, the meaning of the target idiom is the same as that of the original idiom but the lexical items are different. For example, translation of 'angle' into 'زاویه'.
- **Borrowing the source language idiom:** Just as the use of loan words is a common strategy in dealing with culture-specific items, it is not for idioms to be borrowed in their original form in some context. For example, translation of 'corner' into 'کرنر'.
- **Translation by paraphrase:** This strategy is most commonly used in the process of translating idioms in cases where the translator cannot find any equivalents for the source idiom. When no equivalents exist, it is not a wise act to omit the whole idiom but to present more clarifications on it. Because of the lexical or stylistic differences between the two languages, we will not always have correspondence. We should elaborate more on the source idiom to transfer its meaning to the target language. It is noted that the given meaning would not be an exact equivalent or semantic equivalent of the source idiom. For example, translation of 'training aspects' into 'جنبه های تمرین'.
- **Translation by omission:** When there is no close match between the languages' items or when the translator cannot find any equivalents, this strategy is used to completely omit the idiom from the target text. When the idiom is very difficult even for the translator, he tries to eliminate the whole or part of the idiom as seen in the following example: 'practicing heading the ball' translated into 'تمرین سر زدن'.

Results

Use of Strategies by Translators

Q1: Does each translator use the strategies similarly?

Table 1. Statistics of different strategies used by the four translators عنوان

Statistics / Strategy	Bamdad			Noshadi			Elmi			Shams		
	Observed N.	Expected N.	Sig.	Observed N.	Expected N.	Sig.	Observed N.	Expected N.	Sig.	Observed N.	Expected N.	Sig.
1	6	24.0		7	24.0			24.0			19.2	
2	68	24.0		64	24.0			24.0			19.2	
3	4	24.0		4	24.0			24.0			19.2	
4	18	24.0		21	24.0			24.0			19.2	
5			0.000			0.000			0.000	1	19.2	0.000
Total	96			96			96			96		

Table 1 presented results of the Chi-Square test and showed that the frequency difference among strategies was significant (Sig. <0.05). Strategy 2 (using an idiom of similar meaning but dissimilar form) and 4 (translation by paraphrase) appeared with frequencies that were greater than the expected frequency while the other two strategies namely 1 and 3 appeared with frequencies that were lower than

the expected frequency. It showed that Elmi had used the four strategies differently. The frequency difference among strategies was significant between four translators (Sig. <0.05).

Comparing Application of Strategies among Translators

Q2: Are there any statistically significant differences among the translators in the application of each strategy?

Table 2. Comparison of different translators in the application of five strategies

Statistics / Groups	1			2			3			4		
	Observed N.	Expected N.	Sig.	Observed N.	Expected N.	Sig.	Observed N.	Expected N.	Sig.	Observed N.	Expected N.	Sig.
Bamdad	6	6.0	0.954	68	59.2	0.237	4	3.5	0.836	18	27.0	0.013
Noshadi	7	6.0		64	59.2		4	3.5		21	27.0	
Elmi	5	6.0		58	59.2		4	3.5		29	27.0	
Shams	6	6.0		47	59.2		2	3.5		40	27.0	
Total	24			237			14			108		

Table 2 revealed that the application of strategy 1 (using an idiom of similar meaning and form) was not significantly different among translators (Sig. >0.05). Thus, the 4 translators were statistically the same in the application of strategy 1. The application of strategy 2 (using an idiom of similar meaning but dissimilar form) was not significantly different among translators (Sig. >0.05). Thus, the 4 translators were statistically the same in using strategy 2. The application of strategy 3 (borrowing the source language idiom) was not significantly different among translators (Sig. >0.05). Thus, the 4 translators were statistically the same with regard to the application of strategy 3. The application of strategy 4 (translation by paraphrase) was significantly different among translators (Sig. <0.05). Regarding observed frequencies, it can be inferred that Shams had used strategy 4 significantly more frequently than the other three translators and since strategy 5 was used only once, there was not enough data to apply the Chi-Square test to this case.

Checking the Inter Translator Consistency

Q 3: Are there any statistically significant differences among the four degrees of inter translator consistency in the data of the study?

Table 3. Comparison of different levels of inter translator consistency

Statistics / Level	Observed N.	Expected N.	Chi-square	Sig.
1	3	24.0	39.583	0.000
2	16	24.0		
3	42	24.0		
4	35	24.0		
Total	96			

Results in Table 3 revealed that the frequencies observed for the four levels differed significantly (Sig. <0.05). Regarding the observed frequencies, level 3 was significantly more frequent. It meant that in most cases, 3 translators out of 4 had applied a common strategy.

Discussion

The first research question of the study was, "Does each translator use the strategies similarly?" Based on the findings of the first research question, the hypothesis, "Each translator uses the strategies similarly" could not be held. It meant that each of the four translators used the strategies differently. Strategy 2 (Using an idiom of similar meaning but dissimilar form) is a common strategy for translating idioms and

it is more common for sport idioms translation regarding other strategies. As strategy 5 is translation by omission and as it shows, this strategy is mostly used for idioms which are long phrases or even sentences. The idioms which were included in this research were mostly one or two word phrases. So, there came to the lack of use of this strategy. The findings of the present study were in line with those reported by Rashidi and Mavaddat (2014, p. 338) who identified the main differences between strategies in translating idiomatic expressions from English into Persian. The findings of that study revealed that the most frequently used strategy was paraphrasing.

The second research question of the study was, "Are there any statistically significant differences among the translators in the application of each strategy?" Based on the findings of the second research question, the hypothesis, "There are statistically significant differences among the translators in the application of each strategy" could not be held for strategies 1, 2 and 3 but could be held for strategy 4. Regarding strategy 5, there was not enough data to apply the Chi-Square test. Other than the reasons mentioned above, it can be said that the translators wanted to keep the naturalness of the translations of the idioms. The findings of this research question were in line with those reported by Rashidi and Mavaddat (2014, p. 354) who concluded that the translators were similar in using some strategies and different in using the others. Rashidi and Mavaddat observed that emulation strategy and lacuna strategy had not been used by translators, but paraphrasing strategy was the most favored strategy used by the translators.

The third research question of the study was, "Are there any statistically significant differences among the four degrees of inter translator consistency in the data of the study?" Based on the findings of the third research question, the hypothesis, "There are statistically significant differences among the four degrees of inter translator consistency in the data of the study" could be held. The finding of this research question was in line with that reported by Balfaqeeh (2009, p. 37) who observed that all idiom types are distributed between the three translation strategies.

Implications and limitations

The results of the present study were assumed to have different implications, some important cases of which have been introduced here: First, it showed the applicability of the model proposed by Baker (1992) for the English-Persian language pair. Second, the findings of the present study could be used by students to get ready for practical translation activities. Third, it could be helpful for those interested in soccer like reporters, players and coaches to have a better knowledge of their major. Forth, it could be useful for sports translators to produce effective translations.

Although the researcher tried to prevent the limitations that may take part in the research, but it is natural to have some of them here. Some important limitations of the present study were as follows: First, the amount of data analyzed in this research was limited. If the number of idioms which were included in this research were more, the researcher could do the research and get the results better or even get different results. Second, there were only four translators in this research and third, two raters were used for data codification. More raters could be more beneficial.

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EDUCATIONAL CHALLENGES OF IRANIAN STUDENTS WITH VISUAL LIMITATIONS FOR LEARNING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

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ABSTRACT
LEARNING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE (EFL) IN INCLUSIVE SETTING WOULD BE A CHALLENGE FOR LEARNERS WITH VISUAL IMPAREMENT. THE PRESENT STUDY AIMS ATINVESTIGATING THE EDUCATIONAL CHALLENGES THATIRANIAN STUDENTS WITH VISUAL IMPAIMENT FACE IN LEARNHNG ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE. PARTICULARLY AN ATTAMPT WAS MADE TO STUDY AVAILABILITY OF LEARNING/TEACHING MATERIALS FOR VISUALLY IMPAIRED STUDENTS, THEIR MOTIVATION FOR LEARNING ENGLISH IN TERMS OF OCCUPATIONAL GOAL, AND THE SERVICES THAT LIBRARIES OFFER TO THEM. THE PARTICIPANTS WERE 4 MALE AND 6 FEMALE, AT DIFFERENT LEVELS OF PROFICIENCY IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE. THE PARTICIPANTS WERE 6 LOW VISION AND 4 TOTALLY BLIND, BETWEEN THE AGES OF 17 TO 26 YEARS OLD. THE STUDY WAS CONDUCTED IN IRAN AND THE DATA WERE COLLECTED BY QUESTIONNAIRE. FOR DATA ANALYSIS AT FIRST THE ANSWERS OF THE PARTICIPANTS WERE TRANSLATED INTO ENGLISH AND WERE PRESENTED ON THE BASIS OF RESEARCH QUESTIONS. IN REPORTING THE INFORMATION COLLECTED, SOME DIRECT QUOTATIONS WERE USED. THEN, THE PARTICIPANTS' ANSWERS WERE COMPUTED USING STATISTICAL PACKAGE FOR SOCIAL SCIENCE (SPSS). THE FINDINGS REVEALED THAT VISUALLY IMPAIRED AND BLIND PEOPLE ENCOUNTER TWO SERIOUS DIFFICULTIES FOR LEARNING ENGLISH. THE FIRST ONE CONCERNS ADAPTATION OF THE INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS WHICH NOWADAYS TEND TO BE HIGHLY VISUAL, AND THE OTHER ONE DERIVES FROM INSUFFICIENT KNOWLEDGE OF BRAILLE WHICH WOULD AFFECT THE LEARNERS' READING AND WRITING SKILLS IN THE TARGET LANGUAGE. THE FINDINGS HAVE IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHERS, VISUALLY IMPAIRED STUDENTS, AND SCHOOLS OR LANGUAGE INSTITUTES WHICH PRACTICE INCLUSIVE PROGRAM.

KEYWORDS: INCLUSIVE EDUCATION, VISUAL IMPAIRMENT, SPECIAL NEEDS

1. Introduction

Language is the most important means of human interaction for all individuals suffering from visual disability. Learning a foreign language such as English enhances social integration, with a positive impact on self-esteem and opens new job opportunities which requires equality of access and inclusion for all in the learning process. Many international policy statements support inclusive education of Visually Impaired People (VIP), such as the International Convention on the Protection and Promotion of the

Rights and Dignity of Persons with Disabilities, which includes a section on " Flapship on the Right to Education for Persons with Disabilities: Towards Inclusion" (UNESCO, 2005).

Since 1970, emphasis on language as a means of communication has given a new dimension to the importance of receptive skills in communication. The speech perception system combines visual and auditory information when perceiving speech, rather than relying on auditory information alone. The most famous demonstration of multi-modal speech perception is the McGurk effect (Krezel & Bekkering, 2000; McGurk & MacDonald, 1976).The McGurk effect happens when people watch a video of a person talking, but the audio portion of the tape has been altered.

Having to use only auditory channel for communicating, blind and VIP, have problems which are greater than and in some respects different from the problems of fully sighted English learners. For example, infants with visual impairments cannot perceive items that are beyond their grasp or are too large or small (ERIC EC, 1992). Thus, they require contexts in which they can most easily and comfortably learn English in combination with adaptive skills related to their needs as people with specific strengths and handicaps. They also need some form of individualized instruction and problem solving specifically adapted to their particular needs.

2. Review of The Literature

Inclusion is grounded in the principles of human rights. The Salamanca statement is said to be the first international statement that considered human rights in the education arena. Although inclusion has its roots in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) of 1945 and the 1990, and World Conference on Education for All, the Salamanca Statement (1994) puts inclusion on top of the agenda (Eklindh & Van den Brule-Balescut, 2006). Inclusion is geared in the provision of education that is anchored in improving the education system that will benefit all children regardless of their differences or difficulties. Inclusion is concerned with provision of appropriate responses to the broad spectrum of learners in the education settings (Ibid, 2006). Inclusion seems to be important, because studies show improvement in academic performance for students with disability in inclusive settings as compared to special education settings. Also, all children need to build friendships and relationships, respect and understanding of each other, so that they are prepared to be responsible members of the community, inclusion provides this opportunity (Salisbury, 2008).

Most cognitive studies of language acquisition in both natural systems and artificial systems have focused on the role of purely linguistic information as the central constraint. However, we argue that non-linguistic information, such as vision and talker's attention, also plays a major role in language acquisition.

A common conjecture about human lexical learning is that children map sounds to meanings by seeing an object while hearing an auditory word-form. The most popular mechanism of this word learning process is association. Most learning in this framework concentrates on statistical learning of co-occurring data from the linguistic modality and non-linguistic context (see a review by Plunkett, 1997). Smith (2000) argued that word learning traits children's attention so that they attend to the just right properties for the linguistic and world context. Nonetheless, a major advance in recent developmental research has been the documentation of the powerful role of social-interactional cues in guiding the learning and in linking the linguistic stream to objects and events in the world (Baldwin, 1993; Tomasello & Akhtar, 1995). Many studies (e.g., Baldwin, 1993; Woodward & Guajardo, 2002) have shown that there is much useful information in social interaction and that young learners are highly sensitive to that information. Often in this literature, children's sensitivities to social cues are interpreted in terms of (seen as diagnostic markers of) children's ability to infer the intentions of the speaker. This kind of social cognition is called "mind reading" by Baron-Cohen (1995). Bloom (2000) suggested that children's world learning in the second year of life actually draws extensively on their understanding of the thoughts of speakers. However, there is an alternative explanation of these findings to the proposals of "mind-reading." Smith (2000) has suggested that these results may be understood in terms of the child's learning of correlations among actions, gestures and words of the mature speaker, and intended referents. Smith (2000) argued that construing the problem in this way does not "explain away" notions of "mind-reading" but rather

grounds those notions in the perceptual cues available in the real-time task that young learners must solve.

Meanwhile, Bertenthal, Campos, and Kermoian (1994) have shown how movement-crawling and walking over, under and around obstacles-creates dynamic visual information crucial to children's developing knowledge about space. Researchers are studying the role of social partners in development and problem solving also point to the body and active movement-points, head turn, and eye gaze-in social dynamics and particularly in establishing joint attention. Computational theorists and roboticists (e.g. Ballard, Hayhoe, Pook, & Rao, 1997; Steels & Vogt, 1997) have also demonstrated the computational advantages of what they call "active vision," how an observer-human or robot- is able to understand a visual environment more effectively and efficiently by interacting with it. This is because perception and action from a closed loop; attentional acts are preparatory to and made manifest in action while also constraining perception in the next moment. Ballard and colleagues proposed a model of "embodied cognition" that operates at time scales of approximately one-third of a second and uses subtle orienting movements of the body during a variety of cognitive tasks as input to a computational model. At this "embodiment" level, the constraints of the body determine the nature of cognitive operations, and the body's pointing movements are used as deictic (pointing) references to bind objects in the physical environment to variables in cognitive programs of the brain.

Before imposing any teaching to students with visual impairments, it is very important that a teacher knows how the loss in vision influence the learning process (Sacks & Silberman, 1998). Visual information is crucial in helping children observe and interpret what happens in the environment. It is also an important prerequisite for conceptual development in a student's learning. Malformation and destruction of this part of the body, brings about a reduced amount of sensory data to the learner, leading to deficit or delay in various skills learned through watching and imitation from others. This impacts language development, reasoning skills, problem solving abilities and abstract thinking. This finally causes great impact on the individual's learning and performance, because a student cannot observe and use visual information to interpret various learning situations happening in the environment (Bishop, 1996; Fraser & Maguvhe, 2008; Webster &Roe, 1998). If visual impairment occurs during early childhood, cognitive and language development will impaired (Bishop, 1996). But if the loss of vision is after five years, below which visual memories cannot be retained, then there will be some visual memories. This visual memory will be very helpful in the learning process through construction and formation of images, and concepts later by relating the new concept and experience acquired earlier in life (Webster &Roe, 1998).

There are basically three ways through which students with visual impairments can get information from the environments. Verbal description is the most important source of information to VISs. However, verbal description provided by others is always incomplete and cannot satisfy the person's needs. Another way is the use tactile stimuli. However, a tactile method is also not effective, because a student needs to feel an object repeatedly in order to grasp the image of the object. Finally, students with visual impairments rely on self-exploration about the world. This way is limited in amount of information that can be accessible to students with visual impairments. All in all, these modalities together cannot effectively compensate visual stimuli; they are there just to reduce the impacts to learning caused by lack of vision (Spungin, 2002). Therefore a teacher teaching students with visual impairments in inclusive classrooms needs to plan teaching based on these assumptions.

3. Methodology

3.1. Participants

This study was conducted in Iran. Purposeful sampling was used in this study. Purposeful sampling attempts to select the participants based on the certain characteristics or criterion (Johnson & Christensen, 2012). Participants were selected based on two criterion. One of these criterion was participants with visual impairment learning English as a foreign language. And the second criterion was participants who learn English in an inclusive classroom with other sighted students.

The participants selected to provide information for the current study were 4 males and 6 females, learning English at different levels of proficiency in English language. The participants were between the

ages of 17 to 26 years old. From 10 participants, 6 were low vision and the rest of them were totally blind. All the participants were monolingual and native speakers of Persian language.

3.2. Material and Instruments

The instruments used to collect the research data were questionnaires.

3.2.1. Questionnaire

In this study, two questionnaires were used. The first questionnaire had been used by Galetova (2012), to measure the sufficiency of learning materials for the blind people, and the second questionnaire had been used by Makarian (2014), to measure the problems of Iranian blind students in learning foreign languages. The researcher used these two questionnaires without any change. Thus, the reliability and validity of the questionnaires were ensured. The questionnaires contains 4 parts and 20 questions about the problems that visual impaired or blind people have for learning English. Most of the questions are close ended, some of them are open ended. The number of participants was small, because visually impaired and blind students who learn English in inclusive setting are a minority.

After the introduction, there is part 1, which is introductory. It consists of three questions and its goal is to gather statistical data such as sex of the participants, their grade, and type of the participants (low vision / totally blind). Part 2, consists of 10 questions and focus on the availability of teaching/learning materials and frequency of using certain types of materials in teaching and learning English for blind or VISs. The third part consists of one question about blind people's motivation for learning English in terms of occupational goals, and the last part consists of five questions and is devoted to the schools, libraries and other public places related to blind students' education in order to investigate the services they offer to blind people.

3.3. Procedure

The questionnaires were distributed among VISs via email, because it is nowadays a common means of communication and it is quicker and more flexible than the distribution of a printed version. What is more, the participants were visually handicapped and they could use voice synthesizer to read the questionnaire.

The questionnaires was sent to Gooshkon.ir site. In this site all blind and visually impaired people in Iran are member. Ten participants answered the questions from different cities in Iran.

Immediately following the questions, each participant was asked to write any comment or suggestion, related to his/her problems in learning English. Then, the participants' answers were checked and were translated into English.

The researcher chose to carry out a qualitative research, because the number of participants was small.

4. Data Analysis

The data analysis which was carried out in the present small-scale research, involved the analytical procedures described below.

The answers of each participant were checked and were presented in relation to research questions. In reporting the information collected, some direct quotations were used. Reporting direct statement from research participants is important, because it maintains the flavor of the original data (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007).

The answers of the participants were computed, using SPSS.

5. Results

5.1. The Results of Research Question One

The first research question concerned the sufficiency of learning materials for the blind people in learning English. Questions 4-14 in the questionnaire were related to the availability of learning materials for VISs in learning English. The descriptive statistics for these questions including frequency and percentage was calculated and presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1

Sufficiency of Learning Materials for Blind People

		No		yes	
		Percentage	Frequency	percentage	Frequency
Low vision	Item 4	50.0	3	50.0	3
	Item 5	83.3	5	16.7	1
	Item 6	66.7	4	33.3	2
	Item 8	66.7	4	33.3	2
	Item 9	66.7	4	33.3	2
	Item 10	0.0	0	100.0	6
	Item 11	100.0	6	0.0	0
	Item 12	83.34	5	16.67	1
	Item 13	100.0	6	0.0	0
Totally blind	Item 4	75.0	3	25.0	1
	Item 5	100.0	4	0.0	0
	Item 6	25.0	1	75.0	3
	Item 8	50.0	2	50.0	2
	Item 9	25.0	1	75.5	3
	Item 10	0.0	0	100.0	4
	Item 11	100.0	4	0.0	0
	Item 12	50.0	2	50.0	2
	Item 13	100.0	4	0.0	0
Total	Item 4	60.0	6	40.0	4
	Item 5	90.0	9	10.0	1
	Item 6	50.0	5	50.0	5
	Item 8	60.0	6	40.0	4
	Item 9	50.0	5	50.0	5
	Item 10	0.0	0	100.0	10
	Item 11	100.0	10	0.0	0
	Item 12	70.0	7	30.0	3
	Item 13	100.0	10	0.0	0.0

By considering Table 4.1, the following results can be deducted:
Six participants (60%) were satisfied, and four (40%) were dissatisfied with the amount of materials (in shops, libraries, etc. for their English learning, see item 4 in Table 4.1).One of the participants said:
When I was studying English in college 7 years ago, I did not have Braille book. I was doing the exercises with my colleagues in the class. One of my friends was reading the book for me and I was writing it. Also I did not have dictionary. I was writing every word that I heard from my teacher.
Nine participants (90%) had problem to learn a certain topic because of the materials (i.e., they had problem to find suitable material). For example one of the students said that "magnifying the texts in dictionaries, either Farsi to English, or English to Farsi, as well as other texts such as novels or short stories in English, is a fundamental problem for us." However, one participant said she has never had such difficulties (see item 5 in Table 4.1).
Five participants (50%) had a good choice of study materials and 50%of the participants did not have a good choice of study materials **(**see item 6 in Table 4.1).
Six participants (60%) said that their teacher used other materials in teaching too; one of them mentioned newspaper, and one listed original language films, CD, listening materials like song, and training files. And four participants said that their teacher did not use any other type of material in the class (see item 8 in Table 4.1). Participants had some suggestions. One of them suggested that "considering the software available to the blind people, the teachers should allow us to have our personal computer in the class."

Another participant said that "I ask my teacher to use those training materials which are usable for blind people too."
.Modern English language textbooks are often supplemented with a CD-ROM, which some teachers like to use in the class.50% of participants said that their teacher used CD-ROM in their lessons (see item 9 in Table 4.1).
Interactive board was not used by teachers in the class (see item 10 in Table 4.1). Some participants said that their teacher would use it, if it was available in their school. One of the participants said:
Because teachers are not aware of our vision problem, they use white board in the class. Therefore, we should ask our teacher or one of our classmates to read the statements on the board for us. If we had proper facilities like interactive boards, we would not have any problem.
Audio materials are available for blind people. In low vision group, 50% of participants and in totally blind group, again 50% of participants said that listening facilities were suitable for them:
Listening is very important for us, and if we cannot find a good book in Braille, we use audio materials. Our listening is better than other sighted people's. We prefer to have all our lessons in the form of audio books because of its size. Braille books are very heavy and big. For example, the Quran that is one volume for you, it is six volumes for us. This problem makes us to use audio books (see item 11 in Table 4.1).
In low vision group, 83.33% of participants said that they could use every book that they need and they usually use audio books. However, loss of vision affects each person in unique ways and presents many challenges. For example, the use of written texts can be very difficult for low vision people. Lack of accessibility and being relatively expensive were the problems one of the participants mentioned:
I cannot use every book that I need because most of the books are written in Braille, and low vision people don't know Braille. On the other hand, various language texts have small font and a low vision person should use enlarged texts, so I should pay at least double to printing house to enlarge English texts for. Texts in black ink do not have good quality. For example, titles and color lines will be printed pale or will not be printed at all; on the other hand color Xerox is very expensive.
In totally blind group, 50% of the participants said that they could not use every book that they needed (see item 12 in Table 4.1).
The VISs are usually slower in reading, and the orientation in a text is more or less difficult. Thus, VISs need to tape the voice of their teacher in the class. All participants said that their teacher allowed them to tape his/her voice in the class (See item 13 in Table 4.1).

5.2. Results of the Second Research Question

In the second research question, the researcher intended to investigate the blind people's motivation for learning English in terms of occupational goal. In order to find the answer of second research question, question number 14 was used. The result of the participants' answers to this question was presented in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2
Motivation toward Learning English for Occupational Goal

	Low vision		Totally blind		Total	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Yes	5	83.3	2	50.0	7	70.0
NO	1	16.7	2	50.0	3	30.0
Total	6	100.0	4	100.0	10	100.0

In low vision group, 83.3% of participants said that they had enough motivation for learning English in terms of occupational goal and one said that she/he had not any motivation for learning English for occupational goal.
Because of the presence of a negative attitude among employers, blind people have only a little chance for employment. Participants' statements confirmed this matter "we have only a little chance for employment because employers say that we don't have communication skills; like visual communication."

In totally blind group, 50% of participants had enough motivation and 50% of them did not have any motivation for learning English for occupational goal. One of the participants said:
We learn English because of our interest. The employers do not accept us as a teacher, because they say that we cannot write on the board. Translation is better than teaching but it is hard and time consuming. The government does not support us.

5.3. Results of Third Research Question

The third research question was "Does the libraries or other public places related to the education of blind people offer services to them?" Table 4.3 shows the result of the participants' answers to this question.

Table 4.3

Result of Participants' Answers to the Third Research Question

		Inappropriate		Fairly appropriate		Appropriate		Very appropriate		Total	
		Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Low vision	Item15	3	50.00	3	50.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	6	100.00
	Item16	0	0.00	3	50.00	3	50.00	0	0.00	6	100.00
	Item17	4	66.67	2	33.33	0	0.00	0	0.00	6	100.00
	Item18	5	83.33	1	16.67	0	0.00	0	0.00	6	100.00
	Item19	2	33.33	2	33.33	2	33.33	0	0.00	6	100.00
Totally blind	Item15	4	100	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	100.00
	Item16	2	50	1	25	1	25	0	0	4	100.00
	Item17	3	75	1	25	0	0	0	0	4	100.00
	Item18	3	75	0	0	1	25	0	0	4	100.00
	Item19	2	50	2	50	0	0	0	0	4	100.00
Total	Item15	7	70	3	30	0	0	0	0	10	100.00
	Item16	2	20	4	40	4	40	0	0	10	100.00
	Item17	7	70	3	30	0	0	0	0	10	100.00
	Item18	8	80	1	10	1	10	0	0	10	100.00

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Item19	4	40	4	40	2	20	0	0	10	100.00

Totally, 70% of participants said that libraries were not suitable for the blind people use, because libraries did not offer them necessary services (see item 15 in Table 4.4).
For a blind person these services include environmental modification and technological products. In this respect one of the respondents said that "my proposal is the inclusion of the usable books and other educational resources for blind people in the libraries of universities all over the country."
Another participant said, "in relation to libraries, only one or two branches are allocated to the blind people in Isfahan. However, all blind people do not access to them and some resources are not found in these two branches."
As it is seen in item 16 in Table 4.4, it seems that low vision people did not have much problem with the physical environment of their classes. But to a totally blind individual, the physical world presented many challenges. One of the participants suggested that the "language institutes should consider appropriate classes for us, in relation to our going and coming in those classes."
Visually impaired people need tactile boards or sensitive symbols to find their way through complex environment in the schools or other educational places. As item 17 in Table 4.4 shows, in low vision group, 66.67% of participants, and in totally blind group, 75% of participants said that educational places did not have tactile boards or sensitive symbols for blind people "The structure of institutes is not suitable for us because we cannot climb the stairs, and institutes have at least two or three stairs."
About banking system, 83.33% of participants in low vision group and 75% of participants in totally blind group said that city banks were not equipped with listening devices for paying tuition (see item 18 in Table 4.4). However, some of the participants said that "nowadays, banking systems are equipped with internet payments and we can use it easily."
It seems that walking in public area is difficult because of some obstacles. Sometimes these barriers cause the fear to travel independently and decrease the confidence in blind people (see item 19 in Table 4.4). One of the participants said "My problem was my coming and going to institute because my father had to take me there and it was trouble for him."
Blindness causes some problems in educational environment. Some participants said that "we have problem in testing, because texts have small font and they should be bolded or magnified for us."
"We prefer to have the exam questions in audio or Braille form or the teacher himself/herself reads them for us."
"In fill- in the blanks questions, we have a lot of problems."
Another participant said:
I have been in Iran language institute for 4 years and during those years, teachers magnified the exam sheet for me once. And in other terms, there was someone who was reading the questions for me, I was answering them and she was writing the answers on the answer sheet. But she did her job badly because she was pronouncing the words incorrectly and it caused me get confused.

6. Discussion

Although it is a fact that there are a limited number of materials for VISs, most of the participants were happy or quite satisfied with the amount of materials available for them. The teachers of VISs used other types of materials in the class. The participants mentioned different kinds of materials such as: Newspaper, original language films, CD, listening materials like song, training files, and video, which would suit their needs better. Listening materials and audio books are very important for blind people and they can use such materials with more frequency than other materials like real objects and visual materials. Most of the participants said that listening facilities were available for them and they could use CD-ROM and audio books easily. Participants had only problem to learn a certain topic due to the lack of suitable material, for example, novels or short stories in English which are available in small font, and magnifying them is hard for low vision people.
Thus, in answering the research question about the problems of blind students in learning English, it can be stated that, Most of the blind or visually impaired people faced problem when writing or reading in Braille. Only a few of them, though, wrote and read in Braille; most of them wrote their English works on

computers, using special hardware for the blind and visually impaired such as Scanners and Braille displays, vocal syntheses, and screen readers.

Books in Braille can be another problem, because they are expensive and difficult to be found. Furthermore, Braille writing takes a lot of space on the page, so that a page in black ink can become three pages in Braille. Therefore, books in Braille are very voluminous and not handy. Some pupils had no English books in Braille and they had to use large prints of the same files according to their residual vision.

With Braille it is important to keep in mind that writing follows in a continuous way on only one line, so it is not possible to skip lines to make random lists or to draw charts, because pupils can get confused. Blind pupils, when they do exercises in English, in handwriting or on the computer, have to have all the elements they need on the same line and cannot skip lines forward and backwards to look for useful information, as in fill-in the blank exercises, otherwise they get lost. The kinds of exercises blind pupils can do, and the kind of activities teachers can arrange on paper, are thus rather limited and repetitive.

Another obvious limitation is the fact that teachers cannot use images, drawings or pictures to teach English, or anything implying the visual code, such as blackboards. If we consider that eighty per cent of learning is through sight, this is a severe limitation. Thus, the teachers have to adapt their teaching method, trying to use, as much as possible, other sensory coders such as hearing and touch

The results of this study are in line with a research project done by Galetova (2012), who measured the sufficiency of learning materials for the blind or visually impaired students.

In answering the second research question regarding the blind peoples' motivation for learning English in terms of occupational goal, it should be stated that Most of the participants said that they had enough motivation for learning English for occupational goal, but employers did not consider it. People in the society think that a person with a disability is a useless individual. Participants were dissatisfied because government and related organization did not support them. In many countries, there is some supportive legislation to facilitate blind people affairs, but it seems that it is different in Iran. We know that people, who are blind or partially sighted, often struggle to find work. Employing a member of staff with sight loss is often considered to be a challenge.

The results are in line with the result of the research done by Khodadady and Gholamian (2014) in Ferdowsi university of Mashhad. Their study aimed to explore whether the motivation for which blind students learn English differ from those of normal students. The results showed that compared to normal students whose domain of motivation consisted of three genera, (i.e., intrinsic, extrinsic and communicative), blind students' motivation comprises eight, (i.e., intrinsic, Self-Satisfying, Other-satisfying, communicative, Self-Enhancing, extrinsic, socializing, and Self-Encouraging).

The third research question was aimed to investigate whether libraries and other places related to the education of blind students offer services to blind people, as results indicated, Most of the participants were dissatisfied with the services that Libraries offer to them. These services include environmental modification and technological products. Participants said that the structure of libraries and other educational places was not suitable for blind people. A blind individual need tactile boards or sensitive symbols to find his/her way through the environment in school or library. Only one library in Isfahan is allocated for use by the blind people; however, some resources are not found in this library.

In this study, the results of investigation on libraries in Isfahan are in line with the result of the research administered by the Center for Investigation on Building and Residence (2014). In the mentioned study, some of the libraries in Isfahan were selected randomly for analysis, considering their structures and services offered to blind people.

7. Conclusion and Implications

To sum up, blind learners often encounter two serious difficulties in learning English, both unrelated to their learning capacity: The first one concerns the adaptation of the instructional materials, which nowadays tend to be highly visual and the other one derives from insufficient knowledge of Braille which would affect the learners reading and writing skills in the target language. As statistical results show, totally blind people have more difficulties concerning the choice of learning materials than low vision group.

Blind students may be visually impaired but their other senses are intact, so teachers of the blind should utilize the other senses. Learning a language is very much tied up with cultures, exposure and experiences. Blind students may not be able to acquire exposure and experiences the same way as sighted students. So teachers of the blind may have to do a little more than other teachers. Bring experience and exposure to the blind students.

The findings of this study are important for two reasons. At first, it helps to those who teach VISs or who are interested in this issue. The work is supposed to provide guidance to the teachers who are beginners in teaching the VISs and offers a list of some basic ideas which may be useful.

In this case teachers need to know how to address the needs of learners in learning English language. This implies that they have to vary their method of teaching to meet different learning styles such as visual, auditory, and kinesthetic type of learners. This would enable teachers adapt materials for teaching and design appropriate activities which make VISs actively involved in the lesson. Teachers should also be taught how to teach four language skills based on their level of difficulty, how to assess blind students' work and give feedback by being exposed to appropriate medium of communication. Teachers should consider VISs when designing activities in a syllabus to increase their involvement in the lesson.

Second, based on the challenges identified in the process of learning English in addressing the needs of VIP, the following recommendations could be made:

1) Providing appropriate materials by transforming texts books and other supplementary materials into Braille, designing a project to get recording materials such as tapes, cassettes, CDs and Braille.

2) Search for budget allocations or funding to run inclusive program in a better way since schools are deficient on this, this require joint effort from government bodies which support VIP and schools which run inclusive program.

3) Create better opportunities for VI students: VI students had a lot of problems which require special concern and actions.

In the light of these, the following were reflected by participants as a priority:

- Make teachers and other students aware of the needs of VISs.

Present some lessons using alternative ways instead of pictures, diagrams and symbols.

- Give attention to group work in the class. VISs prefer to sit at least with one student who could support them by reading the notes written by the teacher on the board, the reading passage and exercises from the textbook.
- Assign responsible person during tests and exams to read questions and write answers effectively and give extra time while they are taking exams.
- Set exam questions in a form that will be unbiased to VISs.
- Say out every word the teacher puts on the board.
- Make textbooks, handouts, and other materials available in an appropriate form (e.g., regular print, large print, Braille, or cassette).
- Consider alternative activities/exercises that can be utilized with less difficulty by the student, but has the same or similar learning objectives.

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INTEGRATING TEACHING AND DYNAMIC ASSESSMENT: AN EXPERIMENTAL RESEARCH ON DEVELOPING WRITING SKILL OF IRANIAN PRE-INTERMEDIATE EFL LEARNERS

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ABSTRACT
THE PRESENT STUDY WAS AN ATTEMPT TO INVESTIGATE THE IMPACT OF DYNAMIC ASSESSMENT EXPLOITATION ON THE WRITING SKILL OF IRANIAN PRE-INTERMEDIATE EFL LEARNERS. TO DO SO, A QUASI-EXPERIMENTAL STUDY WAS DESIGNED IN WHICH 33 PARTICIPANTS AT PRE-INTERMEDIATE LEVEL IN KISH LANGUAGE INSTITUTE IN TEHRAN, IRAN WHO WERE SELECTED FROM AMONG 46 STUDENTS FOLLOWING THE RESULTS OF A STANDARD NELSON PROFICIENCY TEST TOOK PART. TWO PRE-INTERMEDIATE CLASSES WERE RANDOMLY SELECTED TO SERVE AS THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP AND ANOTHER TWO ONES WERE CONSIDERED AS THE CONTROL GROUP. A PRE-TEST OF TOEFL IBT WRITING WAS ADMINISTERED TO SEE IF THE LEARNERS ENJOYED HOMOGENEITY IN TERMS OF THEIR FAMILIARITY WITH WRITING SKILL PRIOR TO THE TREATMENT INITIATION. THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP DEALT WITH DYNAMIC ASSESSMENT (DA) PROCESS OF SECOND LANGUAGE WRITING WHILE THE CONTROL GROUP WENT THROUGH THE COMMUNICATIVE APPROACH THE COURSE BOOK SUGGESTED. FOLLOWING TEN SESSIONS OF INSTRUCTIONS A POSTTEST OF TOEFL IBT WAS ADMINISTERED TO THE LEARNERS OF BOTH GROUPS. THE RESULTS REVEALED THAT THE PARTICIPANTS BENEFITING FROM DA HIGHLY OUTPERFORMED THE PARTICIPANTS RECEIVING NON-DYNAMIC ASSESSMENT (NDA) IN THEIR POST-WRITING TASK. MOREOVER, THE ANALYSIS OF THE FINDINGS REVEALED THAT PARTICIPANTS RECEIVING DA HAD MADE PROGRESS TO THE SAME DEGREE. FURTHERMORE, THE RESULTS OF THE STUDY SUPPORTED THAT INTERVENTION DID NOT PLAY A SIGNIFICANT ROLE IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF LEARNERS' WRITING SKILL. EFL LEARNERS NEED TO GET ACQUAINTED WITH DYNAMIC ASSESSMENT FOR A BETTER, NATIVE-LIKE, MORE APPROPRIATE PERFORMANCE. THE STUDY FINDINGS COULD BE EMPLOYED BY A VARIETY OF ELT COMMUNITY MEMBERS IN IRANIAN SCHOOLS AND LANGUAGE INSTITUTES: MATERIALS DEVELOPERS, FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHERS, AND EDUCATIONAL POLICY MAKERS.

KEYWORDS: DYNAMIC ASSESSMENT (DA), NON-DYNAMIC ASSESSMENT (NDA), PROCESS GENRE APPROACH, ZONE OF PROXIMAL DEVELOPMENT (ZPD)

1.1 Introduction

Like the history of any other discipline, history of writing studies has witnessed a cyclical pattern which exists in all provisional but valuable mankind advancements. Raimes (1991, as cited in Murphy, 2015) explicated the history of L2 writing movements as emerging traditions representing overlapping

recognitions which were by no means new methodologies, but some movements which come into operation or go back and take inconspicuous positions as a result of the new findings in the interdisciplinary fields of study. Put simply, those movements are the diverse components of writing and different scholastic views toward the writing itself which provide the basis for the existing writing approaches. The most famous approaches to writing are process-oriented pedagogy, product-oriented pedagogy, genre-oriented pedagogy, post-process movement, and finally process genre approach.

With the aim of integrating teaching and instruction into a monistic reality and ensuring the successful performance of learners beyond the task at hand, dynamic assessment came into being to revolutionize educational psychology. Having received appropriate assistance, learners are expected to implement the newly-learnt materials in solving novel problems (Poehner & Lantolf, 2010). In fact, through dynamic assessment the educators uncover individuals ZPD and thereby predict their potential for growth. Heretofore, most Iranian schools and language institutes adhered to the assessment procedures lagging the teaching process for rather a long time. This type of assessment which was for the most part in the form of midterm and final exams was prescribed by the predetermined curriculum so that it could not play any supplementary role in the teaching and learning process and did not reflect the real achievements and potential abilities of the students. In fact, segregation of teaching and assessment induced negligence of learners' needs and program's shortcomings. The present study was an attempt to investigate the impact of dynamic assessment exploitation on the writing skill of Iranian pre-intermediate EFL learners.

1.2 Literature Review

Tobin (2001), as one of the proponents of the process movement, adhered that process approaches came into being in the late 1960s and early 1970s as a reaction to product-oriented movement. The traditional movement, namely product writing, was basically centered on the learning modes of discourse and implementing the already learnt materials in writing essays on the given topics. These writings were scored without offering any feedback on various aspects of writing task. At that point process pedagogy came up against viewing teaching writing as a product. Process approach, hence, accentuated the importance of learners' voice, their free choice of topic selection, providing teacher and peer feedback, and revision of the breakdowns in the first draft. In fact, process pedagogy highlighted those facets of learners' writings which were previously taken for granted (Matsuda, 2003).

In late 1980s a new wave of theories of process writing came into place. Borrowing from Berlin (1984, as cited in Matsuda, 2003), Faigley (1986, as cited in Matsuda, 2003) presented two key theories of process, that is, *expressive* and *cognitive views* and adjoined a third view of his own, the *social view*. The emergence of these taxonomies suggested the unsuccessfulness of some versions of process pedagogy or at least displayed their lack of productivity in the ways they were co-opted and put into practice (Matsuda, 2003). Though process models have stimulated considerable interest in teachers and practitioners all over the world, some scholars have casted doubt over the pedagogical efficacy of these models on the grounds of their central tenets. Process approaches are considered to be too much individualistic, inner-directed, ego-centric, and self-regulated that lead to the production of texts which are contextually, or socio-culturally inadequate (Hyland, 2003).

Then genre approaches offering a well-founded, socio-culturally informed theories come into play to make up for the potential pitfalls that may come across as a result of lack of genre-awareness (Hyland, 2003). Henceforth mid-1980s, keen interest has been evinced toward genre approaches and three leading schools of genre have been introduced (Hyon, 1996). According to Hyon (1996), "the first school in genre pedagogy is the *North American New Rhetoric* forming under the influence of post-structuralist movement and accentuating the role of situational context and purposes genres serve in those contexts" (p. 696). Next, is *ESP Approach* which is more formally-oriented rather than functionally-concerned. The third school is the *Australian Systemic-functional School*, also known as *Sydney School,* which views genre as a component of a complicated semiotic system through which meaning is conveyed (Hyon, 1996).

The proposition of the tripartite taxonomies for process pedagogy suggested its vulnerability to criticism. While, some theorists of process arrived at a third orientation of process (i.e., social orientation) other theorists like Trimbur (1994, as cited in Hyman, 2015) consider process approach devoid of social perspective. Trimbur (1994, as cited in Hyman, 2015) employed the term *post-process* as a mutation from cognitive views toward compositions of broader social views. As a matter of fact, the post-process or post-cognitivist theory is a cultural activity through which "writers position and reposition themselves in relation to their own and others' subjectivities, discourses, practices, and institutions" (Trimbur, 1994, p. 109, as cited in Murphy, 2015). Mc Comiskey (2000) has attempted to define post-process as the continuation of process movement not as the rejection of process approach.

With the intention of directing learners' writings to be considered in a social situation, Badger and White (2000) introduced *Process Genre approach* to composition studies. In an attempt to justify the rather newcomer approach of process genre Badger and White (2000) reasoned that "while genre analysis focuses on the language used in a particular text, we would want to include processes by which writes produce a text reflecting these elements under the term 'process genre'" (p.158). A distinctive feature of process genre approach is *language awareness activities* which pave the grounds for establishing the needed contextual and linguistic knowledge; these language awareness activities might encompass the relevant existing corpus with regard to the given genre (Badger & White, 2000). Badger and White make mention of five stages involved in the application of process genre oriented pedagogy including: situation, purpose, consideration of mode/field/tenor, planning/drafting/ publishing, and text. The combination of the very two approaches and the merging of their stages as supplementary to each other seem to construct a more vigorous instructional tool that can be used more effectively.
To inspect the diverse relationships between writing instruction and assessment, as the title of this study suggests, it should be noted that the leading questions capturing the attention of educators and authorities in any assessment procedure are regarding the purpose(s) for which the assessment takes place and the nature of the decisions made on the basis of the obtained results. These are the aforesaid preoccupations taking the initiative as to what forms of tests to be chosen and what sort of relationship to be defined among learners, teachers, teaching materials, learning, assessment, and instruction. As a long tradition, it has been adhered that utilizing Standardized Achievement Tests (SAT) would yield the most valid and reliable results on students' traits and abilities. Most specialists contend that through gathering information from a representative sample of learners' behavior in a solo-performance one can estimate their repertory of knowledge (Poehner, 2008). Thus, providing support amidst the administration process gives way to gaining faulty image of learners' ability. Nevertheless, this perspective toward intervention has been provoked some discussions by the proponents of interactionist psychology. Vygotsky (1998), the forerunner of social constructivism, maintained that "individuals' solo-performance not only does not cover the whole picture of development, but very frequently encompasses only an insignificant part of it" (p. 200); thus, responsiveness to mediation is unavoidable for discerning learner's true cognitive ability and their future potentials.

Exploring the distinct relationships that may exist between assessment and instruction, Poehner (2008) defined four types of connection between assessment and instruction. The initial form of relationship is referred to as *washback effect* which manifests the impact of testing on teaching and learning. In case of high-stake testing where gatekeeping functions of assessment urges the teachers to teach through the test and learners to learn through the test, this type of relationship is favorable. In contrast with *washback* study Poehner (2008, p. 10) set forth *backwash effect* in which assessment procedure is curricular-driven. That is, instruction is priori to assessment, and assessment is consonant with curricular objectives. Consequently, these are the program objectives which interconnect teaching and testing. The third tie which bonds assessment and instruction together is pedagogical goals. As a result, the assessment and instructional practices are developed post-factum. Poehner (2008) represented task-based framework as an exemplar of such an approach. The authenticity of materials in assessment and instruction allows the prediction of learners' ability beyond their current state. The last perspective regarding the interconnection of assessment and instruction seeks to reconcile these notions in such a way that no

borderlines can be found between them. Most classroom teachers incorporate formative assessment meanwhile their classroom instructions so that they can receive feedback on their teaching and may provide students with proper instruction to get through the tasks attentively (Ellis, 2003).

Dynamic assessment has revolutionize educational psychology as it has tried to integrate teaching and instruction into a monistic reality through which it is best likely to ensure the successful performance of learners. It is expected that learners implement the newly-learnt materials in solving novel problems (Poehner & Lantolf, 2010). In fact, through dynamic assessment the educators uncover individuals ZPD and thereby predict their potential for growth. Heretofore, most Iranian schools and language institutes adhered to the assessment procedures lagging the teaching process for rather a long time. This type of assessment which was for the most part in the form of midterm and final exams was prescribed by the predetermined curriculum so that it could not play any supplementary role in the teaching and learning process and did not reflect the real achievements and potential abilities of the students. In fact, segregation of teaching and assessment induced negligence of learners' needs and program's shortcomings.

Nowadays, many scholars believe that existing gaps regarding EFL and ESL education can be bridged and tackled through the integration of teaching and assessment. Hence, this study attempts at delineating the impact of teaching and assessment integration on the writing skill of Iranian EFL learners at pre-intermediate level, to see whether dynamic assessment is conducive to the development of learners' writing skill or not. Despite the long-standing history and the exhaustive literature for DA in general education, it is still in its early years in EFL and ESL domains. Most of the researches that have been conducted or are in progress in EFL and ESL, particularly in Iran, focus on reading, speaking, and listening skills and perhaps less attention was confined on writing studies. Thus, the present research seeks to shed light on the impact of dynamic assessment exploitation on the writing skill of pre-intermediate learners. Based on the purpose of the study the following research questions were raised:

1. Do the participants benefiting from (Dynamic Assessment) DA out-perform the participants receiving Non-Dynamic Assessment (NDA) in their post- writing task?
2. Do all the participants receiving DA make progress to the same degree?
3. Is there any relationship between learners' language proficiency level and their need for intervention?

1.3 Method

Design

By virtue of the existing conditions, the research design utilized in this study is the quasi-experimental design and more specifically the pretest-posttest nonequivalent-groups design. Pre-test, treatment, and post-test were employed in the present research and the data obtained were analyzed via SPSS version 19. The learners' intervention and its effect on their writing development was recorded by the teacher in each and every session of the classroom.

Participants

The participants of the present study were selected from among the 46 teenager, EFL students at pre-intermediate level of Kish Language School at Tehran in the summer of 2011. Kish Language School runs EFL classes with communicative orientation for teenage learners at four basic levels, i.e., starter, elementary, pre-intermediate, and intermediate. These levels each consists of five sublevels during which one course book is covered. The recent study was undertaken on the first pre-intermediate level learners whose ages ranged from 13 to 17. The researcher, who also served as the teacher of these participants, was compelled to take 4 classes during the two terms of 12-session summer courses to obtain adequate number of participants for accomplishing this research. The participants, all female, took part in these classes with different timings arranged at odd or even days according to their own choice and demands. On account of administrative limitations the type of sampling technique adopted was a convenience sampling. Of the four available classes, which were at the same level based on the placement test,

interview, or the final scores of the learners in the previous semester, two classes were randomly chosen to serve as experimental group receiving DA and the other two were considered as the control group receiving NDA. To homogenize of the learners in both experimental and control groups, at the third session of conducting classes when the number of attendees taking part in each class got fixed, a Nelson proficiency test was administrated. On the basis of the obtained data, the learners with extreme scores were excluded from the study although they were benefiting from the specified instruction and assessment procedures. The rest of the learners, located within one standard deviation below and above the mean served as the actual participants whose performances were under investigation. Finally, the control group included 15 students and the experimental group consisted of 18 learners.

Instruments

The instruments utilized in the study were comprised of a Nelson English Language Test, a pre-test of Writing, a post-test of writing, the TOEFL iBT independent writing scoring rubric, and five TOEFL iBT topics for writing. A copy of Nelson English Language Test was administered to ensure the homogeneity of the learners in experimental and control groups. Test 200 A, from the second book of Nelson English Language Tests developed for intermediate language learners was selected and used as a language proficiency test. This test enabled the researcher to construct somewhat equal groups in terms of language proficiency level and to eliminate the learners with extreme scores from the study and to neutralize the subject selection effect. The proficiency test consisted of two subtests: a comprehension part which required examinees to read a passage and to respond to14 multiple choice questions about the content, and a grammar part which consists of 36 multiple choice items, each with four response options.

The second instrument used in the pre-treatment level was a standard TOEFL iBT pretest of writing. The writings of the learners were corrected employing the inter-rater method. The raters employed the TOEFL iBT independent writing scoring rubric, which is presented in The Official Guide to the TOEFL Test and is developed by ETS (2009) for scoring the test takers independent writing task, for scoring the learners' writings. However, the criteria other than those related to the content and organization of the paragraphs were excluded from the scoring rubric. The results revealed how well the learners were familiar with the concepts of writing before the treatment began. Following the treatment, a post test of writing, which was the same pretest, was administered to the learners of both control and experimental groups. The same inter-rater method was employed to correct the students' papers. However, the criteria other than those related to the content and organization of the paragraphs were excluded from the scoring rubric.

Procedure

Over the two terms of six-week summer classes, 33 participants who were selected from among 46 students following the results of a NELSON proficiency test took part in the study. All the participants were at pre-intermediate level in Kish language Institute in Tehran. Two intermediate classes were randomly selected to serve as the experimental group and another two ones were considered as the control group. At the third session when the number of students attending each class got fixed, a Nelson language test was administered to the learners to ensure the homogeneity of the two groups. Consequently, the learners within one standard deviation (1SD) below and above the mean served as the main participants of this research. During the fourth session of the EFL course, the students were asked to write one paragraph on the first TOEFL iBT topic. This writing being the pre-test task gave an account of the learners' ability before receiving any instruction. At the fifth session of the 2:15 hour classes, the prepared materials with regard to content and organization of a paragraph were taught to the learners and two samples were offered to them. Afterwards, the mediator presented the second writing topic to the learners and asked the control group to write about that topic within 20 minutes.

The participants of control group were allowed to use their Persian to English dictionaries to find the appropriate words or phrases; besides, in case of need they could check some of them with the teacher. However, for experimental group the teacher started the writing process by brainstorming and getting

the students to generate ideas and make a kind of map on the board. During the five minutes of brainstorming the learners could give their suggestions in Persian or check the unknown words and phrases from their Persian to English dictionaries. Next the teacher asked the learners of experimental group to make an outline of the two or three ideas they have chosen to write as their supporting sentences. Then, they initiated their first draft of writing; meanwhile, they could verbalize their problems to the mediator to tackle them in a dialogue. Having finished their writings within 15 minutes, the learners were asked to check their peers' writings and come up with constructive suggestions concerning the content and organization of each other's paragraph. Once more the learners could get the mediator to mediate with the suggestions made on their writings. Sometimes, the mediator decided to solve the learners' problems in front of the whole class so that not only could the learners, through secondary interactions, contribute to ameliorating their friend's writing, but they could also indirectly solve some of their uprising problems.

Finally, the learners wrote their second drafts and submitted them to the mediator. The mediator wrote some feedback in the learners' final drafts and asked them to review the guidelines. Consistent with the frequency of the occurrence of some problems, the teacher made mention of them in the following session with the entire class and asked for individuals' accounts for improving the texts. In the following session, the learners of control group received their scored writings devoid of any feedback. In turn the students were asked to explain what they learned about writing in front of the entire class so that the major points respective to content and organization of paragraphs were reviewed concurrently the teacher completed their explanations without pinpointing their problems expressly. The same procedure was repeated at the seventh and ninth sessions of the class for both groups. Eventually, at the eleventh session the last TOEFL iBT topic was offered to the learners of both groups. During the administration procedure no feedback was proffered to the learners of experimental group, for this task served as the post-test for both groups. Nonetheless, all learners were allowed to employ their Persian to English dictionaries the same way that they did during their pre-test.

Data Analyses

Firstly, the assumption of normality was empirically tested through the ratios of skewness and kurtosis over their respective standard errors. Then an independent t-test was run to compare the mean scores of the experimental and control groups on the pretest of writing task in order to prove that both groups were homogenous in terms of their writing ability prior to the treatment. Another independent t-test was run to compare the mean scores of the experimental and control groups on the posttest of writing task in order to probe if the participants benefiting from (Dynamic Assessment) DA outperform the participants receiving non-dynamic assessment (NDA) in their post- writing task. In order to establish the reliability of the scores given to each of learners' writings, three raters rated the individuals' tasks according to the TOEFL iBT independent writing rubric, then scored them in a table provided by the researcher for the same purpose. The researcher examined the homogeneity of the ratings through the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient.

1.4 Results

Normality Tests

In order to analyze any sets of data through parametric tests, four assumptions of interval data, independence of subjects, normality and homogeneity of variances should be met. The present data are measured on an interval scale (scores) and the subjects are independent, i.e. none of them participate in more than one group. The assumption of normality is empirically tested through the ratios of skewness and kurtosis over their respective standard errors. As displayed in Table 1, these ratios are all within the ranges of +/- 1.96, thus the present data do not show any marked deviations from normal distribution.

Table 1

Normality Tests

	N	Skewness			Kurtosis		
	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Normality	Statistic	Std. Error	Normality
Pretest	18	.376	.536	.70	-1.006	1.038	-.96
Posttest	18	.126	.536	.23	-1.548	1.038	-1.49

The assumption of homogeneity of variances will be discussed when reporting the results of the independent t-tests.

Pretest

An independent t-test is run to compare the mean scores of the experimental and control groups on the pretest of writing task in order to prove that both groups were homogenous in terms of their writing ability prior to the administration of the Dynamic Assessment to the former group.

As displayed in Table 2, the mean scores for the experimental and control groups on the pretest of writing task are 2.52 and 2.75 respectively.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics Pretest of Writing Task

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Control	15	2.75	.326	.084
Experimental	18	2.52	.428	.101

The results of the independent t-test (Table 3) indicates that there was not any significant difference between the mean scores for the experimental and control groups on the pretest of writing task (t (31) = 1.68, P = .101 > .05). Thus, it can be concluded that the experimental and control groups were homogenous in terms of their writing ability prior to the administration of the Dynamic Assessment to the former group.

Table 3

Independent t-test Pretest of Writing Task by Groups

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	2.821	.103	1.68	31	.101	.22	.13	-.04	.50
Equal variances not assumed			1.73	30.78	.094	.22	.13	-.04	.49

Research Question 1

As displayed in Table 4, the mean scores for the experimental and control groups on the posttest of writing task are 3.83 and 3.22 respectively.

Table 4
Descriptive Statistics Posttest of Writing Task

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Experimental	18	3.22	.46	.11
Control	15	3.83	.57	.13

The results of the independent t-test (Table 6) indicates that there was a significant difference between the mean scores for the experimental and control groups on the posttest of writing task (t (31) = 3.32, P = .002< .05). Thus the first null-hypothesis as the participants benefiting from (Dynamic Assessment) DA do not outperform the participants receiving non-dynamic assessment (NDA) in their post- writing task was rejected.

Table 5
Independent t-test Posttest of Writing Task by Groups

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	2.95	.096	3.32	31	.002	.61	.18	.23	.98
Equal variances not assumed			3.38	30.97	.002	.61	.18	.24	.97

Research Question 2
All of the participants receiving DA make progress to the same degree. The highest improvement belongs to 14th and 7th cases and the lowest improvements belong to the 11th and 6th cases that showed .33 and .67 units increase in their scores (Table 6).

Table 6
Improvement of Scores (From Posttest to Pretest)

ID	Gained-Score	ID	Gained-Score	ID	Gained-Score	ID	Gained-Score	ID	Gained-Score	ID	Gained-Score
1	1.50	4	1.50	7	2.33	10	1.67	13	1.33	16	1.00
2	1.50	5	1.50	8	1.00	11	.33	14	2.50	17	1.00
3	1.00	6	.67	9	1.50	12	1.00	15	1.00	18	1.17

Research Question 3
The DA students are divided into two proficiency levels of high and low based on their median score. The proficiency test shows an almost normal distribution. The values of mean (25.61), median (26) and mode (26) are fairly close.
Table 7
Mean, Mode and Median Scores Proficiency

Mean	25.61
Median	26.00
Mode	26.00

After dividing the DA group into two groups of high and low proficiency, an analysis of chi-square was run to compare the number of interventions they had. Based on the results (x (1) = .27, P = .60 > .05) (Table 8), it was concluded that there is not any significant difference between the numbers of interventions high and low proficiency groups had. Thus the second null-hypothesis as there is not any significant difference between learners' language proficiency level and their need for intervention was supported.

Table 8
Analysis of Chi-Square Intervention by Proficiency Levels

	PROFLEVEL
Chi-Square	.275[a]
Df	1
Sig	.600

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 45.5.

As displayed in Table 9, the low proficiency DA students need more intervention than the high proficient students however the difference is not large enough to reject the null-hypothesis.

Table 9
Observed, Expected and Residual Values

	Observed N	Expected N	Residual
HIGH	43	45.5	-2.5
LOW	48	45.5	2.5
Total	91		

The inter-rater reliability indices for the three raters who rated the students writing tasks on pretest and posttest are .74 and .88 (Table 10).

Table 10
Inter-Rater Reliability

	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Raters
Pretest	.747	3
Posttest	.887	3

1.5 Discussions and Conclusion

Firstly, rejection of the first hypothesis of the study revealed that the participants benefiting from (Dynamic Assessment) DA highly outperformed the participants receiving non-dynamic assessment (NDA) in their post- writing task. This means that DA could be considered valuable in terms of helping the learners improve their abilities in second language writing, even in a short period. This is in line with the findings of the previous research done in the DA domain (Ableeva, 2010; Poehner, 2005). The present findings are also supported by the recent approaches to academic writing instruction which have necessitated testing procedures that deal with both the process and the product of writing (Connor-Linton 1995; Upshur & Turner 1995). It is generally accepted by teachers and researchers that there are

two main goals of testing: first, to provide feedback during the process of acquiring writing proficiency (also referred to as assessing), and second, to assign a score that will indicate the level of the written product (also referred to as evaluating). DA is able to provide the teachers with both of them and could be helpful for the learners to get aware of their status of improvement in an ongoing process. As Bachman and Palmer (2010) implied, assessment presents an ongoing process based approach towards evaluation while testing mostly refers to the numerical, quantitative views of evaluation. This finding also is in line with that of Leung (2007) who has given priority to the presence of assessment to testing and has proposed that DA can have long lasting effect on the learners' development in the second language skills. The findings of the present study, however is against the discrete point testing and highly psychometric perspective of language testing which mainly rely on the summative, numerical, and quantitative view of evaluating the second language performance

Secondly, the next hypothesis was of a descriptive nature and proposed if the learners exposed to dynamic assessment (DA) could have benefitted the same following the instruction based on these results it can be concluded that all the participants receiving DA have made progress to the same degree although these improvements range from a low of 1 up to a high of 5. This finding is in line with the general perspective in DA (Ableeva, 2010; Poehner, 2005), meanwhile it is not in line with the concept of individual differences and the fact that anybody may have his/her own way of development affected by a lot of factors such as personality, social, psychological, and the like (Brown, 2005). It seems that the learners taking part in the study have been highly affected by the DA process as the improvement in their writing skill has been highly in the same boat and they have had similar progress.

The third hypothesis of the study was supported on the ground that there was not any significant difference between the numbers of interventions high and low proficiency groups had. This means that intervention did not play a significant role in the development of learners' writing skill. This is not in line with what had been previously recorded in the literature. Lantolf & Poehner (2004) stressed the role of intervention in the development of both first and second languages. Dostal (2011) discussed that intervention plays a significant role in the development of both first and second languages. The learners in the present study, however, seem to be less benefitted from the positive role intervention could play in the development of writing in the second language they have been learning. The reason might back to the learners' lack of attention to the immediate environment and to what the teacher has presented. The findings revealed that employing dynamic assessment (DA) could highly increase the learner familiarity with writing model, correctness, wording, diction, grammar, pragmatics, and the like. The findings also revealed that via employing DA all the learners go through a process of betterment in their SL writing. The findings of the present study were also found to be in line with the previous findings in the ESL context and some studies done in the EFL context; Moreover, the results of this study can assist the teachers and instructors as how to teach and assess students' writings to make the most of their language classes.

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MJLTM

FACE THREATENING ACT AMONG IRANIAN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL EFL LEARNERS WRITING PERFORMANCE ACROSS GENDER

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ABSTRACT
THE PRESENT STUDY AIMED TO INVESTIGATE FACE THREATENING ACTS FOUND IN IRANIAN MALE AND FEMALE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL EFL LEARNERS' WRITING PERFORMANCE. TO THIS END, 77 MALE AND FEMALE HIGH SCHOOL EFL STUDENTS WERE CHOSEN AS THE PARTICIPANTS. IN ORDER TO INVESTIGATE FTAS IN THE PRODUCTION OF WRITTEN REQUESTS; THE PARTICIPANTS IN THREE GROUPS WERE REQUIRED TO COMPLETE CONVERSATIONS. THE RESPONSES OF THE STUDENTS COMPARED WITH BROWN AND LEVIN SON'S POLITENESS STRATEGIES. THIS STUDY ENJOYED MIXED METHODS APPROACH. FIRST, A RELIABLE KET TEST WAS ADMINISTERED IN ORDER TO HOMOGENIZE THE PARTICIPANTS, AND THEN THE NUMBER OF FTAS WAS COUNTED AND CLASSIFIED INTO NEGATIVE AND POSITIVE FTAS USING BROWN AND LEVINSON'S MODEL. IN THE SECOND PHASE, THE FEATURES OF POLITENESS STRATEGIES APPEARED IN THE EXAMINED TEXTS WERE ANALYZED BY USING JOHNSON' (1992) MODEL. WRITTEN TEXTS WERE EVALUATED IN TERMS OF POLITENESS STRATEGIES ON FIVE-POINT LIKERT SCALE. THE FINDINGS OF THIS STUDY REVEALED THAT MALE EFL LEARNERS WERE MORE POLITE THAN FEMALE STUDENTS. FURTHERMORE, FINDINGS SHOWED THAT THE MORE THE NUMBER OF NEGATIVE POLITENESS STRATEGIES WAS USED, THE MORE THE NUMBER OF FACE-THREATENING ACTS WAS EMPLOYED. FINDINGS ALSO REVEALED THAT AN INCREASE IN THE PROFICIENCY LEVEL OF THE LEARNERS WOULD LEAD TO THE USE OF APPROPRIATE POLITENESS STRATEGIES.

KEYWORDS: FACE THREATENING ACTS; CONVERSATIONAL WRITING; GENDER; EFL LEARNERS.

1. Introduction

In social interaction, people often perform acts which may be said to 'threaten' the face wants of both speaker/writers and hearers/reader and such acts are called face threatening acts (hence FTAs). Such acts intrinsically threaten face or, in Brown and Levin son's (1987, p.65) words, 'run contrary to the face wants of the addressee and/or of the speaker. Brown and Levinson postulate the existence of strategies to minimize such FTAs and to protect the reciprocal vulnerability of face. The choice of a

strategy depends on the context of communication, the social connections of the speakers and the amount of imposition which the FTAs entail. Since the emotional effects of losing one's face can be strong, people often engage in face saving strategies.

Human As the part of society cannot live without having an interaction with each other. Politeness here gives very significant portion in communication. Politeness shows people how to keep the behavior in conversation to avoid the encounter that may happen between both parties. The related study regard with politeness as FTA (Face Threatening Act). It is a study that learns about positive and negative faces for being threatened. The application of politeness strategy will redress the FTA towards the addressee. (Yule, 1996, p. 34)

The concept of politeness strategies developed by Brown and Levinson (1987) is adapted from the notion of "face" introduced by a sociologist named Erving Goffman (1955). Face is a vision of self-image in the social features. In other words, the face could mean pride, amour-propre, and public self-image. According to Goffman (1955), each participant has two requirements in every social process: namely the need to be foreordained and needed to be free. Renkema (1993) states that:

The first need is called positive face, while the latter is negative face. Face Threatening Act (FTA) intensity is expressed by weight (W), which includes three social parameters: First, the degree of disturbance or rate of imposition (R), in terms of absolute weight of a particular action in a particular culture.

For example, the request "May I borrow your car?" has different weights from the request "May I borrow your pen?"

The second and third social parameters include the social distance (D) between the speaker/writer and the hearer / reader, and authority or power (P) owned by interlocutors (Renkema, 1993, p. 14).

FTA threatens the solidity of the severity of communication; politeness in this case can be perceived as an effort to impede and or repair damage(s) caused by the FTA. The greater the threat to resistance, the more politeness, face work technique, is necessary. Face work with the purpose of positive face is called "solidarity politeness", while, face works that considers negative face is known as "respect politeness" (Renkema 1993, p. 13). As states that One's face also has to be supported by other people. Therefore, people know something about an individual and that person tries to show them something else his or her face will be violated through inconsistency.

By looking at the studies carried out concerning speaking and also by considering the concept of politeness and FTA that has received a lot of attention in modern education , the researcher discovered an urgent need to compare the concepts of FTA and gender and find out how relating they are in conversational writing . There have been very few studies in this regard addressing issue related to FTA in EFL learners particularly in Iran context. This need made the researcher to carry out this study and uncover the relationships among Face threatening act, gender and proficiency level in writing.

In analyzing the students' writing performance there are some problems that are going to be formulated to utilize the politeness strategies applied to writing:

a. What types of FTA will be used in students writing?

b. What kind of face threatening act most frequently appeared in students' writing?

2. Review of the Related Literature

Due to the importance of writing in second language and the impact of FTA on learners' success in L2 and a dearth of studies in these areas, it seems necessary to investigate the relationship between the notions of face threatening act and writing success in an EFL context like Iran. Thus, this study aims at investigating the relationship between FTA and EFL learners' writing performance across gender. We first need to find out what learners have already known and what they have not and what proves to be difficult. On the other hand, this study might heighten learners' awareness of politeness strategy use in writing realization so as to help them achieve a better performance in writing communication.

Furthermore, EFL Students write only in order to practice grammar at sentence level and to getting high scores on traditional tests. Therefore, when they are asked to write, they face with many problems in conveying what they want to say: selecting proper words, using correct grammar, generating idea. Importantly they have used an acceptable writing format that conforms to a target language and society, so it will be very vital for the EFL students to grasp the whole knowledge of writing and follow face threatening at writing. EFL students are taught how to write sentences from very beginning.

Ellis, (1994) examined the elicited English writing conversation data of using politeness strategies in one class and the researcher compared them with handling face threatening with another class in their conversation based writing. Requests and refusals were chosen as the subjects of study for several reasons:

First, both requests and refusals were highly representative of face-threatening acts. Speakers were conventionally expected to do face work to reduce the face-threatening force. Second, they were highly sensitive to contextual variables like imposition, power and social distance. Speakers had to take account of these contextual variables in order to ensure that social relations between the speakers were not endangered (Ellis, 1994).Third, the realizations of these two speech acts are largely culture-specific (Liao, 1996; Zhang & Wang, 1999).

Research questions & Hypotheses

RQ1: What types of politeness strategies were employed by these two groups which soften the impact of the inherent face threatening?

RQ2: What types of face threatening act mostly appear in students' writing?

In relation to the concept of face, Brown and Levinson (1987, as cite in Keykhayee, M. 2013) introduce the term FTA, a face-threatening act, which sometimes cannot be avoided. In fact, the purpose of politeness is to soften face-threatening acts because it is in everyone's mutual interest to do so (Brown and Levin son, 1987). A face threatening act is a speech act that can damage the hearer's positive or negative face (Brown and Levin son, 1987). Threats to a negative face are actions by which a person indicates that they do not intend to avoid impending one's freedom of action. Examples of these are orders, advice, and warnings. Threats to a positive face are actions which indicate that a person does not care about the addressee's feelings or wants. Examples of these are criticism, disagreements, and mention of taboo topics.

Brown and Levinson(1987) statesour face lies in the eyes of others ,This process of maintaining face is important with considering politeness theory as the assumption of the theory is that one will manipulate face threatening acts in an attempt to save both parties' faces. Brown and Levinson (1987) also assumed that the greater the interval between parties, the power of the receiver, or the degree inflicted by the act, the greater the force of the FTA. Brown and Levinson (1987) claimed when the risk of an FTA is great, speakers/writer will generally use more Negative Politeness strategies (p.91).

Unlike Leech's model, their model offers the two aspects of face as desires and incentives not norms and rules. In their view, face can be deviated; preserved or increased hereupon speakers must be vigilant of any possible threat to face. Certain speech can threaten either negative or positive face. B&L (1987) as cited in (Getkham, 2013) call these utterances "Face Threatening Acts" (FTAs) Threats to a negative face are actions by which a person demonstrate that they do not want to avoid impeding one's freedom of action. To decrease these threats, B&L suggested politeness strategies to eschew these FTA including positive politeness, negative politeness, and off record approaches (p. 70). As noted before, when interacting with addressees, addressers should apply positive politeness strategies including claiming joint contexts, showing that writers and readers are collaborators, and fulfill addressee's wants. To show that writers and readers are cooperators, the writer may betoken knowledge of the reader's wants and should include the reader in the activities.

Spencer-Oatey (2005) identified that impassibility to behavioral expectation, face, and interactional goals, triggers conflict in establishing rapport.

As Yule (2006) stated in Muh. Shohibussirri (2001) thesis, if a speaker uses the direct speech act to ask hearer to do something, the speakers are behaving as if he has more social power than hearer. However, if the speaker in the reality hasn't the power, then the speaker is performing a FTA. Whenever the participants of communication says something that lessens the possible threat to another's face, it is face saving act.

Brown, Penelope and Levinson (1992) as cited in Muh. Shohibussirri, (2001), there are many act of FTA base on brown and Levinson politeness theories. It can be classified as followed:

a. Act indicates that writer (w) doesn't intend to avoid impeding freedom of action of or addressee. Those acts threaten negative face of reader(R). Those acts are:

A.1 act predicate some future act of reader. Therefore the writer puts some pressure on address to do act. Those acts are: (a) order and request, (b) suggestion and advice, (c) reminding, (d) threat – warning and dares.
a.2 acts predicate some positive future act of W toward R . Therefore, the speaker put some pressure on R to accept or reject them. Those acts are: (a) offers, (b) promises.
a.3 act predicate some W's desire toward R there
Action to protect the object of W's tendency, or give it to W:
a. Compliment, expression of envy and admiration (W show that he likes R's possession)
b. Expression of strong emotion to R such as showing hatred, anger)
B. Acts indicate that writer doesn't care about the feeling and wants of reader. Those acts threaten the positive face of addressee. Those are:
a) Expression of rejection, scandal, criticism, complaints, contempt.
b) Contradiction and challenges.
c) Expression showing out of control emotion.
d) Taboo topics, including acts that are inappropriate in the context of conversation.
e) Bringing bad news about R and good news (boasting) about W.
f) Talking about emotional or divisive topics (such as problem of politics, religion conflicts)
g) Using address terms marked recognition of reader in initial encounters.
C. Acts offend W negative face . Those acts are:
a) Expressing thanks (W accept a debt, humbles his own face)
b) Acceptance of R's thanks or R's apology.
c) Excuse.
d) Acceptance of offers (the reason is that W feels constrained to accept a debt).
e) Responses to faux pass of R.
f) Unwilling promises and offer.
D . Acts directly damage W's positive face. Those acts are:
a) Apologies (the reason is that s indicates his regret in a prior FTA)
b) Acceptance of compliment (the reason is that W feels constrain to denigrate the object of H's prior compliment, thus damaging his own face).
c) Stumbling and falling down (it is the physical sign of FTA. most of FTA are in the form of utterance).
d) Confession and Confession of guilt or responsibility of guilt or responsibility.
e) Emotion leakage and non-control of laughter and tears.

It is necessary to mention 'a face-threatening act' to differentiate between, and the concepts of, face-saving and face threatening acts, at this conjunction. A face saving act is an act which avoids a potential threat to a person's self-image while a face-threatening act represents an expert ion that is as a threat to another individual's expectation regarding self-image. Incorporating of face into the explanation of the politeness types, Yule, (1996: 62) as cited in Babatunde, S. T. and Adedimeji, M. A. (2008) offers us a good summary:

So, a face-saving act which is oriented to the person's negative face will tend to show respect, corroborate the significance of the other's time and concerns, and even comprise an apologize for the interruption. This is also negative politeness. A face saving act will tend to show solidarity, corroborate that both speakers want the same thing, and they have a common goal. This is also called positive politeness (p. 62).

Sometimes ,there is a need (FTAs) is unavoidable , so the speaker has to be polite to balance the threat using a redressed action to maintain a higher degree of independence from infliction going forwards to the negative politeness (Gibson 2008) as cited in Waffa(2010). Using negative politeness, make the question easier to be rejected by the hearer. The positive politeness can diminish the threat to its minimum by preparing a suitable domain for comradeship relationship. The speech act of disagreement is face threatening act (FTA) when the speaker ignores the social values of the speaking and this can be cause a communication breakdown (Niroomand , 2011, p.205) .

According to Zhu (2004) consciousness-raising and systematic instruction should be adopted to ameliorate the pragmatic competence of Chinese college EFL learners, particularly their capacity to choose fit politeness strategies in speech act performance.

The number of participants is also intended important, especially in regards to the potential for face threats to be intensified by the presence of a larger number of addressees (Spencer-Oatey, 2008). The second and third variables granted by Spencer-Oatey (2008: 37) are the benefits related to particular message content, and the social roles of participants.

As indicated, in some speech acts, such as refusals, can inherently threaten the speaker's and the hearer's face, thus are termed as "face-threatening speech acts" (FTAs). Refusal is a face-threatening act to the requestor in relationship, because it disagree his or her expectations. It occurs when a speaker directly or indirectly says "No" to an invitation. (Zhang, 2012).

Furthermore, Arndt (2003) illustrated that preserving relationship and abstinence of conflicts are rooted in the human needs by doing the politeness. In line with Ungureanu (2004) as cited in Aulia, K., Sujatna, E. T.S., & Citraresmana, E (2013) who argues that we are usually trying to avoid wrecking face, by regulate our choice of words in order to protect the interlocutors from discomfort. It means, the use of politeness strategies is expected to minimize the face threatening acts and succeed the purpose of speaker's utterances. As what Coulmas (2005:86) says that "the concept of 'politeness is socially specified. It is pertaining to social differentiations, with making appropriate choices which are not the same for all interlocutors".

Therefore, each person chooses a strategy based on the impressment of the face threatening act. The speaker evaluates the social condition and hereon chooses a method. According to Brown and Levin son, some factors are important in this selection process: degree of imposition, power relation and social distance.

The degree of imposition of face threatening act defined as "a culturally and situation ally defined ranking of impositions by the degree to which they are considered to interfere with an agent's wants of self-determination or of approval, is evaluated by the writer (p. 77). Some impositions are more than others. The relative power of the hearer over the speaker, defined as "the degree to which the hearer can impose his own plans and his own self-evaluation (face) at the expense of the speaker's self-evaluation" is considered by the speaker (p. 77). In a given situation the writer write differently with those who are socially similar to him and those with higher or lower status.

Roberts (1992) exposed that, risk encounter confirm with politeness theory. However, Mackiewicz (1999) asserted that tutor used a range of politeness strategies to soften threats to both positive and negative face. Babatunde, S. T. and Adedimeji, M. A. (2008) in a quantitative study maintained that a harmonious and peaceful co-existence is predicated on observing others' face wants by upholding the Leechian Politeness Principles (PP) and avoiding Face Threatening Acts (FTAs) in everyday linguistic intercourse.

In this sense Gil (2012) has argued face-threatening speech acts and face-invading speech acts. He found the hypothesis was that every single thing we say affects the speaker's and the hearer's face does not only seem to be probable, but it also accounts for one of those aspects underlying verbal interaction.

Farahaniand Molkizadeh (2013) in a descriptive study investigated the application of politeness strategies in disagreement by Iranian Advanced EFL learners. The results revealed that gender is not a determining factor for being polite.

Face-threatening acts (as cited in Agung. 2014) are acts which in some way threaten the self-esteem of another person. Actually, whether the act is threatening depends on the perception of the listener. Pramana (2014) in a qualitative research argued about face threatening Act and politeness strategies in text messages sent from advisees to their advisors in English Department. He concluded the advisees who used negative politeness specifically gives deference generally told name of the advisors and mention of honorifics of their advisors after greeting.

3. Methodology

The type of this study is descriptive and this method focuses on words and description rather than numbers (Maxwell, 2000).In this thesis, the writer considers it is important to analyze the differences

FTAs used by the males and females EFL learners. So, researcher considers coherence rather than cohesion of the text based on the context. Research with qualitative method is a research relied on verbal and nonverbal numerical data as the basis of analysis and of solving the problem appears. The design used in this work is qualitative, it showed the investigation, and many items being distinguished as verbal politeness selected. Then, the items were further studied the text qualitatively in order to come up with regularities and frequent patterns in the data.

The design used in this work is qualitative and quantitative, it showed the investigation, and many items which were selected being distinguished as verbal politeness. Then, the items have been studied the text qualitatively in order to come up with regularities and frequent patterns in the data.

Participants

77 male and female Iranian EFL learners at intermediate proficiency level participated in this study. Their age ranged from 13 to 15, in three separate intermediate secondary EFL students classes. All these subjects were Iranian learners of English as a foreign language who had received little instruction on pragmatic knowledge in class and had few opportunities to communicate with native speakers outside class.

Instruments

In order to carry out this study, the following materials were used The first one was the KET test a pretest of English; the purpose of pretest was to make sure that the groups were equal at the beginning of the study. The second instrument was conversational writing that students were required to fill the blank spaces of dialog. It was based on Levinson's (1987) model.

Data collection

The first phase, a KET test of English as pretest was administered to all groups, the purpose of pretest was to make sure that the groups were equal at the beginning. After administration of KET, participants based on the results, we mean, one SD above and below the mean of the scores, were selected. The researcher used English school book of students and intentionally add some phrases to assets learner's reaction to the different context. The information taken from the data were the text messages of students' writing which contained FTA and politeness strategies. Politeness Theory is used to determine the politeness strategies adopted by the students in their writing. In collecting the data, the researcher used grouping. Written texts evaluated by the researcher in terms of politeness strategies which were based on five-point politeness Likert scale as follows:

1	2	3	4	5
Too polite	polite	appropriately polite	Partially Polite	Not polite at all

Face-Threatening Information

Whenever one possessed face-threatening information Brown and Levinson (1978) argued three things happen. First the face-threatening act (FTA) was presented. Then the information was either presented efficiently to help your own negative face wants, or face was attempted to be either protected or maintained (both your own positive face and your partner's positive and/or negative face). Most of the time people were less efficient in order to save face.

According to Brown and Levinson (1978) FTA's are illocutionary acts liable to damage other party's face. Performing an FTA is a matter of choice, and people often select for it in a crisis situation. The concomitant effect of this is deepening the crisis. There are four possibilities of performing FTA's, these are made up of three sets of 'on-record 'super-strategies (perform the FTA on-record without redressive action) (bald-on-record); perform the FTA on-record using positive politeness and perform the FTA on-record using negative politeness) and one set of 'off record' strategies (say nothing). All these super-strategies are geared towards extenuating the effect of the FTA's (Thomas, 1995:169).

Off-Record

When you presented a message off record you presented face threatening information. However, you did so in a way that said that you couldn't be held accountable (Brown & Levinson, 1978). Ways of doing this were by hinting or sarcastic joking. That was one may put a "tone" in the comment, but if confronted the comment was defensible. This notion of tone was directly from Searle's (1965) and Austin's (1962) work on word meaning. Since face it public, one may use this strategy to avoided a direct

confrontation which allowed for a future detract of the statement if necessary. Off-record politeness strategy the speaker considered that the hearer will understand what he/she speaks by making it unclear.
(6) *Teacher*: *you know Shiva is not good at English; perhaps someone should have been more responsible***.**
Student: ***she should go to compensatory classes****.*
In (6), because of power distance between two parties student uses off-record strategy also to minimizing and softening FTA, he indirectly reject teacher's request.
With Redress

The bigger the threat the more the disclaimer and indirect language was needed. For example, "Sorry to bother you" or "Do you think it would be possible…" If you used on record with redress then you either did so with positive or negative politeness.
(7)Phanindra: I just dropped for a minute to ask if you speak about Isfahan's famous building (negative politeness by minimize imposition).
*Morteza:****sorry, I'm busy,****I don't like to say****.***
(8)Sam:how is the weather?
Sorry to ask many questions…but how are you going to find out about things if you don't ask questions? (To excuse her habit of asking- off-record strategy- give hints)
Hamid: don't say it ***please****.* ***Please*** *ask other question whatever you want.*

In (7) and (8) speaker use politeness marker like (Sorry, please) to soften the impact of FTA that may happen. The amount of imposition in the example above is reduced through the mitigating devices, and 'please'. These were also reinforced by the use of 'for a second' indicating that the speaker did not intend to deprived the hearer of his material for long.

In order to take the practice seriously, they were told their assessments would constitute 20% of the final scores given by their teacher for their written production at the end of the term. If the students had any problems with understanding of each item, the researcher could clarify it and enlightened them as to the concept of each item or translated it if required.

Data collected through students' writing performance from three separate groups. After all the data were collected, the data were divided into the sub-theories of politeness strategy. The unit of analysis was the FTA itself since each FTA could be presented in one or more sentences. The number of occurrences and their percentage were tabulated. After computing the FTA, the second phase was to analyze the place of politeness appeared in the texts using the model adapted from Johnson, D (1992). Finally, the texts were qualitatively analyzed.

Data Analysis

The written texts by participants were analyzed in regard to all face threatening acts. After identifying and categorizing them, the researcher calculated the total number of them used by all groups. After calculating the average numbers of each participant writing, the researcher counted the occurrences of all the different sub-strategies in order to find out the most frequently used of sub-strategies groups.

Chi-square analysis, using the SPSS 20, was used to explore if there was any significant relationship between gender and the use of request strategies and face threatening acts in the request. The process of data analysis in this study included an evaluation of the participants' responses by the researcher who rated the responses based on 5-point politeness Likert scale. After that, the researcher then calculated the number of each strategy used by individual, also calculated the number in total.

4. Results

In the analysis of the obtained data, the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software version 20 was used. First, descriptive statistics was calculated. Then, a five-point politeness Likert scale was employed to determine the association between participants' English writing performance and politeness and FTAs.

4.1. Descriptive Statistics

First, mean scores of the pre-test for the two groups were compared. The descriptive statistics of their scores on KET test are shown in Table 1.

Table1. *Descriptive Statistics for KET Test*

Groups Total	N	MIN	MAX	Mean	SD	FTA
Females	25	13	41	26	8.75	105
Males	32	4	41	29.21	8.80	146

As shown in Table 1, mean scores of female and male learners are (26 and 29.21) with the standard deviation of (8.75 and 8.80) respectively. To obtain the number of occurrences of types of face threatening acts, the researcher counted the number of these strategies committed by every participant in their writing conversation. And also to gain the extent of learners' proficiency level the researcher calculated the mean or average score across gender.
At Table 1, the researcher counted the number and the kind of face threatening acts used by participants in written conversations.From the results obtained from Table 1, it can be vividly seen that there are distinct patterns revealed that male and female students were slightly different in doing FTA, the latter threatened their addressee's face more than the former did. And the vast majority of FTAs posed a threat to the hearer's face rather than the speaker's face.

RQ1: What types of politeness strategies were employed by these two groups which soften the impact of the inherent face threatening?

There are some politeness strategies which we rendered from our gathered data as:
Positive Politeness Strategies:
1. Noticing, attending: I am beautifully listening!
2. Intensifying interest: very interesting ok go on!
3. Avoiding disagreement (especially to more powerful person): 'what you say is correct!
4. Offering and promising:' I will do that!
5. Giving sympathy, cooperation: 'I am at your service
6. Indirect command:' ' please come: please let me know
For example: The choice of "we" describes that the speaker wants the hearer participating in the conversation. The real subject meant by the speaker is the hearer. To minimize the face threatening act, the speaker use 'we' in order to soften the real subject face damage.
Concerning the first question and for the purpose of measuring the type of strategy a participant intends to apply, it is been conducted by following Brown& Levinson (1987) model of politeness as a method for analyzing the participants' responses. The assessment would be much more dependent on the negative as well as the positive strategies. And by counting the number of the correct responses that correspond with each strategy we can have an idea about the performance of each gender. As it has been mentioned previously, six negative strategies and five positive strategies have been chosen and arranged respectively here:
As it been mentioned previously, six negative strategies and five positive strategies have been chosen and arranged respectively here:

1. Indirectness.
2. Minimizing the imposition.
3. Stating (FTA) as a general rule.
4. Apologizing.
5. Giving deference.
6. Question, hedge.
7. Sympathy.
8. Asking for a reason.
9. Offer.

10. Avoiding disagreement/ seeking agreement
To investigate types of politeness strategies used by males, researcher in table 2 calculated the frequency and percentage kinds of politeness strategies as follows:

Table2. *Percentage of politeness strategies used by female students*

Rank	Types of politeness strategies	frequency	percentage
1	Negative politeness	100	21.64
2	Off record	13	2.81
3	Positive politeness	227	49.13
4	Bald on-record with redressed	5	1.08
5	Bald on-record without redressed	12	2.59

Table 2 represented that in conversational writing females used more positive politeness than negative politeness though the degree of bald on-record with redressed were more than without redressed.
To obtain types of politeness strategies which were employed by these two groups to soften the impact of the inherent face threatening, researcher considered frequency and percentage of politeness strategies used by males.
Table 3. *Percentage of politeness strategies used by male students*

Rank	Types of politeness strategies	frequency	percentage
1	Negative politeness	150	25.86
2	Off record	16	2.75
3	Positive politeness	258	44.48
4	Bald on-record with redressed	12	23.06
5	Bald on-record without redressed	8	1.37

Table 3 lists politeness strategies used by males and their frequency of occurrence taken from the data. The result showed the rate of percentage of bald – on record without redressed to bald on record with redressed used by females respectively were 2.59% to1.08%and these percentages in males respectively were 1.37 % to 23.06%.The result indicated that, in conversational writing, males preferred to use more polite strategies than females to soften the impact of the inherent face threatening.

RQ2: What types of face threatening act mostly appear in students' writing?

To analyze research question researcher considered six type of FTA as mentioned bellow in tables 4So that by considering the kinds of FTA and counting the number of FTA that mostly appeared in students writing, I could get a clear idea about the degree of politeness realization. With respect to the third question it is noticed that males were appeared to be better than females in performing negative

politeness strategies. Males show their ability to express positive politeness strategies. These can be seen in tables (2) and (3).

Table 4. *Face threatening act used by female students*

Negative face threatening act	N	Positive face threatening act	N
Promise	8	Disagreement	45
Express gratitude	27	Complaint	21
Admiration	16	Hedge	3

In order to attend types of face threatening act mostly appear in students' writing, researcher in table 5 investigate the number of face threatening acts used by male EFL students.

Table 5.*Face threatening act used by males*

Negative face threatening act	N	Positive face threatening act	N
Promise	14	Disagreement	8
Express gratitude	29	Complaint	15
Admiration	24	Hedge	48

Results of table 4, and table 5, Suggests that among strategies applied by females students, mostly appear strategy is disagreement that divided to off-record (F= 13) and on record (F= 32). Bald On – records strategies also subdivided to FTA with redressed action (F=4) and bald on record without redressed action (F= 28). These Statistics showed that, in writing conversation, female's students are less polite than male's students.

Was there a relationship between politeness and gender of EFL learners?

In regard to the above mentioned we can say that, there was a relationship between politeness and gender of EFL learners. The seven conversations based on students English school book selected were investigated and then reviewed to identify its politeness Strategies and FTA used with responses. All politeness strategies dealing with FTAs usage were apparent.

All failed-strategies found in the data: most of the females use negative politeness strategies, i.e.: disagreement, Complaint , hedge or bald on record without redressed that is least polite , however majority of males used bald on record with redressed action that is polite or off-record strategy which is more polite than other. The positive politeness strategies were also used, i.e.: be optimistic, exaggerate, assume or assert reciprocity, address forms. In order to minimize the potential damage to one's face various strategies were employed. Majority included positive and negative politeness:

Base on Brown and Levinson's 5- point likert scale, researcher investigated respondents' ability to assessed degree FTA across the gender on EFL Iranian learners. Since, researcher was Persian native speaker, easily distinguished the rate and degree of politeness and FTA from 1 to 5, which were showed in table 6.

Table 6. *Percentage of the Students'(males and females) Total performance concerning Their Performance of FTA.*

P	Too polite	Polite	Appropriately polite	Partially polite	Not-Polite at all
Females	20.87	20.26	21.24	24.18	11.11
Males	18.16	23.54	22.42	28.02	7.87

Before interpreting the research it is necessary to make some initial remarks regarding the scope of the study. Firstly, the research corpus is relatively small, which does not allow for broad generalizations. However, it can still be illustrative of some pragma-linguistic tendencies pertinent to this specific genre of writing. Secondly, it must be noted that the majority of students were non-native speakers of English, addressing an international body of prospective applicants. This is of importance since pragmatic competence acquisition presents one of the most challenging SLA aspects.

When reflecting upon the research results, it first becomes evident that all of conversational writing in the corpus contains at least one, and on average 21.5 FTAs.

An example of too polite were use of address forms or express gratitude as bellow

Address forms

According to Brown and Levinson, this strategy was used to convey such in-group membership included generic names and terms address, like: honey, dear, sweet-heart, guys.

(A) Teacher: Oh you have sore eyes too. ***I feel sorry to find you sick****. Why don't you go to the doctor? (Positive politeness by giving the hearer sympathy)*

Males: thanks *for worry about me* ***sir,*** *but I have one more class.*

Females: I want but I can't, I have to be at school so we have exam today

In (A) teacher showed his sympathy by using "I feel sorry to find you sick "and mutually males student showed respect to the teacher by using address form(sir) and also with express thanks show gratitude for teacher's sympathy.(too-polite) By sympathizing and identifying with the plight of the students, politeness is maintained through this sympathy maxim. The addressed students naturally feel comfortable that their lecturers are concerned about their plight.

As mention bellow, examples of not-polite at all were use of FTA or bald on-record without redressvie action. However females don't attention to the sympathy of teacher (face) and just complaint that why can't go to the doctor. (Partially polite)

(B)Sam: I know you are busy, might I ask you what village life offers in comparison to city life. (1st)

Males: ***yes of course why not*** *…..*

*Females****: I'm so tired to answer.***

In (B), Sam used Negative Politeness, which similar to the Positive Politeness in that (you recognized that they wanted to be respected however; you also assumed that you were in some way imposing on them). But learner whiteout any respect to others' face, used bald on-record politeness strategy without redressive action, she directly answered and showed his disagreement which was negative politeness that threat hearer's positive face (FTA)(partially polite). Although males's answer show his politeness that is (appropriately polite)

(C) *Teacher: you know Shiva is not good at English; perhaps someone should have been more responsible. (1st)* (*Negative politeness strategies (Brown & Levinson 1987: 131): Be conventionally indirect)*

Females (1): ***It's not related to me****.*

Females (2): *she should go to the class*

Males: I can help her

In (C), teacher indirectly asked request for help Shiva which, was more polite (lack of precision, intentional vagueness of statements), however, Females (1) student used negative politeness strategy, and she directly answered and showed her disagreement to help Shiva. This is (not-polite at all) however

females (2) answer indirectly which is off record .this sentence show (partially politeness) of speaker. Although males accept responsibility that is (more polite)

The result of politeness level pointed that, in regarded to the Brown and Levinson's 5-polint likert scale, in writing conversation, both genders were partially polite. Not only the rate of politeness strategies, but also, the rates of FTA used by males were more than politeness strategies and FTA used by females. However, the degree of negative politeness used by males were more than used by females yet, the number of politeness marker and FTA with redressive action were more than females thus we can say that in writing conversation, males EFL students were more polite than females. It also explains a greater number of negative FTAs, because precisely the negative FTAs try to influence one's behavior and threaten one's feeling of independence and control.

1. DISCUSSION/CONCLUSION

The current study also supports Jo Roberts (1992) study showing that face threatening acts committed during interactions determine politeness levels of participants' speech.

Riyan(2013) conducted a descriptive study about FTA and politeness strategy performed in the movie. Finding unfold that all of the faces, both positive and negative faces are being threatened. The politeness strategies are also utilized in the conversational dialog, all the four types of politeness strategies.

The findings in this study were in agreement with Choyimah, N. and M. Adnan Latief (2014)the findings revealed that learners having higher levels of English proficiency prefer to use indirect strategies, but those at lower levels used direct ways in disagreeing.

Consequently, contrary Zarei (2011) carried out a survey study; the results indicated that Iranian students (females and males) did not make remarkable different uses of L1 and L2 complimenting in terms of form and principles. The results suggest that L1 and L2, showing no conduction of L1 potentiality into L2.

And also this study is not in line with Farahani and Molkizadeh (2013)found that male and female students use almost the same types of politeness strategies in disagreement speech acts. However, in my study the results indicated the significant differences of applying FTA among EFL learner across gender.

Also, the results can be accounted for in a number of ways as follows: The first thing is that these students functioned in an Iranian context where all the participants were Iranians. Thus, it is not surprising to discover that they abide by some formal social rules promoted in Iranian contexts especially at the universities.

The next point which worth mentioning is that the results testify that the Persian writers of English make every attempt to remain polite, thus avoiding FTAs, which is almost generally the case in lots of world languages (e.g., Salamani-Nodoushan, 2008; Alfattah&Ravindrantha, 2009). Moreover, the results support Johnson and Roen's (1992) and Poynton's (1989) claims that gender differences are less likely to occur in written discourse due to greater formality of the academic setting, the seriousness of topic, the written modality and the situational equality of the participants.

Implications of the study

Bearing in mind the findings of the present study, the following pedagogical implications are made. The implications of this study can provide teachers, educators, students' parents, and syllabus designers a comprehensive answer to their prejudgments about students' ability in different language skills. For EFL intermediate students, reviewing someone's work or writing about daily activities or dialog base writing was a good way to enhance their writing skill. Therefore, using appropriate politeness strategies is of great importance. This study might be beneficial for those who want to learn more about positive and negative politeness strategies and FTAs. Like many other studies, the present study had its own limitations. One of these research limitations was the small sample size. It could be beneficial for further research to explore this issue with a wider range of participants. The study investigated dialog-based discourse between interlocutors of 13 to 15ages. Thus, the language used by learners might be influenced by their age. Therefore, these findings may not apply to situations where interlocutors are of different age ranges and unequal social status (lecturers, parents, etc.).The present study also includes delimitations. This study was conducted in Iran as an EFL context; the generalizability of the finding to the ESL context may be impossible or should be made with caution. Furthermore, the current study was carried out with

the intermediate English level of students. This may affect the generalizability of the results to the other proficiency levels.

Conclusions

Qualitative analysis shows that FTAs which place pressure on the hearer to perform or not to perform a particular action, like suggestions, requests, orders and warnings, can frequently be found in students' writing, as well as those expressing disagreement, which are the most numerous FTA type in the entire corpus. The employment of politeness strategies is also very common in conversational writing, most of them being positive and negative strategies, whereas bald on-record strategies emerge positioned on noticeable places in the texts.

To summarize the findings of the study, it was revealed that males EFL learner were more polite than females. One possible reason could be the number and frequency of negative and positive politeness used by students; however, the number of politeness was2 to 13 for each conversation. Most participants of both genders would not realize that the use of utterances likes "can you", "could you", "would you mind" … etc. will mitigate the impact of threat on the part of the hearer. Usually they consider 'please' as the only mitigating device.

Furthermore, the findings showed that consequently, the more the number of negative politeness, the more number of faces threatening act were used. Findings revealed that increasing the proficiency level of the learners lead to the use of appropriate politeness strategies.

Two principles in language use

The inevitability of face threat and face invasion imply a set of two general principles that may have some importance in communication and cognition:

1) Pragmatic principle of face affection. All speech acts (all utterances) affect both W's and R's faces.

2) Pragmatic principle of face threat. All non-impolite speech acts (polite speech acts included) threaten, simultaneously but in different grades, W's and R's faces.

In summary: The hypothesis that every single thing we say affects the speaker's and the hearer's face does not only seem to be plausible, but it also accounts for one of those aspects underlying verbal interaction.

There were similarities found between the two groups of learners, specifically, in terms of the way they mitigated the force of their FTA. I assume that the similarities arise from their belonging to the same culture. They are all members of specific discourse community, a group which is particularly interested in studying and analyzing language.

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MJLTM

THE EFFECT OF PICTORIAL CUES ON IRANIAN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS' GRAMMAR IMPROVEMENT: THE CASE OF PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES

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ABSTRACT
THIS RESEARCH SOUGHT TO INVESTIGATE THE EFFECT OF PICTORIAL CUES ON GRAMMAR LEARNING AMONG JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS AND THE FOCUS WAS ON THE CASE OF PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES. TO FULFILL THE OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY A HOMOGENEITY TEST (OQPT) WAS ADMINISTERED AMONG 60 STUDENTS AT THE SECOND GRADE OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL AND FINALLY 40 PARTICIPANTS WERE SELECTED. THEN, THEY WERE NON-RANDOMLY DIVIDED INTO TWO SUBGROUPS, NAMELY CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS. BEFORE STARTING THE TREATMENT, A VALIDATED TEACHER-MADE GRAMMAR TEST IN TERMS OF THE MATERIALS SUPPOSED TO BE COVERED IN BOTH GROUPS WAS ADMINISTERED TO THEM AS THE PRE-TEST. THEN THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP RECEIVED THE TREATMENT, WHICH WAS TEACHING AND LEARNING GRAMMAR THROUGH USING PICTORIAL CUES AND THE CONTROL GROUP RECEIVED TRADITIONAL TEACHING WHICH IS TEACHING GRAMMAR THROUGH INSTRUCTION ON EXAMPLES AND DRILLS PROPOSED BY THE TEACHER. AFTER 10 SESSIONS OF TREATMENT, THE TWO GROUPS WERE ADMINISTERED THE SAME TEACHER-MADE GRAMMAR TEST AS POSTTEST. DATA WERE ANALYZED BY PAIRED AND INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST. THE FINDINGS SHOWED THAT THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP SIGNIFICANTLY PERFORMED BETTER THAN THE CONTROL GROUP. GENERALLY, THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS OUTPERFORMED THE CONTROL GROUPS. THE RESULTS SUGGEST THAT PICTORIAL CUES CAN BE USED IN ENGLISH CLASSES TO DEVELOP GRAMMAR ABILITY AMONG IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS.

KEY WORDS: GRAMMAR, PICTORIAL CUES, PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES

1. Introduction

The outstanding developments in technology and communications have made learning foreign languages in general and English language in particular essential for every individual. English language has become an international language and a means of communication among people all over the world (Green, 2011).

In learning English for both foreign and second language, the learner should master the four essential skills including listening, speaking, reading and writing in order to comprehend and utilize the language accurately. These skills cannot stand alone; in other words, one skill will support the other skills (Afandi, Jufrizal, & Narius, 2013). Thus, the learners cannot learn only one single skill. Moreover, in teaching and learning English, there are some sub skills included in the four skills such as vocabulary, pronunciation, and grammar.

In the process of mastering the four noteworthy skills of English, grammar is one of the essential perspectives to make right and significant sentences and articulations. Sentence structure is known as a base to shape and utilize a dialect. As indicated by Klammer, Muriel, and Angela (2000) "grammar is an arrangement of a language or a set of standards which in a perfect world identified with right sentences while utilizing the language" (p.3). It intends to create a good sentence; somebody ought to comprehend the grammar use of the language well. In accordance with this definition, Roberts (1953) states that grammar is a set of principles or particular guidelines to mastermind words and different components into a right sentence of the grammar. It gives meaning to any individual who utilizes the language either in speaking, listening, reading, and writing. In short, grammar is a set of rules and principles by which individuals can talk and write. They allow people to use their language easily and naturally most of the time. Thus, if someone wants to master a language, he or she ought to grasp and comprehend the tenets of the language well. To put it plainly, in order to comprehend and utilize English, one must have enough knowledge of grammar and the segments because it is closely related to its major skills which are utilized in daily communication because a language can not be framed correctly without the information of its grammar (Afandi et al., 2013).

Teaching grammar has been considered as both central and peripheral in language learning at different periods of time (FarzamiPooya, 2014). Although words are utilized for naming objects and actions and passing on thoughts to others; however without language structure the planned meaning can't be understood totally. Rutherford cited in Larsen- Freeman (1991) asserted that the necessary components of any language teaching program are grammatical patterns. As indicated by Richards and Renandya (2002) grammar is not the thing to be ignored in language teaching. As a result without extensive information of grammar, learners' learning improvement will be restricted.

Consequently, it can be derived that mastery of grammar is a fundamental segment of second language acquisition, so it is vital for teachers and researchers to comprehend the necessity of grammar in picking up the information of language. Asokhia (2009) emphasized on the importance of teaching aids such as, visual aids and pictorial cues for teaching English language. The author believed that visual aids are instructional tools which make English language lessons easy and enjoyable.

Grammar has numerous components and prepositional phrase is one of them. The prepositional phrase is one of the eight parts of speech, i.e., noun, pronoun, verb, adverb, adjective, conjunction, preposition, and interjection in the English language. A preposition shows a relationship between persons, places or things mentioned in a sentence (Quinn, 2011). There are approximately 80 to 100 prepositions categorized into several classes, such as spatial, comparative, and temporal, depending on the kind of relationship denoted by the preposition (Bennet, 1975). The term prepositional phrase, according to Cambridge International Dictionary of English (2014), refers to a group of words that begins with a preposition and ends with a noun or a pronoun. This noun or pronoun is called the "object of the preposition." The preposition sits in front of (is "pre-positioned" before) its object (Procter, 1995). The prepositional phrases are used for many purposes, for example:

- as **adverbials of time and place**:

We will be back **in a few days**.

They drove **to Glasgow**

- as a **post modifier** in a **noun phrase**:

Helen is the girl **in the red dress**
we've got a new television **with a thirty one inch screen**.

- to show **who** did something:

The lion was killed **by the hunter**
I saw a wonderful painting **by Van Gogh**

- with **double object verbs** like give and get:

We gave five pounds **to the woman on the corner**.
They got a drink **for me**.

- after certain verbs, nouns and adjectives:

The book *belongs* **to me**.
I *had an argument* **with my brother**.
I feel *sorry* **for you**.

Now the question which is important to consider is: What is the suitable procedure for teaching and learning grammar items-prepositional phrases- for second and foreign language learners? "One of the vital roles of the language teacher is to help their students find the easiest way for passing on new data into the effectively existing arrangement of the mental lexicon" (Thornbury, 2004, p.93). Moreover, students need to obtain the capacity to store the data for as long as possible. For a long time, instructor instructional classes did not give careful consideration to methods which help students to learn grammar. Teaching through visual aids including pictorial cues is a method which builds up another way to comprehend as well as for enhancing spelling, making sentences, grammar, learning new vocabulary and so on (Buell, 1953). It serves to discover a bargain between what students think they require (which might not be grammar at all but maybe text organization or lexis) and what instructors think. While doing this, they need to be aware of language structure and utilize it productively. Moreover, it provides a chance for cooperative learning; it upgrades and refines their use of language (Gersten & Baker, 2000).

There are numerous explanations behind utilizing pictures as a part of language teaching. As Wright (1990) pointed out, they are persuading and draw learners' consideration. Furthermore, Wright refers to the fact that they give a setting's feeling of the language and give a particular reference point or stimulus. Pictures, being suitable for any group of learners autonomously on age or level, can be utilized in lots of different ways. As Hill (1990) expressed, "What is done is constrained just by the planning time accessible, the visuals to hand and the creative energy of the individual instructor." (p.2)

As the pictorial cues are fun, interactive, and exciting, students can learn English grammar very easily, in a relax atmosphere, and more interestingly. Thus, pictorial cues can help not only in learning and mastering the very crucial aspect of foreign language learning-grammar, but also in developing positive attitudes of learners towards the whole language learning process (Šabatová, 2006).

2. Review of the Literature

2.1. The Concept of Grammar

The history of grammar analysis goes back to the ancient Greeks, who transformed it from the art of writing and recognizing letters into a science of rules that govern the production of texts. Both the Greeks and Romans, who adopted the Greek analysis for Latin, used grammar to teach people how to use languages, which were then employed in many fields, such as politics, philosophy and religion (Celce-Murcia, 1991; De Mauro, 2009). Then the investigation of Greek and Latin sentence structures spread on account of the innovation of printing, and numerous formal studies on language created. On the other hand, during the 17th century there was an increment in the utilization of vernaculars and the investigation of languages concentrated on their utilization and not on their formal examination, as there was a strong interest in learning the languages of other countries. In the eighteenth century the distinction in the middle of implicit and explicit grammar developed, and in the nineteenth century the formal investigation of traditional dialects assumed control once more. From that minute, a persistent swing between the significance of grammar utilization and formal examination has portrayed the historical backdrop of grammar (Celce-Murcia, 1991).

As indicated by Scrivener (2003), "*grammar is not only a dry list of truths and principles. It is in our heads and it is a living resource that gives us the capacity to impart our thoughts and emotions and to comprehend what other individuals say or keep in touch with us.*"

To sum up, Grammar is the study of words and the ways words work together; an imperceptible power that aids us as we set up words together into sentences. Any individual who conveys utilizing a specific language, deliberately or unknowingly gets to be mindful of the grammar of that language. But in this context I would like cite a wonderful example as described "A writer has given an excellent similarity to show the utilization of information of grammar. Imagine two car drivers. The first driver knows only driving and nothing about the working of the engine. He feels helpless whenever there is some trouble with the machinery. The second driver knows driving and also comprehends the working of the machinery. The person who knows grammar is similar to this second driver. In case he doubtful about the correctness of a particular thing, his knowledge of grammar comes to his rescue (Greenbaum & Quirk, 1990, p. 116)".

2.2. Grammar in English Learning

It is definite that placing grammar in the closer view in second language instructing, in light of the fact that language information of grammar and vocabulary is the base of English language. Grammatical competence is one of communicative competence. Communicative competence includes knowing how to utilize the grammar and vocabulary of the language to accomplish informative objectives, and knowing how to do this in a socially suitable manner. Communicative goals are the objectives of learners' contemplating English language. So grammar teaching is necessary to achieve the goals.

Grammar is central to the teaching and learning of languages. It clarifies the sorts of words and word groups that make up sentences in any language and makes it possible for us to talk about language. In fact, grammar is the way in which sentences are organized and the language is designed, so while concentrating on right punctuation may be a touch exhausting, it truly is justified regardless of the time and exertion. If we don't know the rules of grammar, then we will never have the capacity to convey obviously and successfully in English language. People associate grammar with errors and accuracy. With the utilization of erroneous language structure therefore, thinking about grammar helps us comprehend what makes sentences and sections clear and intriguing and exact. Grammar and language structure can be a piece of writing talks, when we and our students nearly read the sentences in verse and stories. Also, thinking about sentence structure means discovering that all dialects and all languages take after grammatical patterns.

Utilizing suitable grammar is considered as a prerequisite to be able to complete sentences in exchanging data and information. According to Swan (2005) grammar is the rules that show how words are joined, organized or changed to demonstrate certain sorts of meaning. Grammar is the way in which words change themselves and group together to make sentences. It is argued that a basic knowledge of grammar underlies the ability to utilize the language, to express meaning. The right spelling or words and sentence structure are utilized to increase errors. Moreover, grammar is a theory of language, of how language is set up together and how it functions. More particularly, "grammar is the study of wording. Wordings are characterized such that they are able to explain meaning" (Gerot & Wignel, 1994, p. 54). Ur (1991) defined Grammar as "the way language manipulates and combines words (or bits of words) in order to form longer units of meaning" (p. 4). This definition is very close to the common understanding of grammar.

By learning grammar rules, learners can maintain a strategic distance from language fossilization and enhance their execution, among other related points of interest. In addition, knowing language structure principles make autonomous learners who can control their learning procedure when they are out of school and when time contains the learning knowledge to the classroom only.

2.3. Prepositional Phrases

Traditional grammars define prepositions as words that "link to other words, phrases, and clauses" and that "express spatial or temporal relations." Prepositional phrases are phrases that consist of a preposition plus another word, phrase, or clause functioning as a prepositional complement (Willis & Collins, 2003). Prepositions and prepositional phrase perform seven primary grammatical functions within sentences in the English language (Watcyn & Allsop, 2004). The seven primary functions of prepositions and prepositional phrases are:

- Prepositional phrase head
- Noun phrase modifier

- Noun phrase complement
- Adjective phrase complement
- Verb phrase complement
- Adjunct adverbial
- Disjunct adverbial

2.4. Pictorial Cues: Pictures and Posters

According to Webster's dictionary, a "cue" is "any sound, word, or action that signals an action; a guiding hint or suggestion." Delivering cues to your students, both verbally and non-verbally, will aid them in understanding the message you are trying to explain. Context clues are hints that an author gives to help define a difficult or unusual word. The clue may appear within the same sentence as the word to which it refers, or it may follow in a preceding sentence. Because most of one's vocabulary is gained through reading, it is important that you be able to recognize and take advantage of context clues. There are at least four kinds of context clues that are quite common: 1) a *synonym* (or repeat context clue) which appears in that sentence; 2) an *antonym* (or contrast context clue) that has the opposite meaning, which can reveal the meaning of an unknown term; 3) an explanation for an unknown word is given (a definition context clue) within the sentence or in the sentence immediately preceding; and 4) specific examples (an example context clue) used to define the term. There may also be word-part context clues in which a common prefix, suffix, or root will suggest at least part of the meaning of a word. A general sense context clue lets the reader puzzle out a word meaning from whatever information is available - and this is the most common kind of context clue. Others describe context clues in three ways: 1) semantic or meaning clues, e.g., When reading a story about cats, good readers develop the expectation that it will contain words associated with cats, such as "tail," "purr," "scratch," and "whiskers"; 2) syntactic or word order clues where the order of the words in a sentence can indicate that a missing word must be (for example, a verb); and 3) picture clues where illustrations help with the identification of a word.

Quinn (2011) in an article "Using visual art to teach prepositional phrases" tried to develop youngsters' ability to recognize and use spatial language, such as the preposition, which is an extremely important goal in the language arts. The results showed that the preposition as a part of speech is poised to receive some instructional attention through the visual arts. Moreover, the spatial relationships represented through the use of prepositional phrases in the English language were best introduced to youngsters by means of perceptual information.

In another study, Abdolmanafi Rokni, and Karimi (2013) investigated the effects of visual materials such as pictures, real objects, and flash cards on EFL learners' vocabulary learning. Forty six female intermediate students participated in this study. The findings showed a noticeable progress of the experimental group in learning words. It was found that the learning of words in the experimental group significantly increased more than that in the control group. Further, the participants in the experimental group perceived visual instruction as an effective way for learning vocabulary.

3. Methodology

3.1. Participants

This research was conducted at Shahed Athar junior High school in Masjed Soleiman, Khouzestan, Iran. A sample of 40 female students at the pre-intermediate level who took English as their course at school were selected based on a non-random judgment sampling-method. Their age range was 16 to 17 (Twenty five of them were 16 and twenty five were 17 years old). The students were all the same regarding their educational background, age and sex. None of them had ever lived in a foreign country or traveled to an English speaking country. They took a homogeneity test in order to determine the proficiency level who were considered as pre-intermediate students. Of course, their proficiency in English was the same (as they passed the English final exam in the previous year), but to get more sure about their proficiency, the researcher conducted a Quick Placement Test. It is worth noting that there were some very delicate individual differences among all of them (some of them were left handed); however, the researcher did her best to minimize all the contravening variables as much as possible and focus on the study. Two classes selected and divided into two groups, namely control and experimental groups. The experimental group received the treatment, which is teaching and learning grammar through using pictorial cues. The

control group received traditional teaching which was teaching grammar through instruction and drills by the teacher such as examples, drills, and repetition. The classes were conducted in the morning once a week; each session lasted about 90 minutes. Except for the physical conditions manipulated in favor of using pictorial cues in the experimental group's classroom, the teacher, the source book, the allotted time for both groups and the method were the same. It should be mentioned that the teacher explained the grammatical points for the control group, but the experimental group received no more implicit or explicit explanation regarding the grammatical points under investigation, i.e., prepositional phrases. Instead some pictorial cues including pictures and posters pregnant with prepositional phrases were put up on the walls of the classroom for the experimental group. It is worth mentioning that the researcher changed the pictures and posters including prepositional phrases every week to make learning more interesting and funny.

3.2. Instrumentation

The first instrument which was utilized in the present study to homogenize the participants was The Oxford Quick Placement Test (OQPT). It was utilized to measure the participants' language proficiency. The second instrument was a pretest. Before starting the research, the participants answered a teacher-made grammar test as a pretest. This test included two parts: one part was a true-false test which consisted of 12 items that the learners had to check the true and crossed out the false items and the other part was 33 multiple choice items and asked the learners to choose the correct choice. The test included a mixture of target structure items, i.e., prepositional phrases and distracter items; these items were prepared to particularly check students' knowledge of prepositional phrases. The distracter options suggested for each question were based on students' course book's contents and the points mentioned by the teacher. The reliability of tests was calculated through a pilot test and then the Cronbach Alpha formula value of 0.715 was obtained. To get sure about the Content Validity Index (CVI) of the test items, ten teachers who also taught English for more than 10 years read through the tests and made some changes regarding the clarity, simplicity and the representativeness of items. Subsequently, the test was modified and then piloted on a similar group in another high school whose course book and level were the same. After applying validation and piloting, the necessary changes and modifications to achieve item characteristics, (i.e., item facility, item discrimination, and choice distribution) were made to the test and 5 items were considered inappropriate and omitted. Finally, 40 items were selected for the final version of the test. The allotted time was 50 minutes and the correct answer to multiple-choice items and true-false items received 1 and 0.5 point respectively. There was no penalty for false responses. The last instrument which was used in this study was a post test. At the end of the semester a post test was administered to the respondents of the study. The purpose of applying such a test was to find out the effectiveness of the treatment, i.e., using pictorial cues on the students' grammar learning. That is, to obtain the results of the comparison between the experimental and control group in terms of learners 'knowledge of prepositional phrases the teacher-made grammar test was used again. In fact, the same grammar test was used twice in this study, once as a pre-test and once as a posttest instrument. There was no difference between the pre-test and posttest in terms of time and the number of items. The only difference of posttest test from the pre-test was that the order of questions and alternatives was changed to wipe out the probable recall of pre-test answers. The post test was administered in the end of research which was after 10 sessions to test the learners' grammar learning. The pre- and post- tests were two tests prepared by the researcher. The validity of the test was also checked by those ten teachers who validated the pre-test and the reliability was computed through the application of a pilot test. Then the Cronbach Alpha formula value of 0.781 was obtained.

3.3. Procedure

At the beginning, two homogeneous classes from Shahed Athar Junior High school, Masjed Soleiman were selected and given a Quick Placement Test to make them homogeneous. Then they were divided into two groups, namely an experimental group and a control group. Next, both groups took a grammar test as a pretest which was developed by the researcher based on the course book content and was checked against validity and reliability measures. Nevertheless, the two groups were statistically compared via the results of the grammar pre-test. The pretest checked the participants' knowledge of grammar in both groups with respect to the grammatical points which were going to be presented in 10

sessions of the classroom. During the treatment period, the new grammar items [prepositional phrases] of the students' book were taught to the experimental group, using pictorial cues. The control group did not receive the research treatment; the participants in the control group learned new grammar rules through instructions and drills by the teacher.

At the end of the program to ensure the effectiveness of instructions and to assess learners' grammatical knowledge of the target language throughout the study, the grammar test was repeated at the end of the experiment, as posttest. The aim of this test was to check the grammar development of the participants and to determine the effectiveness of using pictorial cues on grammar learning. When the data were all gathered via pretest-posttest, it was time to carry out the analysis.

3.4. Data Analysis

Since the present study compared the effect of learning grammar through using pictorial cues in the classroom and without pictorial cues with regard to students' grammar improvement, the needed data were collected through a teacher-made grammar test. Thus, the two different mediums of instruction were the independent variables of the study and the grammar test scores are the dependent variables. As the experimental and control groups were independent from each other, an Independent-Samples t-test was conducted for the analyses in order to compare the two groups. Before the administration of the treatment, all groups sat for a pretest. An Independent-Samples t-test was conducted to compare the means of the experimental group with control group. Then after the treatment was implemented, the two groups sat for a posttest. The very same statistical procedure was applied here as well. Independent and Paired Samples t-test were conducted to compare the means of the experimental group with control group. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences" software program (SPSS 22) was used to analyze the data.

4. Results

4.1. Descriptive Statistics

Table 4.2 presents descriptive information about pre-test and post-test scores of both experimental and control groups.

Table 4.1:

Descriptive statistics related to participants' performance on pretest and posttest

		N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N. questions
Experimental	Pre-test	20	13.00	17.00	14.75	1.40	40
	P.P items in pre-test	20	5.00	10.00	7.35	1.75	27
	Post-test	20	23.00	27.00	25.30	1.34	40
	P.P items in post-test	20	14.00	22.00	17.30	2.61	27
Control	Pre-test	20	14.00	18.00	15.60	1.31	40
	P.P items in pre-test	20	4.00	11.00	7.050	2.32	27
	Post-test	20	21.00	25.00	23.00	1.45	40
	P.P items in post-test	20	10.00	19.00	15.00	2.36	27

As revealed in Table 4.2, the results of descriptive statistics show that the scores of the students are close to each other and it seems that there is not remarkably significant difference between them.

Table 4.2:

Independent samples t-test results for participants' performance on pre-test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		fort-test for Equality of Means			
	F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Equal variances assumed	.114	.737	1.9738		.056	.850

4. 2. Inferential Statistics

Table 4.2 shows that the significance level is greater than 0.05, so the assumption of homogeneity of two variances will be accepted. This indicated that there was no significant difference between the mean scores of pretest in both experimental and control groups. Therefore, it can be concluded that both groups had similar performances and their proficiency level was almost the same.

After analyzing the participants' pretest, their posttests were compared. The results of independent t-test on posttest are presented in Table 4.4.

Table 4.3:

Independent samples t-test results for participants' performance on post-test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means			
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Equal variances assumed	.094	.761	5.20	38	.000	2.300

Table 4.3 shows that the results of t-test suggest a p value of .000 which is less than the significance level set for the study (0.05), hence there is a significant difference between the mean scores of posttest in both experimental and control groups. Moreover, with regard to mean differences, the posttest' mean of experimental group is 2.3 scores higher than the posttest' mean of control group. To further check the intra group changes, paired t-test was used. The mean analysis of pretest and post-test scores for the experimental group suggested a normal distribution so it was necessary to use paired T-test. The result of this test is presented in table 4.4.

Table 4.4:

Paired samples t-test results comparing experimental group's performance on pretest and posttest

	Mean	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Posttest – Pretest	10.55	22.85	19	.000

Table 4.4 shows that the amount of Observed t is 22.85 with df=19 and significance level is 0.000 which is less than 0.05. This indicated that there was a significant difference between the mean of pre-test and post-test scores of experimental group. The mean of post-test is 10.55 points higher than the mean of pre-test. So, these results may imply that using pictorial cues effectively affected prepositional phrases knowledge of the experimental group. So instruction was effective in experimental group.
After comparing the experimental group' pre-posttest, the control groups performance on pre-test and post-test is also compared (Table 4.5).

Table 4.5:
Paired Samples t-test results comparing control group's performances on pretest and posttest

	Mean	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Posttest – Pretest	7.40	14.97	19	.000

Table 4.5 shows that the amount of Observed t is 14.97 and the significance level is 0.000 which indicates that there was a significant difference between the mean of pre-test and post-test scores in control group. The mean of post-test scores is 7.4 points higher than the mean of pre-test scores. So, instruction was effective in the control group, too.

5. Discussion

To discuss the results of the research, the research questions are referred to as follows:

RQ1. Do pictorial cues affect junior high schools students' knowledge of prepositional phrases?

The purpose of this study was to determine the effectiveness of teaching grammar through using pictorial cues. After analyzing the data, the results showed that there was not a significant difference among students' performance in pre-test, but in contrast there was a significant difference among the performances of the two groups in the post-test. Since the experimental groups outperformed the control groups, teaching through using pictorial cues is supposed to improve the grammar ability i.e., prepositional phrases knowledge of junior high school students.
It could be also observed that experimental group who received points related to prepositional phrases via using pictorial cues got better scores and their performance was better than the control group. It is worth mentioning that whereas all two experimental and control groups increased their scores from pretest to posttest; the teaching through using pictorial cues was more effective than teaching directly by the teacher himself.
This study also confirmed the results of Abkhoo, Gorjian, and Pazhakh (2014) who showed that visual modalities were the most effective modality in teaching spatial and temporal prepositions and the pictorial-speech modality was more effective than the audio one.
Picture aids in improving students' grammar knowledge is consistent with the previous studies like Abdolmanafi Rokni and Karimi (2013) who investigated the effects of visual materials such as pictures, real objects, and flash cards on EFL learners' vocabulary learning. They worked on 46 female intermediate students whom they were randomly divided into two groups-the experimental and control groups. It was found that the learning of words in the experimental group significantly increased more than that in the control group. Further, the participants in the experimental group perceived visual instruction as an effective way for learning vocabulary.

The results of this study are also congruent to the study of Saffarian, Gorjian, and Bavizadeh (2013); they investigated the effect of visual images on English as a foreign language (EFL) learners' retention of body idiomatic expressions. The conclusion showed that applying visual images had a significant effect on learners' retention of body idiomatic expressions.

Despite the common grounds that this study shared with other studies mentioned so far, the results of this study do not go with Pramono (2006) who comes to a conclusion that the types of pictures may be problematic for presenting spatial relations due to an ambiguity the pictures may create and so as may affect the understanding and use of preposition; this difference might be due to the researchers' care in choosing the pictures.

RQ2. Is there any significant difference between Junior high schools students who use pictorial cues in learning prepositional phrases with the learners who are taught traditionally?

In order to arrive at a logical answer to the second research question, the obtained data were analyzed through independent and paired samples t-tests. According to results presented in chapter 4, there was a significant difference in teaching prepositional phrases among experimental group using pictorial cues and control group which received grammar instruction directly and conventionally by the teacher. Based on obtained results the means of two groups were different.

The results of this study support Gersten and Baker (2000) who found the positive effects of visual aids on English language development. Also the findings of Lockee and Herget (1995) that focus on the familiarity with visual aids leads to learning development are consistent with the findings of this research which confirms the positive effect of visual dictation on grammar development. It is also consistent with the findings of Bazeli (1997) who believes that, using visual aids leads to the enhancement of critical thinking skill so it helps students to learn effectively. It is believed that grammar learning is the central part of language learning and has great importance for language learners.

These results also supported the study conducted by Farzamipooya (2014) in which confirmed the effects of visuals and pictures; she investigated the effects of visual dictation as a technique on learning grammar throughout low-elementary children. The final results depicted that experimental group had better performance than the control group. The findings suggest the effectiveness of visual dictation as a pedagogical technique when it comes to teaching grammar.

Moreover, the findings of this study are consistent with Elmén (2003) who aimed at finding out about the impact of pictures as an aesthetical tool in English language teaching, through an experiment in the English classroom. According to the survey, the results were in favor of using aesthetical tools in the English language classroom: the students were positive towards the assignment by a vast majority, with only a small part being against it.

6. Conclusion

This study began with the assumption that using pictorial cues could enhance the Iranian pre-intermediate EFL learners' grammar learning ability. The experimental group was received the new grammatical points, i.e., prepositional phrases through pictures, posters and other visual aids in the classroom. And the control group received conventional instruction such as drills, explanation by the teacher himself. The instructor explored to see if the application using different pictorial cues have any effect on the Iranian EFL learners' grammar improvement.

Having administered the pre-test and post-test and analyzing the data through specific statistical analysis of Independent and paired samples t-tests, the researchers found that results indicated that the instruction of using pictorial cues did affect the learners' grammar learning and improvement.

Based on the findings, bringing pictorial cues such as pictures, posters, realia and etc, might attract students' attention. The students may not feel bored with the class environment. This may cause greater concentration on the learning materials. In addition, there could be friendly and positive atmospheres in the classroom. This atmosphere is supposed to increase learners' relaxation much more than where learners receive instructions through traditional approaches and focusing just on grammar and form in the texts. Finally, the learners seemed more motivated in learning grammar through visual aids. In this way, learning may not be any more a difficult activity for them.

To sum up, the findings of this study may be effective if EFL instructors attempt to help students to develop their grammar knowledge since the results of this research demonstrated that the utilization of pictorial cues, i.e. using pictures and posters helped learners to enhance their grammar and vocabulary.

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MJLTM

PARRHESIATIC MANIPULATION OF DISCOURSE IN 1984 AND ANIMAL FARM

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ABSTRACT
THIS ARTICLE INVESTIGATES THE APPLICATION OF PARREHSIA AS A LINGUISTIC POWER TOOL IN POLITICS DOMINATED SOCIETIES AS REFLECTED IN GEORGE ORWELL'S *1984* AND *ANIMAL FARM*, TWO DYSTOPIAN COMMUNITIES IN WHICH *MEN OF AUTHORITY* AND *MEN IN AUTHORITY* MAKE THEIR BEST TO MAINTAIN THEIR DOMINANCE OVER THE SUBJECTS, PROLETARIANS, AS THEIR MAIN OBJECTIVE. ON THEIR WAY TO MORE POWER AND DOMINANCE, THE POWER PEOPLE USE, OR MISUSE, LANGUAGE TO EXCAVATE THE REAL INTENTIONS OF THE SUBJECTS TO DEFUSE ANY POSSIBLE CONSPIRACY OR POWER LOSS. PARREHSIA IS ONE OF THE TRICKY WAYS PRACTICED BY SOME TOTALITARIAN AND DESPOTIC RULERS IN CONTRAST TO SOME OTHERS OF THE SAME CATEGORY WHO UTILIZE FORCE AND MILITARY THREATS TO SOLIDIFY THEIR TYRANNY. *1984* AND *ANIMAL FARM* SHOW TWO OPPOSITE ASPECTS OF THE USE OF LANGUAGE AND DISCOURSE AS POWER TOOL WHICH IS ALSO WITNESSED IN SOME TOTALITARIAN SOCIETIES VERY TODAY.

KEYWORDS: PARRHESIA, PARRHESIATIC, FOUCAULDIAN POWER TOOLS, MEN OF POWER, CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS, LANGUAGE

"Where I found a living creature**,** there I found will to power."
(Nietzsche, *Thus Spake Zarathustra*, 1961, 137)

1. Introduction

"Parrhesia" ("Parrhesiastes") and "Parrhesiastic" are all derivatives from the same root that refer to a concept, hidden but latent, since the ancient times. They were first introduced by Michel Foucault who dug them up from the ancient works coming down from Greco-Roman era. He believes that the term was first registered in the literature by Euripides, who lived in the fifth century B.C., and descended down into the fifth century A. D. with a flourishing and pervasively popular background. *Oxford English Dictionary* defines it as "frankness or freedom of speech." Therefore, the English translation of the word is "free speech." In French "franc-parler," and in German "Freimuthigkeit" are the commonly and widely accepted significations (Michel Foucault, Oct-Nov. 1983).

According to the definitions Foucault excavated from the origins of this term, Parrhesia is a deserved or granted right given to the speaker or obtained by him for the expression and disclosure of a kind of truth

which might contain harm or loss of any sort directed to the addressee who holds always a relatively higher social position compared to that of the speaker. With regard to this fact, parrhesia roots from a powerful resource or power center like authoritative personage, and its winning by the speaker is to gain, at least provisionally, a powerful state to express the intended truth, mostly in a criticizing manner. Therefore, parrhesia, as one of the usages of language as power tool, can itself be regarded as a power tool which is resorted either to gain more power (to state something impressively), or to diminish or steal some power from the opponent (by undermining the reputation and validity), or, at least, but mostly applied, to curb the sharpness of the rage of the addressee or secure his own safety against this probable wrath which may ensue from the declaration of a given bitter fact.

2. Literature Review: Power and its Resources

The struggle for power is pervasive in all facets of life, individual or societal, private or public, in infinite forms and shapes, manipulating any sort of means that leads to the practical or ideal tackling of superiority and dominance. The main objective of all individuals, groups, unions, communities, nations and governments is to gain the triumph of having access to one of the means that facilitates the struggle for them or scales up the probability of their victory. Parents and kids, teachers and students, husbands and wives, bosses and slaves all are engaged in a continuous contention of power hunting and dominance possessing rivalry. However, what is "power" and where does it emanate from? Socialists believe that "the unequal distribution of property . . . is a source of power, i.e., the means by which some can manipulate or threaten others" (Barry 85). In his definition, Michel Foucault removes the limits put on the origins of "power" that confine it to a specific source or phenomenon. Instead, he believes that "power is everywhere; not because it embraces everything, but because it comes from everywhere" (Foucault 1981, 93). Generation gap, segregation of the sexes, political oppositions, scientific researches, religion, spirituality, language acquisition, eloquence, parrhesia . . . all are sources of the said power struggle and means to achieve the power positions. The word "power" is exposed to various interpretations and definitions so that finding a determined and vivid clarification of this complex and ambiguous word seems to be impossible. Nearly all philosophers, politicians, scholars, men of letters, etc., from the very ancient era up to the present, have, in a way or other, dealt with this multivalent term.

In the meantime, power is an abstract phenomenon that cannot be observed directly, and "our evidence is used in *indirect* ways to establish the truth" (Morriss 145). As Bertrand Russell defines, power is the "production of intended effects," therefore, the effects of power practice are the only evidences to prove its existence: "our observation is limited to *performance*, to what a thing (or person) in fact does in specific occasions. Its powers and their congeners do not lie open to public view" (Morriss, 124). This characteristic makes it more difficult and complex to give a clear-cut definition though innumerous definitions have been issued by various people, each depicting their own perception and understanding of power. Some take it as a solid, fixed, inflexible and unleashed phenomenon that intrudes into the remotest corners of the personal or public lives, natural or artificial, and obliges the affected to be driven into the desired way or status. Others see it as a dynamic and flexible abstract that does not equal the negativity of the "force" but usually plays a neutral role in its effect issuance.

For Russell, as discussed in the introduction of his book, *Power: A New Social Analysis*, power is a dynamic phenomenon liberated from any sort of restricted forms such as wealth, economics, militarism, propaganda, and the like. For the militarists of the 18thc. and 19thc. and the socialists and economists such as Marx, on the other hand, military and economic forces were the real form of power. However, Russell believes that power cannot be limited to any of these forms as its ultimate and only form, but rather, power can be witnessed in any of these outfits as its one form from a group of forms.

Some orthodox economists' ideas, including Marx himself, were misunderstood or mistaken in seeing economic self-interest as the basic and primary motive in the social nexus. The ambition for commodities, when deprived from glory and power, is limited and a moderate competence can fully satisfy it. Love for material comfort does not necessarily dictate the really expensive desires. These kinds of commodities

passed as a legislature became subservient through corruption which is usually tolerated for the sake of glory and power, not solely as affording comfortable positions to possess. After assuring a moderate degree of comfort, both groups, individuals and communities, will follow higher power positions rather than mere wealth, thus, turning wealth into just a means to gain power and power positions. They may desire wealth as a tool to power, or they may be interested in accumulation of wealth to secure an increase in power position, but in either case wealth is neither the ultimate objective nor the fundamental motive. In this regard, Foucault clarifies that "the effects of power" are not only "repression," believing that normally

one adopts a purely juridical conception of such power; one identifies power with a law which says no; power is taken above all as carrying the force of a prohibition. Now I believe that this is a wholly negative, narrow, skeletal conception of power, one which has been curiously widespread. If power were never anything but repressive, if it never did anything but to say no, do you really think one would be brought to obey it? What makes power hold good, what makes it accepted, implies the fact that it doesn't only weigh on us as a force that says no, but that it traverses and produces things, it induces pleasure, forms knowledge, produces discourse. It needs to be considered as a productive network which runs throughout the whole social body. (Foucault 1980, 119)

Various scholars have categorized the term "power" into different classifications. "Hobbes distinguished between political power and physical power" (Barry 87). Political power is the kind of power that is found within the societal texture through which one, via threat and sanctions, obtains the obedience of the other, but in the meantime, it contains a type of consent. It is in effect a motivation blended with fear that makes the subject obey "voluntarily" (Barry 87). "It is not therefore the victory that giveth the right of dominion over the vanquished, but his own covenant. Nor is he obliged because he is conquered . . . but because he commeth in and submitteth to the victory (Hobbes 255-6). On the other hand, there is no consent or "voluntary" submission in the physical power (556). The physical power of Hobbes can be taken as equal to the "force" and "coercion". Like the force that a bank robber or a highwayman has over his victims. Although he may oblige them to submit or obey his desires and orders, he can never gain real, sustainable power over them. "The Americans in Vietnam were able to deliver massive force but this obviously did not give them power. In fact, the United States of America's involvement in Vietnam was characterized by the absence of power despite their possession of the instruments of force" (Barry 88).

3. The Use of Language as a Power Tool

New Historicists, under the influence of Foucault, believe that "the nature of power may remain the same," but the forms it takes in different situations are various (Branningan 8). There are different means through which one can get to the desired power. Politics, sexuality, science, economy, history, religion, etc. are different ways via which one can secure his/her dominance over the others. However, all these means, in themselves, are partly or completely dependent on language and become effective through discourse. This section investigates the role attributed to language as power tool. I will discuss its significance in creating fiction and representing it to us as reality out of fact, or factual reality. The reality that is based on fact is expected to represent, if not comprehensively, some aspects of it, at least. This being impossible, due to the imperfect perception of facts by the observer, the author's fiction making talent comes into play, imagination and fancy intervene which, despite the defects in language as the medium of communication, try to fill up the gaps to provide the readers with a satisfactorily accepted and adapted reality. Naipaul's travel books employ the same elements to create reality through fictions, and sometimes through fancies. He uses fictional devices to convince himself and his readers of his ideas and opinions. Thus, he presents his created worlds to his readers as the only or one of the preferred realities that others fail to see due to familiarization and blindness (Naipaul 75). However, all this is based on language through which a writer can communicate his findings and inventions with his sympathetic

readers.[15] As Branningan puts it, the main purpose of language has always been the exchange of the thoughts that are, otherwise, not easily possible:

Discourse, by which it is meant all sign systems and generators of meaning, is the only material subject of the study, and therefore the only route to the past, to self, to any form of knowledge. Discourse is also, of course, the system through which we describe and read, through which More fashioned himself, and through which we fashion our study of him. (Brannigan 62)

According to Brannigan, language is not limited to the oral or verbal systems only, but the signs of any kind that carry meaning, e.g. facial expressions or gestures, can also be classified in this category (63). However, as Stephen Greenblatt reiterates in his "Invisible Bullets," "even in the absence of substantial social pressure, people lie quite readily about their most intimate beliefs" (19). Therefore language as a communicational medium is by no means a reliable medium in exchanging factual data.

There are different means through which one can get to the desired power and power position. Language, politics, sexuality, science, economy, history etc. are miscellaneous ways via which one can secure his dominance over others. Three of the means of power: science, sexuality and language that are considered to be three very important tools in gaining power and dominance over the others. This article investigates the role attributed to language as power tool and will cover its significance partially under the appellation of Parrhesia.

Human being is the only primate that has been prosperously lucky enough among all the primates of lower levels and living creatures to possess a brain capable of using his natural talent in the way of inventing, learning and producing language and discourse to communicate with his fellows, not only the trivial everyday affairs of life but even the remotest ideas in the realm of the abstracts. The main purpose of language has always been exchange of thoughts that are not detectable otherwise.

Discourse, by which it is meant all sign systems and generators of meaning, is the only material subject of the study, and therefore the only route to the past, to self, to any form of knowledge. Discourse is also, of course, the system through which we describe and read, through which More fashioned himself, and through which we fashion our study of him. (Brannigan 62)

According to Brannigan language, or its subcategories, "discourses," is not limited to the oral or verbal systems, but it includes signs of any kind that carry meaning, e.g., facial expressions or gestures, which can also be classified in that category.

Despite all the shortcomings and defects diagnosable in human biological and artificial media of perception, transmission, and interpretation of data, we still rely on these media as the only possible means to interconnect the world within with the world without to create a unified reality. As discussed in the introduction to this thesis, the perception and the interpretation of the data depends substantially on language which intrudes uninvitedly into our perception and judgments. Hence, language is extremely influential on the mind of its speakers. There is a direct interaction between the language one produces and the thinking process that takes place in his mind. A civilized and mentally developed individual, who enjoys a systematic and progressed mind, usually, displays his thoughts and intentions through a systematic and developed discourse. A nation's degree of civilization has profound impact on the language they are using and, conversely, a sophisticated language deeply influences its speakers' minds and thoughts. Therefore, the condition of the speaker's mind has a direct impact on the quality and complexity of the produced language. The same is true about the effects that a language has upon the thinking quality of the person. The influence of language in the evolution of human being is to a degree that the development of the child's brain depends strictly on the level of his/her dominance on the mother tongue or the acquired language. If s/he can manipulate the language freely and easily, s/he can extensively and effectively get involved in the data interaction among the others, and as a result help

[15] The first step in winning the mind of the reader and convincing him/her of the validity of the ideas presented in the work is to gain her/his sympathy. If the reader does not sympathize with the writer it looks nearly impossible for the writer to transmit his opinions and experiences to his readers.

her/his mind grow freely and maturely. Similarly, a defected language leaves its negative impact upon the minds of its speakers. As a result of this, all the thoughts and opinions in all fields of studies come under the influence of language in their formation and transmission. As Bertrans de Jouvenel notes,

The elementary political process is the action of mind upon mind through speech. Communication by speech completely depends upon the exercise in the memories of both parties of a common stock of words to which they attach much the same meanings. Even as people belong to the same culture by the use of the same language, so they belong to the same society by the understanding of the same moral language. As this common moral language extends, so does society; as it breaks up, so does society. (304)

Therefore, via manipulating the language of a given nation, one can control the minds of its speakers and ultimately dominate their behavior and destiny. But how is language, or as Foucault calls it "discourse," controlled within a given society? Government, mass media, writers, educational institutes are some of the agents and tools through which one can control language and ultimately the masses.

The condition of the speaker's mind has a direct impact on the quality and complexity of the produced language. The same is true about the effect that the language has upon the thinking quality of the person. The development of the child's brain depends strictly on its dominance on the mother tongue. If he can manipulate the language freely and easily, s/he can extensively and perfectly get involved in the data interaction among the fellows, and as a result help her/his mind grow freely and maturely. Similarly, a defected language leaves its negative impact upon the mind of its speakers. As Bertrans de Jouvenel notes

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Therefore, via manipulating the language of a given nation, one may control the minds of its speakers and ultimately to dominate their behavior and destiny by gaining more power. But how is language, or as Foucault calls it "discourse", controlled within a selected society? In his "Discourse on Language", Foucault classifies the ways of the control of discourse into two main categories: external systems (Rules of Exclusion) and internal systems. He further explains the "external delimitations" as, prohibition, the opposition of reason and madness and the opposition between true and false. Prohibition refers to the limitations of the application of language to the expression of any idea or thought since we are not free to say just anything, when we like or where we like. Parrhesia requires a specific condition to be able to display itself and flourish. In the modern era, the fields that are very closely connected with prohibition are "politics, sexuality, mad speech" and scientific or philosophical speech, and more of them any sort of speech that may face the ruling authority with harmful outcomes which in turn may undermine their institutionalized niche.

The prohibition applied to speech and language "reveals its links with power." Since the hunt for knowledge and science is the hunt for "truth," Foucault looks at the time in history when truth moved from the power of the sayer to the content of what was enunciated -- its meaning, its form, its object and its relation to what it referred. If the sayer is a man of knowledge who owes his authority only to his own real personality and not to the predetermined governmental or social positions, he has more authoritative and powerful influence over the other classes of the society. For the same reason, parrhesia gains more sense when it is distinguished in a network of communal relations between at least two persons of unequal social statuses.

Therefore, language is the only determinant factor in producing meaning, shaping identities and creating thoughts, and hence, fictions, realities, and truths.[16] It is a major element of the culture of an individual

and his/her society as well. It is language through which we communicate with the environment, and through which our mind forms its shape. It is language that enables us to have access to any kind of information and knowledge from and about everywhere and everything. An author and his readers are able to communicate, as mentioned above, through a language which carries predetermined and common codes. And the tactful and finely measured employment of these codes can leave the desired impact on the minds of language users. The mastery on the common language between the speaker and his audience is an essential requirement for this purpose.

Naipaul, as the unifying element of his texts, as author, through his mastery on English language, utilizes *prohibition*[17] and *commentary* in his travelogues to inject truth and reality into his accounts. Discarding and censoring some of his characters who do not comply with his opinions and flowering some other characters' views on his own line is of this fallacy Foucault hits on. Samples of this kind of selective and inclined manipulation of discourse are discussed in the rest of this article.

As a result of the artistic manipulation of the language as the medium of communication between the traveler and the reader, the question of the fair representation of "the self" and "the other" in modern travel books comes under suspicion. As Edward Said debates in "Representing the Colonized," language cannot be regarded as reliable source of truth nor a stable phenomenon any more. Under the shadow of optimism, the "representation" turns out to be "dubious" or, in a cynical interpretation, it results in a kind of "hegemonic discourse."[18] In support of Said's idea, I can refer to Blanton who believes that, according to Niccolò Machiavelli, "signs are slippery as well as creative, […] language was given to men and women so they could lie" (Brooks 6). This suspicion may not be generalized to "all," as Naipaul does, but it can nurture the questionability of the absoluteness of truth and reality in the mind of the readers about what they read or hear. In the study of fiction and reality, however, the main discussion does not deal with the question of "false" and "truth" since reality, especially, is regarded to be closely connected to "truth". The symptoms of fiction and fictional reality can be found in any kind of writing, but the extent and degree they go, and an unbiased and systematic scrutiny of the applied discourse determines their degree of compatibility with the facts.

4. Parrhesia as a Power Tool

Foucault distinguishes two aspects of parrhesia, namely, "pejorative sense of the word not very far from 'chattering' which consists of saying any or everything one has in his mind without qualification" and the characteristic that ensues from the "exact coincidence between belief and truth" ("Parrhesia and Truth"). This "coincidence" can be taken as a rough equivalent to *naivety* in the social relationships since its practitioner does not seem to possess a complicated mental structure in processing and producing the data compliant with the social conditions which reject relentlessly the bare and direct verdicts stated,

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[16] Some of my readers may challenge that reality and truth are two different phenomena. This idea is by no means questionable since the two words are representing two different ideas, no matter how similar or different, they can hardly be identical.

[17] Foucault defines *prohibition* in terms of the interpersonal relations among social individuals: "We know perfectly well that we are not free to say just anything, when we like or where we like." Foucault classifies *prohibition* into three categories:

1. covering objects
2. ritual with its surrounding circumstances
3. the privileged or exclusive right to speak of a particular subject

However, these three types of *prohibition* constantly interrelate, reinforce and complement one another to forming a continually modifiable complex network. The social domains that are subject to *prohibition* today are politics and sexuality. The *prohibitions* related to discourse reveal their relationships with desire and power.

[18] http://www.uchicago.edu/research/jnl-crit-inq/issues/v15/v15n2said.html

especially when it tends to harm the reputation of the others. Moreover, s/he does not have the advantage of calculating, assaying, studying or handling the communal and personal affairs deliberately, conservatively and circumspectly. However, if the case is to be considered under benevolent light, this type of character may be taken as the stereotype and prototype of a frank and straightforward person who holds a bold bravery in expressing what is right regardless of the outside forays or threats that may unsteady his/her social position. With the excessiveness of the latter meaning, like the former one, the possessor can be turned into a caricature character that is the subject of comic situations or release and purgatory factor of the tragic ones. However, the latter one, in its moderate form, can be the special characteristic of a serious and tragic character embedded with a feature of the heroic personality in grave settings.

Further in social contexts, there is a communicative relationship between the citizens called "parrhesiastic game" in which, at least, two persons are involved, the speaker and the addressee. If the speaker is a parrhesiastes, then he has got tendency to be frank and straightforward in whatever he says, of course, due to his deep belief in the truthfulness of his saying and the idea he is disclosing. He believes he has got a divine duty to be so to secure the place of the truth and justice in the given community. Although this sort of relationship is considered to be one aspect of the "power struggle," it does not occur between any pairs of individuals or groups picked up at random, rather it is restricted only to the couples in which the speaker is inferior to the addressee, like the position most of the citizens have to the rulers and political or official supervisors. Since parrhesia includes criticizing and censuring factors in itself, it renders the speaker's standing position very vulnerable to the harms or punishments retaliatively returned from the addressee, who usually tries to save the security of his own position as the most important priority. Therefore, we may take parrhesia as equal to the "freedom of speech" that is a hot debate subject in the modern political communities as one of the vigorous means in the *power play*.

Foucault believed that the very presence of such a phenomenon like parrhesia in a given society secures it from getting inflicted by any tyrannical or dictatorial powers and prevents the rulers from changing the possessed power into a despotic and monopolistic tool. Therefore, it plays the role of a reliever that brings the state back to power balance and acts as a blocker against potential dictatorship and totalitarianism. Evidences of parrhesia can be easily traced in most of the societal and communal contacts and relationships; consequently in the works of literature, that are themselves reflecting some of the regional or universal aspects of the human life and thought.

In its second meaning, that gives it a political signification, parrhesia is regarded to be one of the power tools, discussed by Foucault and his literary followers, that is manipulated and used to gain the status of dominance over the other fellows or people in the same position or lower social ranks and orders to enjoy the security in the social communication played with the inhabitants of the community. George Orwell, who was himself a socialist, divorced from socialism, and social critic, detached from any political bias and twist, introduces and expands his ideas in his own works, inclusive of his considerations about language and its despotic manipulation which turns it into a means paving the way to more dominance by power holder over masses and proletariat.

5. Discussion: Parrhesia in *1984* and *Animal Farm*

While reading *1984* and *Animal Farm*, frequently we see that those in authority take different social phenomena like *language*, *science*, *sexuality*, *politics*, etc. as diverse ways to more power and dominance over the masses. In *1984,* we come across personages like "Big Brother" (politics), the movement that changes English into Newspeak (language), the story of the sexual conduct like "Anti sex League," the false and pretentious wars among the three mega-states, etc. Parrhesia is another tool that the government of Eurasia (and more probably the rulers of the two other states) applies to probe into the minds of its subjects like Winston to diminish them down to mere subjugated servants of the state, if applicable, or eliminate them entirely from the Platonic Utopia, which has turned into Satanic Dystopia for the proletariat and masses.

In *1984* and *Animal Farm*, we encounter two different treatments of Parrhesia, each leaving its specific impact upon the subjects and bringing about the dominance over them. In *1984*, parrhesia, as "freedom of speech," is utilized in a more discreet and complicated way to only ensnare the victim and dissenter, Winston, by giving him a deceptive chance to speak out his mind before O'Brian and to betray himself unconsciously to the Party that is trying to pounce at its victims any moment to nullify the probability of any kind of secret or potential conspiracy. In the study of social relations this type of utilization of language that is applied to parrhesia is considered to be the most abhorrent and malignant side of the case that Orwell has managed to depict in its deepest effect, the fatally wicked and virulent nature of the Party which itself consequently represents the despotic states that are fooling their subjects maliciously and cruelly out of the false truth residing in their minds, shut in away from the outsiders and outside environment.

The notion of the "modern power" comes into existence through Foucault's distinguishing of the traditional or "sovereign power" from the "modern" one. In *The Order of Things,* he believes that "in classical society power was fixed, visible, mappable, in modern society it is uncontainable, untheorizable, productive" (During 119). Sovereign power is concentrated at the central part of the community where the head of the society, the King, resides, above whom God stands at the highest. Power is perfect at God's site but decreases gradually descending hierarchically down through the layers of the society and nullifies at the outskirts of the communal colony (148-9).

In *Animal Farm* we see a more primitive face of the power struggle which belongs to traditional way of dominance gaining procedure, in which direct suppression and silencing of the dissidents and defectors (the animals grumbling their dissatisfaction with the misery of their present conditions of living and the unfair distribution of the resources among the animals by the elites, the pigs). This kind of suppression and perfect ban on parrhesia belongs to the older tyrannical governments who used mostly to rule over a society whose inhabitants were not of educated nor developed mentality to render the direct and straightforward actions coming down from the authority flat and ineffective. The only tool that sufficed their purpose was the bare force and naked constraint which were installed normally on the spear points and sword blades.

As the people grew more civilized and developed their communities, the authority followed their ways of thinking in structure and form. The more complicated and labyrinth framework, the more complex and intricate system to govern their dominance over the newer generations. Unlike sovereign power that is centralized at the core of the society, disciplinary power, as one aspect of the modern power, "works in quite strictly delimited spaces" (During 151). It is privatized and concentrated on the "individuals as individuals rather than either as members of castes or as markers of a wider cosmic or social order" (151). It is usually maneuvering on sites like "factories, prisons, schools and hospitals, and its "object is behaviour and the individual body; its tools are surveillance, examinations [and] training" (151).

As the name displays, disciplinary power deals with "discipline" and "order". It is applied to subdue and control the "mad", "nomad", "mobs" and the like. The main aim of this kind of power is to discipline the individuals through surveillance or self-mastery. It is
centered on the body as a machine; its disciplining, the optimization of its capabilities, the extortion of its forces, the parallel increase of its usefulness and its docility, its integration into systems of efficient and economic controls, all this was ensured by the procedures of power that characterized the *disciplines:* an *anatomo-politics of the human body.* (Foucault 1980, 139)

Deceptive use of parrhesia to wrest the opposite minds and contra-thoughts out of truth is a more modern method of surveillance that brings about the complete and safe dominance upon the others through utilizing a variety of instruments, mental or physical, to get to the self mastery via which the person comes to a kind of belief in the dominant's ideals that "2+2=5." Through special methods

practiced (in the sanitary houses, schools and other collective institutions in general) "social norms and stereotypes" are set, and as a result of their effects they "strengthen discipline and increase production" (During 153). Since the personal characteristics and the mental structure of the individuals, and consequently the personalities of the people, are configured in the society and among the other fellows, "disciplinary power infiltrates and shapes most modern institutions" (153).

In his *Discipline & Punish: the Birth of the Prison*, Foucault studies the disciplinary methods resorted in the traditional and the modern worlds. One of the major ways of distributing discipline and order in a society in question is "punishment" and "penalty" imposed on the "delinquent." The strongest of these means was believed to be "public execution and punishment" that is vividly witnessed in *Animal Farm*; for instance, the execution of the animals that had plotted conspiracies against the revolution to undermine and eventually topple down the revolutionary government (the pigs). However, in the modern world the case has become completely different. Now capital punishment or public execution is no longer regarded to be widely acceptable due to its undesired consequences such as stimulation of mass emotions.

Today, education and training is a more appreciated method in bringing the lawbreakers under control and discipline. Education and discipline can carry the meaning of framing the mind in a preferred way which is not unlike the so-called *brainwash*. In the modern societies, no matter how much they tend toward democracy or away from it, freedom of speech is a granted right to the public, in schools, universities, different institutions and the like, not to meet the criteria of the human rights nor to widen the nations' freedom, but more likely to give them a falsified chance to betray their hidden or shying ideas due to some political preferences or tyrannical necessities.

O'Brian's expedient intimacy with Winston is of this most modern type of power hunting tools in which parrhesia is used as a more indirect method of wresting confession. Since outrageous public punishments like decapitating, scaffolding, pillorying, . . ., as means of rectifying the criminals usually enticed the crowd and mob into mutiny and violent reactions and made "heroes" out of the criminals, and sometimes their practice turned out to be more troublesome than being ways of imposing and strengthening discipline for the executioners, i.e. judges, police and the prince, modern rulers are obliged (!) to apply parrhesia, first, to make the suspect betray himself publicly, preferably before the camera eyes shooting their miserable condition and regretful faces for the masses, then, as its natural consequence, to stock themselves with the opportunity of even punishing the renegade in more cruel and serious ways, like realizing their ideal in "Room 101" and putting him on the Procrustean bed ultimately.

In *Discipline and Punish*, Foucault provides one aspect of the public execution (during non-Carnival time), in the "spectacle of the scaffold," as an effective punishment:
If the crowd gathered round the scaffold, it was not simply to witness the sufferings of the condemned man or to excite the anger of the executioner: it was also to hear an individual who had nothing more to lose curse the judges, the laws, the government and religion. The public execution allowed the luxury of these momentary saturnalia, when nothing remained to prohibit or to punish. Under the protection of imminent death, the criminal could say everything and the crowd cheered....In these executions, which ought to show only the terrorizing power of the prince, there was a whole aspect of the carnival, in which rules were inverted, authority mocked and criminals transformed into heroes. (60-1)

Foucault believes that "the history of penal punishment passes through three main stages": the first stage being "punishment as spectacular", through which the delinquents and sinners were displayed to the public in manacles, fetter and pillories to bring shame and embarrassment upon the criminals who went beyond the norm of the society. Second phase is "humane punishment, which aimed to recuperate the criminal" by education and cultivation that were and are being carried out in the prisons and penitentiaries in the modern civilized societies. The third is called "normalizing punishment, which accepted the existence of crime in the society" (155).

According to Foucault all the above-mentioned methods used to bring the criminals, delinquents and individuals of the society under control, are ways of expanding the dominance over the subjects and increasing the power of the government behind a favorable mask and without harming the society members or compelling them into the actions by physical force. Though the appearance of the case is bringing order and discipline into the society, its real nature is nothing but gaining more power upon the masses constituting the various classes of the community.

In *Animal Farm* we have the first form of the punishment pervasively used on the farm by the assistance of "the dogs" trained to guard the pigs and to punish the other rebellious animals if necessary which leads the animals to the realization of their own miserable condition of living as mere losers and finally nurturing in them the seed of another possible revolution. This mistake has been removed from the more sophisticated society of the year 1984, which represents a modern era with its developed punishment and controlling instruments and methods, by the misuse of free speech to only sucking the games down to deeper parts of the quagmire.

The state is very clever and skillful in using the newest high-tech in the way of controlling the mind of the masses and scrutinizingly studying the behavior of the individuals in order to minimize the probability of any "facecrime" or even "thoughtcrime" by round the clock monitoring of the private lives of the selected persons. But even if horrible, these methods sometimes suffer lapses in picking up the delinquents. In comparison with the confession, authorities surreptitiously encourage the subjects into using personal diaries in which the writer pens his innermost thoughts and notions, and parrhesia through which the speaker is provided with an apparently secure chance to speak out his thoughts, but, in fact, to eviscerate himself in its easiest way.

Manipulation of discourse and abuse of parrhesia as socio-political advantage granted upon the citizens is an issue of concern in some contemporary societies. The examples can go to Iran and N. Korea at the two extremes of the problem. The relative and apparent freedom in Iran is targeted at the self-betrayal of the dissident minds through confession to the trumped-up conspiracies through their writings or speeches. Many weblogs and websites were closed down during the civil protests in 2009, after a relative freedom of speech granted on the intellectuals to collar them after self-betrayal. This kind of manipulation of discourse and freedom is more visible in modern despotic communities. Some former and current communist countries such as North Korea still resort a traditional application of suppress which used to be pervasive in pre-modern monarchic societies. This sort of freedom suppression is resulting in more dissidence although latent for a proper opportunity in future.

6. Conclusion

By controlling the language and ultimately controlling the minds of its speakers, the Party will be able to drive the speakers to lose, after one or two generations, their ability to speak or even think in a way other than the Party prefers. As a result, the possibility of any oppositional speaking or problematic thinking will be thwarted in the bud, and the danger of any kind of revolt or revolutionary movement will be entirely eliminated. To fulfill this important task the despotic governments utilize various means and methods. For this purpose the monarch needs to probe into the minds of his subjects to master the way they think and the things they ponder on to be able to control them in a more efficient way.

Laputan rulers in *Gulliver's Travels* apply a traditional but apparently scientific way to analyze the thoughts through excrement tests, and Taliban in Afghanistan use force and cruelty to nullify the dangerous ideas similarly. But the sole Party in *1984* manipulates a cleverer procedure to make Winston confess not as a result of physical torture or threatening force but by tantalizing him into his unconscious confession and devoted self-destruction. This method is nothing but Parrhesia that grants a temporary freedom under unfelt and unnoticed monitoring that entices the victim to betray himself without any

apparently active role taken by the rulers. This proves to be a more effective way in managing the individuals and potentially insurgent masses to gain a more political power over them.

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MJLTM

ON THE IMPACT OF INTERACTIVE AND NON-INTERACTIVE POWERPOINT SLIDES ON IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS' SPEAKING ABILITY

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ABSTRACT
THIS STUDY WAS DESIGNED TO INVESTIGATE THE EFFECTS OF INTERACTIVE AND NON-INTERACTIVE POWERPOINT SLIDES ON THE SPEAKING ABILITY OF IRANIAN UPPER-INTERMEDIATE EFL LEARNERS. TO THIS END, 60 FEMALE LEARNERS STUDYING IN SAADAT ENGLISH LANGUAGE INSTITUTE IN LAHIJAN, WITH THE AGE RANGE OF 18 TO 26, WERE SELECTED FROM 70 PARTICIPANTS BASED ON THEIR PERFORMANCE ON QPT. THE PURPOSE OF QPT WAS TO HOMOGENIZE THE PARTICIPANTS BASED ON THEIR PROFICIENCY LEVEL. THE PARTICIPANTS WERE RANDOMLY ASSIGNED TO EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS. EACH GROUP CONSISTED OF 30 PARTICIPANTS. A PRE-TEST WAS ADMINISTERED TO ALL THE PARTICIPANTS, AND THEN THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP RECEIVED INTERACTIVE POWERPOINT SLIDES FOR 10 SESSIONS WHILE THE CONTROL GROUP RECEIVED ITS NORMAL CLASSROOM TEACHING WITH NON-INTERACTIVE POWERPOINT SLIDES. A POST-TEST WAS THEN ADMINISTERED TO BOTH GROUPS. FINALLY, IT WAS REVEALED THAT THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP WHO RECEIVED INTERACTIVE POWERPOINT SLIDES OUTPERFORMED THE CONTROL GROUP IN SPEAKING ABILITY. THEREFORE, THE RESULTS OF THIS STUDY CONFIRMED THAT INTERACTIVE POWERPOINT SLIDES CAN SIGNIFICANTLY IMPROVE THE PARTICIPANTS' SPEAKING ABILITY. THE FINDINGS ALSO INDICATED THAT BOTH EFL TEACHERS AND LEARNERS CAN BENEFIT FROM PROFITABLE IMPLICATIONS OF THIS RESEARCH TO MAKE THEIR CLASSES INTERACTIVE AND MOTIVATING, AND PROVIDE A MEANINGFUL LEARNING FOR THE LEARNERS.

KEY WORDS: CALL, COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE, EFL LEARNERS, POWERPOINT PRESENTATION

1. Introduction

Speaking is a crucial part of second language learning and teaching. Despite its importance, for many years, teaching speaking has been undervalued and English language teachers have continued to teach speaking just as a repetition of drills or memorization of dialogues. However, today's world requires that the goal of teaching speaking should be improving students' communicative skills, because, only in that way, students can express themselves, and to achieve this goal, teachers need to encourage students to communicate in a second language.

The use of Technology has had an enormous impact on the world of education. The use of technology has many advantages for the field of education and particularly for foreign language education. Technology can build substantial interest by adding variety and bringing new experiences to the classroom. That is why technology is increasingly being promulgated as a powerful mechanism which can transform education (Deville, 2001).

Educational technology and Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) provide many benefits in EFL classrooms for teaching the Language skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing as well as vocabulary and grammar. Various CALL programs involve the use of computer and their application to teach and learn language in variety of ways. PowerPoint Presentation is also considered as a part of CALL. PowerPoint Presentation is a type of presentation software (PS) that allows users to show colored text and images with simple animation and sound. It helps to create audio, visual as well as audio-visual effects in the classrooms while teaching and can be highly effective in attracting and sustaining students' attention.

PowerPoint Presentation has been in existence for many years, it has just begun to spread to schools and ESL classrooms and must be exploited to its fullest while teaching a foreign language like English (Fisher, 2003). In this regard, the present study attempts to provide an insight into the value of using PowerPoint Presentation to present various instructions while teaching English as a foreign language in classrooms.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Speaking

Effective use of English as a second language (ESL) or foreign language (EFL) in oral communication is, without a doubt, one of the most common, but also highly complex activities people need to learn for their interpersonal communication. For most people, learning how to speak in a second language (L2) is seen to be much more important than reading and writing (Ya-ni, 2007).

However, foreign language learners, despite spending years developing their semantic and syntactic competences, have all probably, at some point, experience the frustrating feeling of not being able to participate effectively in L2 oral communication. According to Ur (1996), there are many factors that cause difficulty in speaking, and they are as follows:

1. Inhibition. Students are worried about making mistakes, fearful of criticism, or simply shy.
2. Nothing to say. Students have no motive to express themselves.
3. Low or uneven participation. Only one participant can talk at a time because of large classes and the tendency of some learners to dominate, while others speak very little or not at all.
4. Mother-tongue use. Learners who share the same mother tongue tend to use it because it is easier and because learners feel less exposed if they are speaking their mother tongue.

In addition, Rababa'h (2005) pointed out that there are many factors that cause difficulties in speaking English among EFL learners. Some of these factors are related to the learners themselves, the teaching strategies, the curriculum, and the environment. For example, many learners lack the necessary vocabulary to get their meaning across, and consequently, they cannot keep the interaction going. Inadequate strategic competence and communication competence can be another reason as well for not being able to keep the interaction going.

Some learners also lack the motivation to speak English. They do not see a real need to learn or speak English. Actually —motivation is the crucial force which determines whether a learner embarks in a task at all, how much energy he devotes to it, and how long he preservers (Littlewood, 1984, p. 53). The development of communicative skills can only take place if learners have the motivation and opportunity to express their own identity and relate with the people around them (Littlewood, 1981).

2.2. Technology-enhanced language teaching

The incorporation of technology into school-wide teaching pedagogy means that students will also develop digital literacy skills at the same time as acquiring a second language. It can be argued that because 'the ever expanding connectivity of digital technology is recasting social arrangements and relations in a more open, democratic and ultimately empowering manner' (Selwyn, 2013, p. 2), so

'teaching our students language in its traditional media is no longer enough' and 'increasingly, in everyday and professional life, people need the skills of electronic literacy.' (Healey, 2011, p. 9).

There are many definitions of digital literacy. Literature widely accepted Mike Levy's definition of Computer-Assisted Language Learning as "the search for and study of applications of the computer in language teaching and learning" (1997, p. 1). In his 2003 book, Teaching and Researching: Computer-assisted Language Learning, Tom Beatty defined CALL as "any process in which a learner uses a computer and, as a result, improves his or her language" (as cited in Hubbard, 2009, p. 1).
Stephen Bax (2003) identified the end goal of CALL as 'normalisation,' the "concept relative to any kind of technological innovation and refers to the stage when the technology becomes invisible, embedded in everyday practice and hence 'normalised'" (p. 23). He further suggested that as of 2003, CALL had not achieved this goal, but would when computers … are used every day by language students and teachers as an integral part of every lesson, like a pen or a book. Teachers and students will use them without fear or inhibition, and equally without an exaggerated respect for what they can do. They will not be the centre of any lesson, but they will play a part in almost all. They will be completely integrated into all other aspects of classroom life, alongside course books, teachers and notepads.
As CALL has evolved, there have been numerous studies to explain possible reasons for obstacles facing the normalization of computers in language education, including issues involving the teacher (Maftoon & Shahini, 2012). Through a qualitative and part ethnographic study at two sites in England, Andrea Chambers and Stephen Bax (2006, pp. 477-478) found four issues to be addressed if CALL was to be normalized:

1. Logistics (facilities incorporated with teaching space, classroom setup to facilitate easy transition between CALL and non-CALL activities, and teachers having enough planning and time to integrate computer use into their daily repertoire).
2. Stakeholders' (teachers and administrators) conceptions, knowledge and abilities (need to feel confident, realization that computer use is conductive to learning, and avoidance of 'technical fallacy' – the notion that hardware or software is the single factor of success or failure).
3. Syllabus and software integration (proper amalgamation of CALL into the syllabus, with sufficient teacher support and use of open source CALL materials to adapt them to better align with the syllabus).
4. Training, development and support (should be offered through a top-down – expert-novice collaborative approach, reliable support and encouragement to address and overcome fears and lack of skills, and pedagogical support).

2.3. Interactive PowerPoint slides

PowerPoint Presentation is one of the multimedia technologies. One of the most important uses of this technology is that it makes it easy for instructors to incorporate various multimedia into their teaching and instructions. It is a Presentation Software (PS) which is easy to use and easily available. It offers a complete presentation graphics package. It gives you everything you need to produce a professional-looking presentation. Presentation software (PS) is a computer application that makes it possible to combine text, graphics, images, and sound to create sophisticated multimedia presentations (Gordon, 2007, P. 192). Many teachers today, from elementary school to college and university level, are enthusiastically embracing PowerPoint Presentation as an instructional tool. It is argued that PowerPoint Presentation "enhances instruction and motivates students to learn" (Harrison, 1998, P. 9). Many believe that using PowerPoint Presentations with students is a productive learning activity (Alster, 2002; Mason & Hylnka, 1998). Yet many detractors believe that its rigid format stifles not only students' creativity, but also their ability to understand and convey information (Tufte, 2003; Keller, 2003). Wright (2009) also suggests that PowerPoint is a convenient prop for poor speakers. It can reduce complicated messages to simple bullet points. It also elevates style over substance. All these three things definitely contribute to its popularity and should therefore be exercised and practiced.

Researches exploring the effect of preparing PowerPoint presentations by students seem to be very limited. Gunel (2006) compared the effectiveness of writing summary report and preparing PowerPoint

presentation on students achievements on two units in physics lesson .The results indicated that students preparing the PowerPoint presentation scored significantly better on achievement test than the summary report format group .In another study, Gunel (2006) investigated the students' ability to choose the material and the content of PowerPoint presentations on professional topics via the internet as well as the ability to prepare and deliver the presentation in front of the audience . As the result, it was reported that preparing and delivering PowerPoint presentation improved students listening, speaking, reading and writing skills.

Other studies have shown that color is a factor in memory representation .For example, Hanna and Remington (1996) found that color, as a stimulus, is a part of memory representation. Allen (1990) submitted that colors are encoded as a verbal representation as well as in the perceptual mode in the form of a visual image. Proponents of power point presentations believe they improve learning through enhanced attention (Luna & McKenzie, 1997) improved recall through multimodal benefits, a matching of technologically learning styles with the latest technology. Catherina (2006) indicates that students think PowerPoint based lectures are more interesting than traditional lectures. Miltenoff (2003) indicates that PowerPoint can be used as a multimedia and interactive tool. Pictures, animation, sound effects, and music can greatly enhance the quality of the presentation. It is much easier to use attractive fonts, photos, clipart, tables, and graphs in PowerPoint. According to Coulthard and Hutchinson (1996), —On the one hand, PowerPoint presentations are more effective and they can take less time and effort to create. On the other hand, teachers can improve the quality of PowerPoint presentations while dramatically reducing their production time and budgets.

2.4. Objective of the Study

This study aimed at examining the effects of PowerPoint presentations which contain various graphic, visual and audio-visual features on students' attention and their speaking skill in EFL classes, and how this technology makes it possible for instructors to incorporate various multimedia into their teaching and instructions.

The use of PowerPoint for teaching presentations has considerable potential for encouraging more professional presentations. Some studies can be found in literature which aimed to probe into the role of PowerPoint slides in ESL/EFL learners' proficiency around the world, such as impacts of PowerPoint presentations on EFL academic writing, the effect of Power Point on reading comprehension improvement, etc., but no comparative study has yet been conducted to find out the effect of interactive vs. non-interactive PowerPoint slides on different skills and components of language.

So, this study aspired to find answer to the following research question:

RQ: Is there any statistically significant difference between the effects of interactive and non-interactive PowerPoint slides on Iranian EFL learners' speaking proficiency?

3. Method

3.1. Participants

In order to fulfill the objectives of this study, 60 female upper-intermediate EFL learners who are enrolled at Saadat Language Institute in Lahijan, participated in this study. Their age range was between 18 and 26. All participants' mother tongue was Persian. Four intact classes were randomly selected and the number of students was between 16 and 18 in each class. Two intact classes were randomly assigned as experimental group and another two were randomly assigned as control group. To keep the homogeneity of the participants, QPT was run. Among those participants who passed the exam the ones who obtained a score within the range of 31-40 were selected for the study. The rest of the students were in the classrooms but their scores were excluded in the data analysis phase. The first group (i.e. the experimental group including 30 participants) received a 10-session treatment in which they encountered interactive PowerPoint slides to engage them for an effective conversation. The second group (i.e. the control group including 30 participants) received a 10-session placebo in which the participants encountered non-interactive PowerPoint slides.

3.2. Materials and Instruments

To answer the research question and to test the hypothesis of this study, the following instruments and materials were used:

1- **Quick Placement Test (QPT)**: QPT sheds light on the learners' language level. They provide the instructors with a reliable and efficient means of placing the learners at the start of a course. This means that usually before taking part in one of the English courses, EFL learners take QPT which helps the teachers to identify their proficiency level.

At the early stage of the study, learners were called to take QPT. From all the learners who participated, 60 who got a score within the range of 31-40 were recognized as being at the upper-intermediate level and were selected as the participants of this study. QPT was a test of 40 items including grammatical structures and vocabulary knowledge. The participants were allowed 30 minutes to complete it. Quick Placement Test measures a test taker's ability to communicate in English. The questions of the test were taken from 'Oxford University Press and University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate'.

2- **Pretest**: The purpose of this test administered before the treatment was to find the possible initial differences between the English speaking ability of the experimental and control groups. The speaking section of Preliminary English Test (PET) including four parts was used as the pre-test of this study. There were two raters (i.e. the researcher herself and an expert teacher), but each participant interacted with one of them. The rater asked the participant questions in turn, using standardized questions. The questions included giving information of a factual and personal kind. The participants responded to questions about present circumstances, past experiences, and further plans. In the second task, the candidates interacted with each other. Visual stimulus was given to candidates to aid the discussion task.

3- **Posttest**: This test which was administered after the treatment sessions was equal in all respects to pre-test except for the arrangement of the four speaking parts. This rearrangement was done to control for the probable testing effect. The participants were again required to participate in the four parts of the speaking section of PET. The questions were responded by the participants and rated by the same raters of the pre-test phase. Inter-rater reliability was calculated, and the average of the scores given by the two raters was considered as the final score of each participant.

3.3. Procedures for Data Collection and Analysis

This study was conducted in August and September 2015. Four intact classes including 16 to 18 students at Saadat English Languag Institute were randomly assigned as the experimental and control groups. To make sure of their homogeneity, all participants sat for QPT. Among these participants who passed the exam the ones who obtained a score within the range of 31-40 were selected for the study. Therefore, 60 participants remained and the scores of other students were excluded from the data analysis in the remaining phases of this study (i.e. pre-test and post-test). A pre-test piloted before with a reliability index of 0.79 was then administered. It required the participants to respond to questions of four speaking parts of Preliminary English Test. Two raters (i.e. the researcher herself and an expert teacher) rated the answers. To make sure of the consistency of the scores, inter-rater reliability was calculated. The score of each participant then was the average of the scores given by the two raters. Then, the experimental group received a 10-session treatment through which the participants in this group encountered interactive PowerPoint slides in their speaking classes. Meanwhile, the participants in the control group received a 10-session placebo in which the participants encountered non-interactive PowerPoint slides in their classes. At the end of these 10 sessions, a post-test of speaking was administered. It was equal in all respects to pre-test except for the arrangement of the four speaking parts. This rearrangement was done to control for the probable testing effect. The participants were again required to respond to the questions of the four speaking parts of Preliminary English Test. The responses were rated by the same raters of pre-test phase. Inter-rater reliability was calculated again, and the average of the scores given by the two raters was considered as the final score of each participant. An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the means of the experimental group and control group on the post-test with the alpha set at

0.5. It should be mentioned that an independent samples t-test for the pre-test scores and two paired-samples t-tests were also used in this study. The next chapter includes the descriptive and inferential statistics results of the current study by using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS).

4. Results

To select a homogenous sample, a total number of 70 EFL learners were selected among them 60 students who scored within the range of 31- 40 in QPT were selected for the main study and were divided into two groups (one control and one experimental). The rest 10 students were in the class but their scores were excluded in the data analysis phase. Descriptive statistics of QPT that was employed for sampling is presented in the following table.

Table 1.
Statistics for QPT scores

N	Valid	70
	Missing	0
Mean		34.70
Std. Error of Mean		.265
Median		35.00
Mode		32
Std. Deviation		2.216
Variance		4.909
Skewness		.326
Std. Error of Skewness		.287
Kurtosis		-.543
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.566
Range		9
Minimum		31
Maximum		40
Sum		2429

As it can be seen in table 1, Measures of central tendency (mean, median, and mode) and measures of dispersion (range, variance, standard deviation) along with measures of distribution (Skewness and Kurtosis) were presented for QPT. 60 students out of 70 who passed the exam and obtained a score within the range of 31-40 were selected as the main sample for the present study. Based on Quick Placement Test direction, scores within the range of 0-15 are considered Beginners, 16-23 (Elementary), 24-30 (Lower intermediate), and 31-40 (Upper intermediate). To determine whether there was any statistically significant difference between the scores of the two groups in pretest, an independent samples t-test was run. The results are presented in tables 2 and 3.

Table 2.
Group statistics for the pre-test

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Experimental	30	14.90	2.057	.376
Control	30	14.60	2.268	.414

Table 3.
Independent samples t-test on pre-test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Pre-test cores	Equal variances assumed	.401	.529	.537	58	.594	.300	.559	-.819	1.419
	Equal variances not assumed			.537	57.454	.594	.300	.559	-.819	1.419

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the speaking skill scores for experimental and control groups. Table 2 and 3 indicate that there was no significant difference in mean scores for experimental group (M = 14.90, SD = 2.057) and control group (M =14.60, SD = 2.268; t (58) = .537 ρ = .594 two-tailed). The magnitude of the differences in the means (mean difference = .300, 95% CI: -.81 to 1.41) was very small (eta squared = 0.004).

To determine whether there was any statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the two groups in posttest, another independent samples t-test was run. The results are presented in tables 4 and 5.

Table 4.
Group statistics for the pre-test

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Experimental	30	15.73	1.964	.359
Control	30	14.43	2569	.469

Table 5.
Independent samples t-test on post-test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Post-test scores	Equal variances assumed	2.916	.093	2.202	58	.032	1.300	.590	.118	2.482
	Equal variances not assumed			2.202	54.270	.032	1.300	.590	.117	2.482

Table 4 and 5 indicate that there was a significant difference in mean scores for experimental group (M = 15.73, SD = 1.964) and control group (M =14.43, SD = 2.569; t (58) = 2.202 ρ = .032 two-tailed). The magnitude of the differences in the means (mean difference = 1.300, 95% CI: .118 to 2.482) was moderate (eta squared = 0.07).
In order to investigate students' progress within groups from pretest to posttest two paired-samples t-tests were also run. The results are shown in tables 6 and 7.

Table 6.
Paired samples statistics for the speaking test

Groups			Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Control group	Pair 1	Total pre	14.60	30	2.268	.414
		Total post	14.43	30	2.569	.469
Experimental group	Pair 1	Total pre	14.90	30	2.057	.376
		Total post	15.50	30	1.996	.364

The mean score of the control group for the speaking test decreased from (M= 14.60) in pre- test to (M=14.43) in post- test, while that of the experimental group increased from (M= 14.90) in pre- test to (M=15.50) in post- test.

Table 7.
Paired samples t-test for the speaking test

Groups			Paired Differences					T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
			Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
						Lower	Upper			
Control group		pretest – posttest	.167	1.724	.315	-.477	.810	.530	29	.600
Experime--ntal group		pretest – posttest	-.600	.894	.163	-.934	-.266	-3.674	29	.001

As depicted in tables 6, and 7, only experimental group had a progress in the speaking posttest. Based on the results of paired samples t-tests, this mean difference was statistically significant simply for the experimental group but not for the control group (P<.05, and P>.05 for experimental and control group respectively). The eta squared statistic (.05) indicated a moderate effect size.

5. Discussion

This study was set out with the aim of assessing the importance of interactive and non-interactive PowerPoint slides in teaching of English language speaking to Iranian EFL learners. At first, one research question was proposed asking whether interactive PowerPoint slides have any significant effects upon EFL learners' speaking ability. Furthermore, on the basis of this research question, a null hypothesis was also proposed assuming that "interactive PowerPoint slides do not lead to a better speaking ability than non-interactive PowerPoint slides among Iranian EFL learners."
As it was mentioned in chapter four, based on the results of independent-samples t-tests, there were no significant differences in speaking ability between the groups at pretest, while there were significant differences among them at the speaking skill posttest. Therefore, the differences may be attributed to the presentation and non-presentation of interactive PowerPoint slides to the participants. The obtained mean score by each of the two groups on the speaking skill posttest indicated that the experimental group obtained a higher mean than the control group (15.50 versus 14.43), which turned out to be significant. Therefore, the findings of this study revealed that there was a statistically significant difference between

experimental group working with interactive PowerPoint slides and control group dealing with non-interactive PowerPoint slides. On the other hand, based on the findings of this study, the hypothesis of this study was rejected. The use of PowerPoint slides had significant impact on Iranian EFL learners' speaking skill.

Regarding the effect of PowerPoint slides use on the English speaking ability of the EFL learners, the results of data analyses revealed that PowerPoint slides use had significant effects on EFL learners' English speaking ability. The findings showed that the use of PowerPoint slides enhanced English speaking ability of experimental group. Also, the findings revealed a significant difference between the groups in the posttest.

This study produced results which corroborate the findings of the previous work in this field. These findings are in agreement with Luna and Mckenzie's (1997) findings which showed PowerPoint presentations improve learning through enhanced attention. These findings also accord with Catherina's (2006) findings, which indicated that students think PowerPoint based lectures are more interesting than traditional lectures.

The results of the present study are in line with Nouri & Shahid (2005) too. Nouri and Shahid (2005) reported that students receiving PowerPoint presentation (with graphics, color, and animation) outperformed the traditional group receiving only a text-based, black-and-white presentation, because students in such a class have more opportunities to make referential connections between imagery and verbal representation than in traditional presentation.

Providing novel, attractive, and simplified tools for grasping and understanding certain difficult and complicated topics and motivating students to speak on them helps them improve their speaking performance and have a meaningful learning. Teachers need to attract and sustain the attention of the learners if they want to have more effective and efficient classrooms. Therefore, PowerPoint presentation helps in making EFL classrooms highly interactive by using of various graphic, visual and audio-visual features. This is consistent with the results of other studies such as Elen & Willems, (2004), Miltenoff, (2003), Reynolds & Baker, (1987), Rose (2001).

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MJLTM

A MULTIDIMENSIONAL CRITICAL EVALUATION OF ENGLISH COURSEBOOK USED FOR IRANIAN HIGH SCHOOL FIRST GRADER

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ABSTRACT
THE PRESETNT STUDY AIMS TO DEVELOP A MULTIDIMENSIONAL FRAMEWORK OF ENGLISH COURSE BOOK USED AS A NEW TEACHING MATERIAL FOR HIGH SCHOOL FIRST GRADERS THROUGHOUT IRAN. OBVIOUSLY, THE MAIN PURPOSE OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE MATERIAL DEVELOPMENT, PARTICULARLY IN AN EFL CONTEXT, IS TO OPERATIONALIZE THE GOALS DEFINED BY THE CURRICULUM DESIGNERS OR THE LOCAL EDUCATIONAL POLICY MAKERS. ACCORDINGLY, THE PRESENT STUDY WAS CONDUCTED BASED ON AN EMPIRICAL BASIS TO ENSURE THE PEDAGOGICAL VALIDITY AND APPLICABILITY OF THE ENGLISH COURSE BOOK TITLED *PROSPECT 1* BY UTILIZING AN EVALUATION PROCESS ROOTED IN CURRENT THEORETICAL CONCEPTUALIZATIONS CONCERNING MATERIAL DEVELOPMENT. FOR THIS PURPOSE, A CAREFULLY DESIGNED QUESTIONNAIRE INCLUDING 40 PROMPTS FOLLOWED BY AN OPEN-ENDED INTERVIEW WAS USED TO ADDRESS AND ACTUALIZE THE TWENTY PRINCIPLES SUGGESTED BY NATION AND MACALISTER (2010). FROM THE TOTAL POPULATION OF HIGH SCHOOL FIRST GRADERS AND THEIR ENGLISH TEACHERS TEACHING FIRST GRADE LEVEL ENGLISH COURSES AT DIFFERENT HIGH SCHOOLS IN ISFAHAN PROVINCE, 120 MALE AND FEMALE HIGH SCHOOL PUPILS AS WELL AS 20 IN-SERVICE ENGLISH TEACHERS WERE CHOSEN BASED ON A CONVENIENT SAMPLING METHOD. AFTER ADMINISTERING THE QUESTIONNAIRE AND CONDUCTING THE INTERVIEW, THE OBTAINED DATA WAS ANALYZED. THE FINDINGS REFLECTED THAT THE COURSE BOOK *PROSPECT 1* DID NOT MEET THE TARGETED NEEDS SET BY THE LOCAL EDUCATIONAL EXPERTS AND POLICY MAKERS. MORE NOTABLY, THE MALE AND FEMALE PARTICIPANTS DID NOT UNANIMOUSLY VIEW THE EFFECTIVENESS OF THE CONTENT AND THE METHOD AND FORMAT OF PRESENTATION BY *PROSPECT 1*. IT SEEMS THAT THESE FINDINGS MIGHT HAVE CERTAIN PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS FOR EFL TEACHERS, CURRICULUM DESIGNERS, POLICY MAKERS, MATERIAL DEVELOPERS, AND STAKEHOLDERS WHO ARE INVOLVED IN THE PREPARATION OF LOCALLY DEVELOPED ENGLISH TEXTBOOKS.

KEYWORDS: ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING MATERIALS, MULTIDIMENSIONAL EVALUATION, MATERIAL DESIGN, MATERIAL EVALUATION , *PROSPECT 1*

1. Introduction

In the past two or three decades, English has acquired a magnificent position among other languages in the world (Hjarvard, 2004). Nowadays, serving as a lingua franca, English has influenced the core of

relations in the modern world so much so the knowledge of English has become of great significance in many countries. Apparently, in the milieu of globalization, English has turned into a prevalent foreign language as a vital subject of educational curricula throughout the world (Chang, 2006).

Not surprisingly, language textbooks play a pivotal role in the educational system of various countries. As such, locally trained EFL teachers are necessarily exposed to the theories, guidelines, and the techniques of materials development. The reason is that a textbook provides the necessary content and sets the directions for attaining the objectives of the course (MacGrath, 2002). Consequently, language learning programs traditionally need print or non-print materials to cater to students` needs (Reinders & White, 2010; McGrath, 2002; Richars, 2001).

Nation & Macalister (2010) suggest that evaluation in its totality needs to be conducted to ascertain the quality of developed curriculum design because course planning and the implementation of educational courses can guarantee the planned outcomes. More importantly, the evaluation program can be successful when it focuses on the crucial issues of students` learning accomplishments, teachers` attitudes about the quality of the course, students` satisfaction with the course, and its cost-effectiveness (Nation & Macalister, 2010). In this sense, Tomlinson (2003) states that the material design theme should lead writers to both learning and respecting the needs, interests, and learning goals. To develop materials, various wants and needs of the teachers, students, and administrators must be considered so that all the performers engaged are addressed (Tomlinson, 2003). Actually, Nation and Macalister (2010) in their multidimensional framework have addressed twenty principles eight of which focus on various components of the curriculum design process including: a) considering the environment, (b) discovering needs, (c) following principles, (d) goals, (e) content and sequencing, (f) format and presenting material, (g) monitoring and assessing, and (h) evaluation. Multidimensional Critical Evaluation, therefore, relates to the broader focus on the evaluation of the materials and principles that govern learners` learning needs.

Naturally, the multidimensional approach to evaluation involves three significant issues; namely, environment, needs, and principles that are crucially vital in any evaluation program. Nation and Macalister (2010) divided needs analysis into three groups of necessities, lacks, and wants. Needs analysis, as Brown (2011, p.269) maintains, concentrates on learners` needs and expectations and “once they are identified, needs are translated into learning objectives, which in turn serve as the basis for further development of teaching materials, learning activities, tests, program strategies".

Evaluation goes beyond description transcending those procedures which address the content alone (Rallis and Bolland, 2004). In point of fact, the materials should be looked at within a given context and the syllabus derived from a specific approach (McDonough and Shaw, 2003). Therefore, an essential dimension of material evaluation is the setting and environment in which learning takes place so that the need for developing materials should be examined based on the themes affecting selection of the textbooks such as the function of available time for the course, the number of students, support personnel, the physical environment, the types of tests applied, administration and management, the socio-cultural environment, the role of English in schools, the ways through which students are evaluated, procedures of evaluation, and monitoring the teaching process (McDonough and Shaw, 1993). Through environment analysis, teachers and curriculum designers thoroughly investigate "the factors that will have a strong effect on decisions about the goals of the course, what to include in the course, and how to teach and assess it" (Nation & Macalister, 2010, p. 14).

Principles are theories and assumptions related to the nature of language and language learning focusing on curriculum design and teacher training. It is also possible to take a philosophical stance on principles considering “the nature of language, the nature of learning, and the role of culture” (Nation and Macalister, 2010, p. 38). Atkinson (2010) asserts that without observing theoretical principles, we lose track of vital tools for responsible instructional planning, effective classroom decision making, productive expert response, and meaningful assessment. In fact, the stated principles of a program or instructor needs to match pedagogical practice, pointing toward necessities, lacks, and felt needs (Nation & Macalister, 2010).

Multiaspectual evaluation further correlates with the principles that dominate the teaching and learning environment of English teaching concerning learners` needs. Reviewing various models of evaluation, the

design by Nation and Macalister (2010) was scrutinized that includes twenty fundamental principles for material development. Each principle is further divided into sub-domains of principles which are related to the content and sequencing of the material, principles related to monitoring and assessment, and principles related to format ad presentation of the materials. According to Nation and Macalister (2010), each sub-domain focuses on different relevant principles each of which should be deeply considered in the evaluation process.

The sub-domain of content and sequencing aimed at investigating whether the selected textbook covers the ideas, skills, language items, and strategies required for fulfilling the goals of an English course as well as the extent to which it can meet the desired goals. Actually, it involves factors of frequency of language items, strategies and autonomy, spaced retrieval of the learnt items, generalizable features of the language, progressive use of skills and strategies, sequence and teachability of language items, effective use of learners` previous knowledge, and language items` inference (Nation and Macalister, 2010).

Alternatively, monitoring and assessment principles deal with the extent to which the textbook has been compatible with the learners` needs. More specifically, the sub-domains of monitoring and assessment includes considering ongoing needs along with environment analysis which consists of selection, ordering, presentation, and assessment of the materials employed on the basis of learners` needs, available resources, and the allocated time for the course.

The format and presentation sub-domains of materials determine if the units of progression in the textbooks followed a set format to make sure that "the same sequence of activates occur in all or some of the lessons" (Nation and Macalister, 2010, p. 9). The principles related to format and presentation sub-domains are motivation of the learners, balance of the four strands, comprehensible input, activities for increasing learners` fluency, learners` output, deliberate learning, specific time on each task, deep process of language items, favorable attitude of learners toward language, its users, and their teachers, and adaptation of the material to different learning style of pupils. Considering the evaluation process of English course books, university textbooks, and high school teaching materials, the studies conducted so far have mainly focused on either locally prepared textbooks organized for universities and high schools or the original English textbooks used in language institutes.

As an illustration, Udenwa and Ikonta (2008) evaluated textbooks of junior high schools in Lagos State. The objective of the study was to investigate the comparability, readability, and level of integration of English language and literature. According to the findings of the study, there was an inconsistency between the integration of General English language and literature, as well as the inadequacy in difficulty level for the intended readers. In another study, Karatas and Fer (2009) evaluated "English II curriculum at Yildiz Technical University (YTU)" applying Context Input and employing a Process and Product (CIPP) model. The findings of the research indicated that there were significant differences among students` and teachers` viewpoints toward the related items such as input, content, and process and product of the curriculum. Finally, the researchers found that teachers` expectations were higher; however, students` perceptions were lower. Therefore, they suggested that students` needs and viewpoints should also be considered in curriculum design and development.

Spot On, the textbook taught at the primary schools in Turkey, was evaluated by Tok (2010) by the use of a five-point Likert scale questionnaire. Forty-six teachers voted on the tasks, content, subject, and layout which were quite pleasing in their point of view; although they stated that the books did not meet the needs of learners completely. His in-depth analysis further revealed that negative features of the book overweighed its positive features. In her PhD thesis, Aftab (2012) carefully evaluated English textbooks in Pakistan. Based on the data, it was revealed that the school policies and the curricular objectives were inadequate. Due to the shortcomings specified in the study, she suggested several modifications for improving the quality of the approved books, curriculum developmental processes, and textbook developers and teacher training programs. She concluded that improvements can expedite learning and acquisition of English in Pakistani context in the long term.

There is a rich body of research on the textbook development in the Iranian context. Several studies have been conducted on the evaluation of textbooks for discovering their points of strength and weakness (see Yarmohammadi, 2002; Jahangard, 2007; Riazi & Aryashokouh, 2007; Bahrami, 2011; Gholampour,

Kasmani and Talebi, 2013; Azizifar and Baleghani, 2014). In addition, some researchers have tried to investigate touchstones for a rich evaluation in the textbook studies (see Ansary & Babaii, 2002; Razmjoo, 2007; Zare Moayedi, 2007; Riasati and Zare, 2010; Alemi and Hesami, 2013; Shabani and Nejad, 2013; Ansari and Babaii, 2013; Ahour, Towhidiyan and Saeidi, 2014; Rashidi and Kehtarfard, 2014).

Gholampour, Kasmani and Talebi (2013) evaluated common English textbooks of junior high school and English language institutes in Iran. The focus of the study was to ascertain strengths and weaknesses of the targeted books; therefore, they concluded that some of the books in the analysis need to be revised or re-written since their deficiencies were greater than the pedagogical merits. In a similar vein, Shabani and Nejad (2013) aimed at investigating the educational value of the third-grade English high school textbooks in Iran and their importance in the curriculum. For this purpose, questionnaires were given to both teachers and students. The results demonstrated that the textbooks were not successful enough to encourage learners and to enhance their interests since only few students and teachers regarded them as interesting.

In another study, Ahour, Towhidiyan and Saeidi (2014) aimed at investigating the appropriateness of the English textbooks for junior high school students in Iran. They examined the textbooks from the viewpoints of teachers. Based on the results of the research, teachers did not have positive attitudes about the selected textbooks. Accordingly, the researchers` suggestion was either to revise the current textbooks or to adopt new ones. Through an evaluation process Rashidi and Kehtarfard (2014) analyzed third grade high school English textbooks in the Iranian context. They adopted a needs analysis approach in order to examine their content related to language skills and language components. The findings of the research demonstrated that all language skills and components were very significant to the students; however, the textbooks failed to address and reinforce all of them. The researchers finally suggested that the textbooks must either be revised or enriched by supplementary instructional materials to enhance the efficiency of learning outcomes in light of the learners` needs.

Clearly, for education of primary and secondary level students, learning highly depends on the interrelation between the teachers, students, and textbooks; since this interaction bears the main outcome in the process of learning/teaching in the EFL/ESL context. In other words, when a new textbook is prepared and used for particular groups of learners, an evaluation of different aspects of the book is crucial since there are many reasons for textbook evaluation such as educational and administrative decision making on financial, political, and professional investment (Sheldon, 1988). It is quite unfortunate that not much research has been conducted concerning the multidimensional evaluation of materials in the Iranian high school contexts, especially the recently published textbook for the first graders, *Prospect 1*. Although a lot has been done on one of the mentioned aspects of critical evaluation, i.e. needs analysis, there is still need for more elaborative multidimensional evaluations considering all aspects of textbooks, i.e. pupils, teachers, and administrations. On this basis, the purpose of the present study was to evaluate the pedagogical utility of *Prospect 1* based on a multidimensional evaluation model proposed by Nation & Macalister (2010).

Research Questions

1. To what extent do high school first graders view the pedagogical appropriacy of ***Prospect 1***?
2. Are high school teachers` attitudes towards the pedagogical appropriacy of ***Prospect 1*** consistent with those of high school first graders?

2. Method

2.1 Design of the Study

The significance of systematic and principled evaluation lies in the point that teaching and learning materials constitute the main exposure learners have to the target language (Mishan and Timmis, 2015). Being aware of that, the current study aimed at conducting a multiaspectual evaluation model adopting the list of principles governing curriculum design proposed by Nation and Macalister (2010) who maintained the three main categories of curriculum design are need analysis, environment analysis, and principles applied

The multi-faceted stance of this list toward the curriculum development leads to a comprehensive approach for the materials to be evaluated. As can be seen in Figure 1, the core of the different layers of

the evaluation is the goals that are the predominant point in this model. These goals are of great importance since they are highly related to textbooks as they are one of the most basic parts of a curriculum in terms of content and materials used for language teaching. These defined goals are the focus of content selection, sequencing, and presentation of materials. Additionally, goals are formulated based on environmental factors which in fact give rise to learning context, learners, teachers, and administrators. Needs, on the other hand, play an effective role in formulating the goals guiding the application of a given textbook in a specific teaching/learning context.

For the role of principles in the evaluation procedure, Nation and Macalister (2010) maintain that the chief objective of the principles is to guarantee the money for value criterion. To put differently, it has to be ensured that learners do not waste their time during the course and that the course is advantageous to them as well. Therefore, principles are what motivate the selection and sequencing of the materials, the choice of particular format of presenting content, monitoring, assessment, and self-assessment of the content.

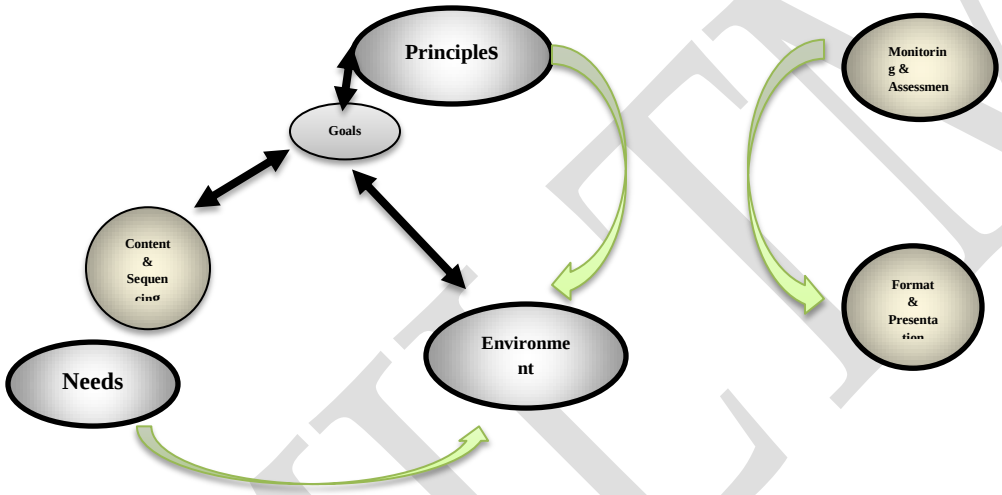

Figure.1 A model of the parts of the curriculum design process based on Nation and Macalister (2010)

2.2. Participants

The participants of the research were a relatively large population of 120 full-time students, 60 girls and 60 boys, from among the high school students in 4 different districts in Esfahan province from both state and private high schools. Additionally, to ensure generalizability, all the students were similar ages, 14 and 15.

In addition, the other group of participants were 10 male and 10 female in-service non-native speaker English teachers of high school, between the ages 25 to 45, who have already taught and carefully studied ***Prospect 1.*** The subjects were qualified undergraduate and graduate teachers majored in English with at least three years of teaching experience. Moreover, the participants were selected by convenient sampling through which those who were available and willing were chosen (Farhady, 2001). Although they were volunteer participants, it is believed that these teachers are a representative of all English teachers in the region the sample included older teachers with many years of experience and younger teachers with less experience whose mean age was 35.9 and year of teaching experience of 12.75 are about the average in this area.

2.4. Instruments

2.4.1 Questionnaire

A carefully selected self-constructed questionnaire based on Nation and Macalister (2010) was adopted which was developed for material development and post-use evaluation of the targeted textbook. The researcher-developed questionnaire was designed and applied for gauging learners` opinions on the effectiveness of the textbooks. To make sure the items on the questionnaire best suit the context and objectives of the study, the guidelines offered by Dörnyei (2003) were carefully followed and adopted. Following this procedure, the required content for the preparation of questionnaire items was explicitly chosen.

The participants were asked to choose the items that best suit the Iranian context. A five-point Likert type questionnaire including 40 items about the multiaspectal evaluation. It has to be mentioned that fifteen of the items chosen were related to monitoring and assessment to consider situational and contextual factors. Also, thirteen items were in accordance with format and presentation of the material to see if they contributed to needs, lacks, and wants of the learners. In addition, twelve items were in line with the content and sequencing of materials applied during the course. This selection hoped to render more reliable and generalizable results.

The questionnaire was originally written in English and was provided both in email format and hard copies to reach as many teachers as possible. Due to the probability of misunderstanding in the meanings and intentions behind some items, students` were also given the Persian format of the same questionnaire being translated. In addition, care was given to ensure that the translated format of the questionnaire is the exact equivalent of the original one. Therefore, two university professors and two high school teachers were invited to read and check the translated format to ensure about that the wording is clear, easy, and understandable to all participants in the study. The respondents were given 30 minutes completion time to answer the items on the questionnaire.

In the next step, the validity and reliability of the questionnaire were investigated. In order for the questions to be thoroughly valid, four experts in the field were asked to check on the content of the questionnaire. Furthermore, using the Cronbach`s alpha coefficient formula, the reliability was calculated, which was equal to 0.89. The reliability estimates for each of the sub-domains were also measured: content and sequencing (0.92), format and presentation (0.79), and monitoring and assessment (0.86).

2.4.2 Interview

A structured group-focused interview of the total number of teachers led to a better understanding and negotiation of the problem under investigation as well as providing a source of triangulation. A structured interview was conducted, for it is adjustable, adapts well to the agenda, and gives interviewee the freedom to state their opinion (Mackey & Gass, 2005). The interview contained 7 open-ended questions since it aims at achieving real data to help develop ideas that can better answer research questions. To minimize the probability of problems and limitations four steps in writing interview questions proposed by Timmis (2003): make sure that interviewees completely understand what you meant, make clear to the interviewees that there is no preferable answer, avoid imposing the authors own ideas in the questions, avoid asking leading questions.

Therefore, the teachers` meeting was for the case of having more time and facilitating the conveyance of their attitudes on the textbook quality. To make sure the interviewees respond correctly and honestly, a relaxing and friendly atmosphere was created by the researcher. The interview results were divided into three categories of 1) consensus agreement, 2) consensus neutral attitude 3) consensus disagreement. The data obtained from this part of the study were very valuable for finding the strengths and weaknesses of the textbook. With the permission of the attendants, the interviews were all voice-recorded and transcribed and supplemented with extensive notes during the interview. The interview session took about 20-30 minutes.

2.5. Procedures

The primary sources for collecting empirical qualitative data were the self-structured questionnaire and a face-to-face structured group-focused interview. The questionnaire was developed on the basis of Nation and Macalister (2010) which presented inclusive approaches for each of the aspects of evaluation. To

obtain the best of the evaluation process, items in the questionnaire were rewritten into statements with a five point Likert-scale to help participants express their attitudes. To maintain the originality of the text in Nation and Macalister (2010), the wording and terminology is strictly referenced during transformation. In order to find reasonable and applicable findings, SPSS version 19.0, 2011 was utilized as an ancillary material to facilitate statistical analysis.

2.6. Data Analysis

As the primary data sources for the analysis, empirical qualitative data were collected from 1) results of the evaluation from post-use evaluation of the researcher-developed questionnaire and 2) the data from the interview sessions that were held subsequently after the evaluation. For the results of each item on the questionnaire and the structured interview of the study and due to the non-parametric distribution of data, there was a separate Chi-square and frequency statistical techniques in order for the findings to be perfectly applicable. Also, for the interview, the data were collected, stacked, scored, and analyzed through Chi-square test. Basically, the structured interview was adopted to make an interactive situation with the teachers through which we can ensure that items on the questionnaire could truly be an indication of the learners` responses.

3. Results

The results of evaluation obtained from the data collecting instruments concerning the targeted research questions were quite revealing. Based on recipients` responses to the prompts on the five-point-scale questionnaire (*Strongly agree* = 1, *Agree* = 2, *Undecided* = 3, *Disagree* = 4, and *Strongly disagree* = 5), the mean score of each item was compared with the average score of the choices made which was equal to 3. Using this as a baseline, those participants whose mean score of a particular item was less than 3, were considered as those who had agreed with the statement. Conversely, when the mean score of an item on the questionnaire was more than 3, the attitude of participants was regarded as negative, a sort of disagreement with the given prompt.

3.1. Results Related to the Questionnaire

The items on the questionnaire were examined in terms of their frequency (F), percentage (P), mean, and standard deviation (SD) values so as to see what their general attitude is toward the textbook *Prospect 1* about three different but related features of *content, sequencing, format and presentation*, as well as *monitoring and assessment (see Appendix for more information on the results)*. Tables 1 to 3 present the students' attitudes on these subcategories:

Table 1

The Frequency and Percentage Values of High School Students' Attitude towards the Content and Sequencing Sub-domain. **No.**	**Statements**	**Mean**	**SD**
1	My English textbook provides the best possible coverage of content.	3.73	0.645
2	I think that my English textbook includes items that occur frequently in the language.	3.82	0.574
3	The activities in my English textbook aim at improving the learners' fluency of language use in listening.	3.54	0.521
4	I feel that the content in my English textbook provides the learners with the best return for their learning efforts.	4.23	0.632
5	The *Prospect 1* series teach learners how to become independent learners.	3.07	0.574
6	My English textbook creates a lot of	3.38	0.565

	opportunities for retrieving items used in a variety of contexts.		
7	The repetition of target language items in my English textbook are adequate for the learners to give attention to the wanted items.	4.28	0.675
8	I feel that English course books for high school students cover the required skills & strategies progressively.	3.69	0.723
9	I feel that English textbooks for high school students have a desirable sequencing of language items.	3.85	0.753
10	The activities in my English textbook aim at improving the learners' fluency of language use in writing.	3.83	0.662
11	The way content is presented in my English textbook takes account of learners' readiness for learning them.	2.58	0.782
12	The exercises and activities in my English textbook have a logical ordering considering my needs.	2.64	0.653

As presented in Table 1, since the mean values for the majority of the items (nine out of twelve) were at least one standard deviation above the baseline neutral scale, it can be concluded that students have a negative attitude towards the items related to content and sequencing. Furthermore, students expressed partial neutral attitudes towards items 5, 11, and 12 indicating that learners regarded the textbook positively. Admittedly, they believe that the new textbook helped them to become independent, autonomous learners. Alternatively, learners expressed their agreement on item 11, showing that the organization of the content was meaningful and suitably fitted the students` learning profiles. Similarly, learners` responses to item 12 revealed that the sequencing of the activities appropriately addressed the desired needs.

By contrast, students disagreed with items 4 and 7, respectively. Notably, item 4 was the greatest mean score among other items in the content and sequencing sub-domain of curriculum development process. The learners totally disagreed with the statement proposing that "the textbook provides learners with a satisfactory return for their learning efforts". Additionally, the students did not seem to agree with item 7 expressing that repetition of target language items in the English textbook under investigation was sufficiently attractive to the learners.

Table 2
The Frequency and Percentage Values of High School Students' Attitudes towards the Format and Presentation Sub-domain

No.	Statements	Mean	SD
13	My English course book helps me to make use of my previous knowledge and experience.	3.49	0.502
14	The activities in my English textbook aim at improving the learners' fluency of language use in speaking.	3.50	0.473
15	Items in my English textbook are arranged in such a way that earlier learning facilities subsequent learning.	3.29	0.536
16	I feel that my English textbook contains enough interesting activities and exercises which boost the learners' motivation.	3.64	0.542
17	My English textbook has substantial quantities of comprehensive activities in	3.69	0.398

	listening.		
18	My English textbook has substantial quantities of comprehensive activities in reading.	2.89	0.548
19	The activities in my English textbook aim at improving the learners' fluency of language use in reading.	2.62	0.602
20	The format of presenting activities in my English textbook forces the learners' to produce language.	3.39	0.536
21	I feel that the activities and tasks in my English textbook engage the learners in focusing on second language sufficiently.	3.56	0.543
22	My English textbook provides a substantial number of activities on all aspects of L2 like sounds, spelling, vocabulary, grammar, and discourse areas.	4.12	0.702
23	I feel that the English textbook used at high school level creates a positive learners' attitude towards English and its speakers.	2.77	0.584
24	The high school English textbook caters to the needs of the learners with different learning styles.	4.02	0.603
25	The format and presentation of activities in my English textbook provide a lot of opportunities for different learners.	3.57	0.504

As displayed in Table 2, the mean values for the majority of the items (eight out of thirteen items) were at least one standard deviation above the baseline, thus it was concluded that the learners did not view positively the items related to the sub-domain of format and presentation .Unlike other items, owing to the mean and standard deviation values of the items 18, 19, and 23, students did concur with the comprehensible nature of reading activities stating that the textbook was conductive to their reading fluency.

More significantly, the students had the most negative attitude towards items 22 and 24, respectively because the activities in the textbook did not include a substantial amount of input concerning all L2 aspects. Besides, most of them failed to agree that their English textbook caters to different learners` needs.

Table 3 *The Frequency and Percentage Values of High School Students' Attitudes towards Monitoring and Assessment Sub-domain*

No.	Statements	Mean	SD
26	I feel that the content and activities in my English textbook best fit the class time specified in the high school curriculum.	4.46	0.785
27	I feel that the content and activities in my English textbook are well-geared to the learners' learning needs.	4.39	0.773
28	I feel that the content and activities in my English textbook at high school level are designed based on careful consideration of existing teaching conditions.	4.03	0.791
29	I feel that the content and activities in high school English textbooks provide ample opportunities for assessment and self-directed learning.	3.87	0.699
30	My English textbook provides me with helpful feedback which allows me to improve the quality of language use.	4.48	0.782
31	I think that the activities and tasks in my English textbook have been designed by careful consideration of class size in Iran.	2.89	0.657
32	I feel that the successful completion of the lesson units in my English textbook gives me a feeling of achievement.	2.82	0.634
33	I think that English textbooks used at the high school level help learners to achieve the targeted goals.	4.57	0.548
34	The vocabulary items used in my English textbook are adequate.	2.53	0.627
35	The format, type of paper, print and pictures used in high school English textbooks are appealing to the learners.	4.48	0.532
36	The high school English textbooks employ language learning websites to offer students self-access, supplementary materials.	4.81	0.334

37	The high school English textbooks use relevant technologies which enable multimedia glosses (e.g. graphic, audio/visual, etc.) for reading and listening activities.	4.48	0.523
38	Materials used in high school English textbooks provide ample opportunities for peer interaction.	3.76	0.772
39	Activities and tasks in high school English textbooks make use of "real English for real world".	3.88	0.705
40	I feel that the way a teacher handles an English textbook is very important to learning.	1.63	0.623

As table 3 depicts, the fact that the mean score of the majority of items for most of the prompts, (i.e., eleven out of fifteen items) was at least one standard deviation above the baseline implies that most of the learners disagreed with the claim that items related to monitoring and assessment in the new textbook sufficiently addressed the learners` needs. Accordingly, similar to other sub-domains, it could be inferred that the learners had a negative attitude towards the items in the third sub-domain.

On the other hand, the mean and standard deviation values for items 31, 32, and 34, provided support for learners' partial neutral attitude towards them showing that the activities in the new textbook satisfied with students` vocabulary needs, class size, and feeling of achievement.

With regard to item 40, learners unanimously stated that teachers` role in handling the textbooks is of great significance to them (*M*=1.63, *SD*=0.623).

In addition, their most negative attitude towards item 36 conveyed that the targeted textbook does not accompany proper websites for enabling learners to access supplementary and self-access materials to enhance their language skills (*M*=4.81, *SD*=0.334).

Table 4 demonstrates the descriptive statistics concerning students' attitudes towards all three features investigated through the questionnaire.

Table 4
Descriptive Statistics of the Students' Attitudes for Different Features of the Questionnaire

Features	Item No.	Mean	Std. Deviation
Content and Sequencing	1-12	3.55	0.424
Format and Presentation	13-25	3.43	0.419
Monitoring and Assessment	26-40	3.80	0.503

As can be seen in Table 4, monitoring and assessment yields the highest mean score, while format and presentation gets the lowest among the subdomains under scrutiny. It is clearly observed that the mean score for monitoring and assessment items on the questionnaire was 3.80, which means that there was a marked tendency among the learners to disagree with the proposition that the new textbook presented the best features of monitoring and assessment. As presented in Table 4, since the overall mean values for all sub-domains dominating the textbook evaluation were almost one standard deviation above the baseline (neutral scale 3), the learners did not seem to evaluate the textbook positively showing that the targeted textbook did not meet their levels of expectation.

3.2. Results Related to the Teachers' Interview:

Obviously, the professional attitudes of experienced teachers can further unveil whether the multi-aspectual evaluation has been effective or not. This means that if the attitudinal results derived from both questionnaire and interview analyses were both supportive of the pedagogical efficiency of the new high school textbook, then it could be concluded that the overall evaluation had credibly and successfully estimated the pedagogical utility of the targeted textbook.

Regarding the significance of the interview, the recorded interview session was carefully analyzed with the purpose of theory testing. In this regard, the seven interview questions to address environment, needs, and principle dimensions of material design were employed to create triangulation. The respondents` answers were analyzed through adopting a content analysis approach for investigating the frequency and percentage values of the responses which reflected the participants` attitudes towards the efficacy of the new high school textbook for Iranian high school first graders. It was then revealed that the majority of the teachers disagreed with the prompts signaling the three sub-domains. The overall attitude of the teachers towards the book is illustrated graphically in Figure 2 below.

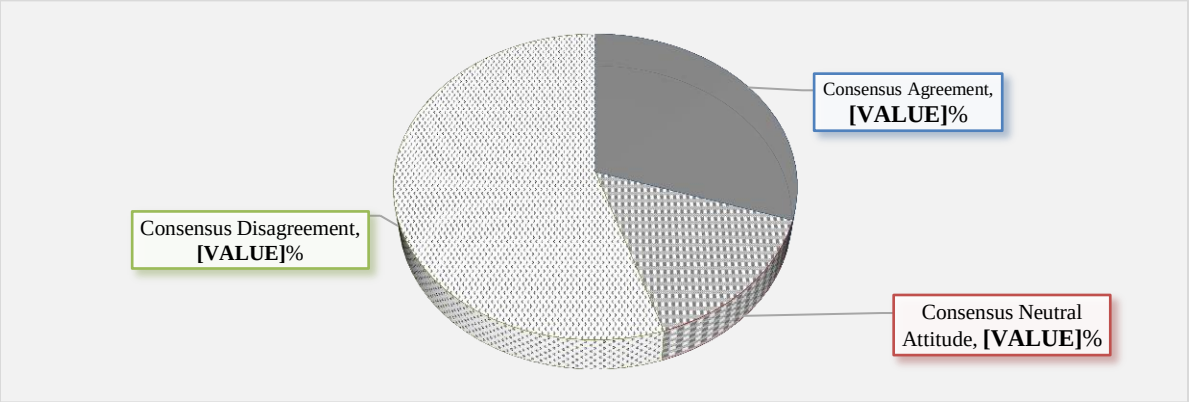

Figure 2. Teachers' attitude towards different features of the book based on the interviews' results.

As demonstrated in Figure 2, 55 percent of the teachers expressed their negative attitudes towards the textbook; however, only 30 percent of them agreed with the efficacy of the book in general. Notably, about 15 percent of the teachers adopted a neutral position in evaluating the book. Therefore, one can logically infer that the results obtained through the interview corroborated with those of the learners` questionnaire. In other words, the findings of the interview validated the results obtained through the questionnaire manifesting that the multiaspectual critical evaluation of the ***Prospect 1,*** using the structured questionnaire, was a valid data collecting approach since there was a considerable concordance between teachers` attitudes on interview and those of the learners on the questionnaire. This can prove that the new textbook needs revisions and modifications in order to meet learners` and teachers` needs and expectations.

4. Discussion and Conclusion

4.1. Research Question 1:

To what extent do high school first graders view the pedagogical appropriacy of ***Prospect 1***?

Having considered the findings of the questionnaire, the pupils in this study did not seem to consider the textbook favorably. In fact, learners reported that the textbook was not successful in meeting their needs. With regard to the large number of learners responding the items on the questionnaire, they agreed that the textbook lacked a satisfactory language input on all the three sub-domains. For one thing, the learners were mostly dissatisfied with the sub-domain of monitoring and assessment which encompasses issues of lesson activities, exercises, and assessment tasks, peer interaction, supplementary materials, and multimedia gloss. The learners` responses revealed that there might be a lack of variety in lesson activities of the textbook or a lack of sufficient activities which ensure learners` comprehension. It was also stated that there was a need for progress tests which help revise learners` previously learned materials and prepare learners for the final exam. More importantly, the activities and tests needed to be modified in order to assist and prepare Iranian pupils for the National University Admission Test.

Generally, the findings of the study were consistent with those of Yarmohammadi (2002); Biria & Mehrabi (2015); Shah, Hassan, & Iqbal (2015); and Nguyen (2015) who maintained that the local English textbooks have not paid enough attention to the communicative aspects of language as well as a relevant

balance between the skills. In the same way, Rodrigues (2005) claimed that learners need types of activities which ensure their engagement during the communication process such as information gap, problem-based exercises, consensus-building activities, and the type of activities that involve fluency, such as fluency circles, role-plays, ordering and sequencing activities, jigsaws, and presentations. The mentioned activities do not require a great repertoire of the target language since it is believed that learners can communicate, interact, and experience tangible language items during learning process.

4.2. Research Question 2:

Are high school teachers` attitudes towards the pedagogical appropriacy of ***Prospect 1*** consistent with those of high school first graders?

The experimental results of the interview demonstrated that teachers expressed their attitudes the local textbook`s deficiencies based on the factors Nation and Macalister (2010) found valid in material development. The teachers were not positive on most aspects of the textbook except for some minor factors. Regarding the monitoring and assessment sub-domain which yielded the highest mean score in the evaluation of the textbook, the teachers expressed their highest dissatisfaction unanimously. Accordingly, the findings of the study were not in accordance with those of Ahmadi & Derakhshan (2015), Golpour (2012), Guilani, Yasin, and T. Hua (2011), and Azizifar (2009) who found that English textbooks has succeeded in using a proper format of presenting language skills and activities such as listening, vocabulary, reading, writing, meaningful communication, etc. On the contrary, the results of this study corroborated the findings of Ahour, Towhidiyan and Saeidi (2014), Shabani and Nejad (2013), Alemi and Hesami (2013), Guilani et al. (2011), Riazi and Aryashokooh (2007), Jahangard (2007), Razmjoo (2007), Yarmohammadi (2002), who investigated that the English textbooks failed to provide learners with an appropriate format and presentation of language items, exercises, and activities.

Although, from the teachers` point of view, parts of the format and presentation of the activities facilitated learners to produce language and made use of their previous knowledge, in the current study, the teachers` responses to the interview revealed that there might be a poor distribution of language items such as grammar, vocabulary, reading, listening, speaking, and writing in each unit. It can be concluded from the interview results that the textbook lacked linkage between the units in terms of themes and functions. Indeed, the teachers` views might be on the basis that the textbook`s activities were not complete and practical enough, particularly in listening and speaking tasks. They stated that ***Prospect 1*** did not contain stimulating activities that could boost learners` motivation. According to what Jahangard (2007) concluded, the need for the appealing, practical, and up-to-date exercises, topics, and lessons seems to be a crucial part of any material development. Similar to learners, teachers` views revealed that they believed the activities in the textbook were not challenging enough to prepare learners well for their tests.

Teachers also strongly disagreed that the vocabulary, grammar, spelling, and discourse areas applied in the textbook were sufficient for their pupils, this might be because of the need for more related authentic input on each issue in order to enable learners to produce language appropriately. In the same way, Riazi & Aryashokooh`s (2007) study demonstrated that to ensure a better understanding, the focus of the vocabulary section should be on the combination of the words not the individual words. Accordingly, it was reported by teachers in the present study that the vocabulary exercises and speaking activities seem not to be sufficient for the EFL learners who have no exposure to the target language outside the classroom. As with the speaking tasks, which were not truly communicative or even semi-communicative, the listening exercises did not seem practical because they were mostly practiced indirectly.

Moreover, the listening activities could be enhanced by more fruitful exercises such as prompts, listening grips, sentence completion, and matching exercises. Besides, the textbook might promote comprehension skills by adding activities that focus on features of input processing, comprehension questions on the main points of the text, and discussions which lead to a deeper understanding of the topic under review as well as production of the language. . In the same vein, similar to the findings of Rezaeian and Zamanian (2014), the teachers` ideas in the interview session revealed that although the textbook included more listening than the previous ones being taught, it has been disregarded that learners need

to be exposed to a diverse range of accents and registers which enables them a deeper and better understanding while communication. Actually, it was noted that they believed more enriching input in reading, writing, listening, speaking, and grammar could attract learners` attention to the target linguistic features.

According to the teachers` attitude, the textbook lacks adequate reading skills and since reading is a primary source of learning vocabulary, grammar, discourse, etc. can assist learners with production of language output particularly in writing and speaking skills, in case that understanding and comprehension of the text can trigger learners` background knowledge and accelerate learning new information and language input. As an important factor, in line with Rashidi and Kehtarfard`s (2014) study, the writing skill is somewhat overlooked in its true sense in case that it is mostly limited to the practice of grammatical and conversational sentences asking learners for some separate sentences. In all, the textbook analysis revealed that ***Prospect 1*** was not conductive to the real language instruction and implementation. The findings of this study were in line with Nguyen (2015) who concluded that learners and teachers agreed on most parts of the textbook evaluation. Similar to Nguyen (2015), through the evaluation process in this study, it was inferred that both learners and teachers demanded for more daily life vocabulary which can facilitate their communication in the target language. Additionally, the two groups of participants announced their disagreement on the distribution of the four language skills. It was further concluded that they were quite unsatisfied with the way the textbook performed assessment activities so it did not fulfil their needs and expectation on the final tests results as well as preparation on the University National Admission Test, which is one of the paramount objectives of any Iranian high school student.

Actually, majority of the teachers reported that the textbook did not fulfill the desired elements of the curriculum design where the main purpose of a textbook is to serve the goals of the curriculum designers. The co-effectiveness of the textbook was not confirmed by the teachers since they reported they spent a lot of time on explaining the tasks which did not sound organized so well to allow learners make connections between what they already know and what they learn and find further opportunities to explore the content. Teachers also maintained that the most part of the content of the textbook does not sound satisfactory to them since the repetition of target language items was not sufficient to cover the required skills and strategies. In addition, it was found that the textbook`s aim to improve learners` fluency in the skills was not successfully achieved.

As an indispensable part of an evaluation process, the content of the textbook has always been a vital part of curriculum design and development procedure. Based on what it was drawn from the findings of this study and Rodrigues`s (2015) study, the textbook did not cover the topics that provide an in-depth understanding of the content; moreover, the initial linguistic items did not succeed completely in building understanding upon learners` previous knowledge. In fact, the content of the textbook did not allow for cycling and repetition of the language items to help attract learners` attention to the target language constantly. Hence, the textbook might prove to be more successful in case of providing more input processing for meaning and form as well as more authentic input manipulation by the use of comprehensible input that is essential to their language system. In the same vein, the findings of the study approved Ghorbani`s (2011) findings that concluded the high school textbook in Iranian context did not cover a balanced strategy of skills` distribution. Indeed, Yarmohammadi (2002), Hosseini (2007), Ghorbani (2011), and Alavi (2013) also stated that the speaking and listening skills were totally ignored in EFL textbooks of Iranian schools.

It is remarkable to mention that the findings of the interview were in harmony with the results obtained from the questionnaire which determines the triangulation has led to reliable and valid results. Since the two instruments supported one another, it was manifested that the questionnaire and the interview have been successful in achieving the main purpose of this research which was a multiaspectual post-use evaluation of the newly designed high school textbook for first graders. In fact, the proposed framework was investigated to check the pedagogical fitness of the textbook with the current curriculum goals. Hence, the outcome of this research was previously endorsed by Tomlinson (2001) who maintained that post-use evaluation is the most practical since they provide the actual reflection of the materials on learners and teachers.

Finally, this study can be considered as one of the few attempts that have investigated the new high school EFL textbook in Iran from a multiaspectual evaluation perspective. The textbook`s true efficiencies and deficiencies can best be obtained through the attitudes of its users. Thus, the administrators, material designers, syllabus and curriculum designers, stakeholders, teachers, and professionals can gain insight to the facts by the first-hand evidence provided by the teachers and learners who have experienced the merits and demerits of the textbook. Currently, the material developers gain a wider insight into elements to be included and the extent of their emphasis in the textbook. In fact, modifying or revising the textbook can lead to enhancement of the overall language curriculum. Accordingly, the modifications can assist teachers with providing supplementary materials and additional sources to overcome the shortcomings of the textbook.

It might be useful to extend the practice stage in each section of the textbook to give learners more opportunities to use the target language. Besides, additional material can be provided for learners such as comic trips, authentic audio and video files, extra readings and story books, and picture stories to motivate learners and familiarize them with the real-life English in different contexts. Moreover, additional individual and choral speaking tasks such as giving repots, telling stories, giving short presentations, group discussions, role-plays, and chain activities can be applied to assist learners with their speaking skills and create an interactive situation that can improve learners` communicative skills. In fact, making a balance in all the four skills can enable learners and teachers perform better in class. Moreover, the activities need to be flexible and suit learners` level since they are beginners and too much information may change to a burden and demotivate them.

Additionally, progress tests might help learners get familiar with typical content and form of the exams, minimize their anxiety and stress on tests, motivate them to study, and help teachers find learners` problems on each lesson. Finally, the teachers might be given some extra materials or have the authority to create supplementary materials to employ in accordance with the context and education policy of their school. This could help the teachers get engaged in the material development as well as evaluation of their work considering the needs and expectations of the learners.

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Appendix

Table 1

The Frequency and Percentage Values of High School Students' Attitude towards the Content and Sequencing Sub-domain

No.	Statements	F/P	Sa	A	U	D	Sd	Mean	SD
1	My English textbook provides the best possible coverage of content.	F P	9 7.5%	19 15.8%	11 9.2%	37 30.8%	44 36.7%	3.73	0.645
2	I think that my English textbook includes items that occur frequently in the language.	F P	10 8.3%	13 10.8%	12 10%	39 32.5%	46 38.3%	3.82	0.574
3	The activities in my English textbook aim at improving the learners' fluency of language use in listening.	F P	12 10%	19 15.8%	13 10.8	44 36.7%	32 26.7%	3.54	0.521
4	I feel that the content in my English textbook provides the learners with the best return for their learning efforts.	F P	2 1.7%	13 10.8%	11 9.2%	23 19.2%	71 59.2%	4.23	0.632
5	The *Prospect 1* series teach learners how to become independent learners.	F P	13 10.8%	37 30.8%	23 19.2%	22 18.3%	25 20.8%	3.07	0.574
6	My English textbook creates a lot of opportunities for retrieving items used in a variety of contexts.	F P	17 14.2%	25 20.8%	18 15%	15 12.5%	45 37.5%	3.38	0.565
7	The repetition of target language items in my English textbook are adequate for the learners to give attention to the wanted items.	F P	5 4.2%	8 6.7%	12 10%	18 15%	77 64.2%	4.28	0.675
8	I feel that English course books for high school students cover the required skills & strategies progressively.	FP	3 2.5%	20 16.7%	22 18.3%	41 34.2%	34 28.3%	3.69	0.723
9	I feel that English textbooks for high school students have a desirable sequencing of language items.	F P	7 5.8%	16 13.3%	19 15.8%	24 20%	54 45%	3.85	0.753
10	The activities in my English textbook aim at improving the learners' fluency of language use in	F P	11 9.2%	15 12.5%	15 12.5%	21 17.5%	58 48.3	3.83	0.662

	writing.								
11	The way content is presented in my English textbook takes account of learners' readiness for learning them.	F P	25 20.8%	41 34.2%	22 18.3%	23 19.2%	9 7.5%	2.58	0.782
12	The exercises and activities in my English textbook have a logical ordering considering my needs.	F P	16 13.3%	49 40.8%	26 21.7%	20 16.7%	9 7.5%	2.64	0.653

* SD: Strongly disagree; D: Disagree; U: Uncertain; A: Agree; SA: Strongly agree

Table 2
The Frequency and Percentage Values of High School Students' Attitude towards the Format and Presentation Sub-domain

No.	Statements	F/P	Sa	A	U	D	Sd	Mean	SD
13	My English course book helps me to make use of my previous knowledge and experience.	F P	6 5%	26 21.7%	16 13.3%	47 39.2%%	25 20.8	3.49	0.502
14	The activities in my English textbook aim at improving the learners' fluency of language use in speaking.	F P	3 2.5%	19 15.8%	37 30.8%	37 30.8%	24 20%	3.50	0.473
15	Items in my English textbook are arranged in such a way that earlier learning facilities subsequent learning.	F P	11 9.2%	22 18.3%	25 20.8%	45 37.5%	17 14.2%	3.29	0.536
16	I feel that my English textbook contains enough interesting activities and exercises which boost the learners' motivation.	F P	7 5.8%	16 13.3%	20 16.7%	47 39.2%	30 25%	3.64	0.542
17	My English textbook has substantial quantities of comprehensive activities in listening.	F P	0 0%	18 15%	21 17.5%	61 50.8%	20 16.7%	3.69	0.398
18	My English textbook has substantial quantities of comprehensive activities in reading.	F P	14 11.7%	37 30.8%	31 25.8%	24 20%	14 11.7%	2.89	0.548
19	The activities in my English textbook aim at improving the learners' fluency of language use in reading.	F P	20 16.7	44 36.7	27 22.5%	19 15.8%	10 8.3%	2.62	0.602
20	The format of presenting activities in my English textbook forces the learners' to produce language.	FP	7 5.8%	23 19.2%	22 18.3%	52 43.3%	16 13.3%	3.39	0.536
21	I feel that the activities and tasks in my English textbook engage the learners in focusing on second language sufficiently.	F P	7 5.8%	25 20.8%	14 11.7%	42 35%	32 26.7%	3.56	0.543

22	My English textbook provides a substantial number of activities on all aspects of L2 like sounds, spelling, vocabulary, grammar, and discourse areas.	F P	1 .8%	9 7.5%	18 15%	39 32.5%	53 44.2%	4.12	0.702
23	I feel that the English textbook used at high school level creates a positive learners' attitude towards English and its speakers.	F P	19 15.8%	40 33.3%	22 18.3%	28 23.3%	11 9.2%	2.77	0.584
24	The high school English textbook caters to the needs of the learners with different learning styles.	F P	3 2.5%	4 3.3%	22 18.3%	50 41.7%	41 34.2%	4.02	0.603
25	The format and presentation of activities in my English textbook provide a lot of opportunities for different learners.	F P	8 6.7%	15 12.5%	30 25%	35 29.2%	32 26.7%	3.57	0.504

* SD: Strongly disagree; D: Disagree; U: Uncertain; A: Agree; SA: Strongly agree

Table 3

The Frequency and Percentage Values of High School Students' Attitude towards Monitoring and Assessment Sub-domain

No.	Statements	Sa	A	U	D	Sd	Mean	SD
26	I feel that the content and activities in my English textbook best fit the class time specified in the high school curriculum.	3 2.5%	4 3.3%	18 15%	5 4.2%	90 75%	4.46	0.785
27	I feel that the content and activities in my English textbook are well-geared to the learners' learning needs.	5 4.2%	6 5%	8 6.7%	19 15.8%	82 68.3%	4.39	0.773
28	I feel that the content and activities in my English textbook at high school level are designed based on careful consideration of existing teaching conditions.	9 7.5%	11 9.2%	13 10.8%	21 17.5%	66 55%	4.03	0.791
29	I feel that the content and activities in high school English textbooks provide ample opportunities for assessment and self-directed learning.	6 5%	22 18.3%	10 8.3%	25 20.8%	57 47.5%	3.87	0.699
30	My English textbook provides me with helpful feedback which allows me to improve the quality of language use.	2 1.6%	4 3.3%	11 9.2%	20 16.7%	83 69.2%	4.48	0.782
31	I think that the activities and tasks in my English textbook have been designed by careful consideration of class size in Iran.	28 23.3%	31 25.8%	12 10%	24 20%	25 20.8%	2.89	0.657
32	I feel that the successful completion of the lesson units in my English textbook gives me a feeling of achievement.	25 20.8%	34 28.3%	19 15.8%	21 17.5%	21 17.5%	2.82	0.634
33	I think that English textbooks used at the high school level help learners to achieve the targeted goals.	0 0%	6 5%	8 6.7%	17 14.2%	89 74.2%	4.57	0.548
34	The vocabulary items used in my English textbook are adequate.	32 26.7%	34 28.3%	20 16.7%	26 21.7%	8 6.7%	2.53	0.627
35	The format, type of paper, print and pictures used in high school English	0 0%	8 6.7%	9 7.5%	20 16.7%	83 69.2%	4.48	0.532

	textbooks are appealing to the learners.							
36	The high school English textbooks employ language learning websites to offer students self-access, supplementary materials.	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	23 19.2%	97 80.8%	4.81	0.334
37	The high school English textbooks use relevant technologies which enable multimedia glosses (e.g. graphic, audio/visual, etc.) for reading and listening activities.	0 0%	10 8.3%	8 6.7%	16 13.3%	86 71.1%	4.48	0.523
38	Materials used in high school English textbooks provide ample opportunities for peer interaction.	4 3.3%	14 11.7%	35 29.2%	21 17.5%	46 38.3%	3.76	0.772
39	Activities and tasks in high school English textbooks make use of "real English for real world".	15 12.5%	6 5%	18 15%	20 16.7%	61 50.8%	3.88	0.705
40	I feel that the way a teacher handles an English textbook is very important to learning.	47 39.2%	71 59.2%	2 1.7%	0 0%	0 0%	1.63	0.623

* SD: Strongly disagree; D: Disagree; U: Uncertain; A: Agree; SA: Strongly agree

MJLTM

SELF-EFFICACY AND IRANIAN FEMALE EFL LEARNERS' WRITING PERFORMANCE: AN INVESTIGATION INTO THEIR RELATIONSHIP

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ABSTRACT
THIS STUDY, WHICH UTILIZED QUANTITATIVE METHODOLOGY, AIMED TO INVESTIGATE WHETHER THERE IS A RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SELF-EFFICACY AND IRANIAN FEMALE EFL LEARNERS' WRITING PERFORMANCE IN A SURVEY-BASED CORRELATIONAL DESIGN. FOR THIS PURPOSE, AFTER ADMINISTERING A LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY TEST, FOR THE PURPOSE OF HOMOGENIZING THE LEARNERS, 56 OUT OF 70 STUDENTS, WHO ARE STUDYING ENGLISH IN AN INSTITUTE IN WEST AZARBAIJAN WERE CHOSEN AS THE ULTIMATE PARTICIPANTS OF THE STUDY. PARTICIPANTS WERE AT THE AGE RANGE OF 19-27. REGARDING THE PURPOSE OF THIS STUDY, TWO INSTRUMENTS WERE USED TO COLLECT DATA. PARTICIPANTS WERE REQUIRED TO FILL OUT GENERAL SELF-EFFICACY QUESTIONNAIRE DESIGNED BY SHERER, ET.AL (1982). IN ORDER TO MAKE THE QUESTIONNAIRE MORE COMPREHENSIBLE, IT WAS ADAPTED TO IRANIAN CONTEXT. ADDITIONALLY, A WRITING TEST WAS ADMINISTERED. THE PARTICIPANTS' WRITING SAMPLE WAS OBTAINED USING IELTS WRITING TASKS. THE RESULTS WERE STUDIED ACCORDING TO IELTS NINE-BAND SCALE. THE WRITINGS WERE SCORED BY TWO RATERS YIELDING AN INTER-RATER RELIABILITY OF 0.86. THE FINDINGS OBTAINED THROUGH PEARSON CORRELATION REVEALED THAT THERE IS NO SIGNIFICANT RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SELF-EFFICACY AND IRANIAN FEMALE EFL LEARNERS' WRITING PERFORMANCE. THE EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS OF THE FINDINGS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCHES ARE ALSO DISCUSSED.

KEY WORDS: SELF-EFFICACY, WRITING PERFORMANCE, FEMALE EFL LEARNERS, IRANIAN CONTEXT.

1. INTRODUCTION

Writing is an important skill in communication and learning a second language. However, for many years, by the advent of audio- lingual movement, the major focus of language learning was on the oral skills and writing has been neglected as a productive skill (Chastain, 1988). In spite of the significant role of writing in foreign language classrooms it was excluded from ESL teaching programs (Reid, 1993). Traditional approach in teaching writing was product-oriented approach in which, both teachers and students focused on mechanics and grammar forms rather than ideas and thoughts being conveyed (Chastain, 1988). But writing involves the exploration of ideas and thoughts in the process of putting them on paper (Zamel, as cited in Chastain,1988). As the result of significant changes in the field of foreign language and learning teaching, writing has got revitalized importance during the recent decades. This skill has been regarded as demanding and complicated skill since reconstructing new ideas is intricate and it includes transforming knowledge. The ability to convey one's thoughts and feelings

successfully in writing depends on the sense of efficacy towards that skill (Hosseini Fatemi & Vahidnia, 2013).

Self-efficacy "an individual's confidence" as an important social psychological variable in language learning has an impact on learners' performance. Furthermore, Self-efficacy belief affects people's ways of thinking, feeling, motivation, action (Bandura, 1993, 1994; Tilfarlioglu, 2009). However, self-doubt, low self-efficacy and negative motivation may affect a students' ability to write well (Graham, Harris, & Manson, 2005). Self-efficacy is extremely important in writing and even in everyday life, for example, in health, cognitive factors, career achievement, and education (Bandura, 1997). It can influence writing performance, usefulness of writing and writing apprehension which are essential factors in writing performance (Pajares & Valiante, 1999). Self-efficacy is a key to promote students' cognitive, behavioral and motivational engagement, which illustrates it's vital role in the development of writing competence (Graham et al. 2005).

Due to the importance of writing in second language and the impact of self-efficacy on learners' success in L2 and a dearth of studies in these areas, it seems necessary to investigate the relationship between self-efficacy and writing success in an EFL context such as Iran. Therefore, this study aimed to explore the relationship between self-efficacy and female EFL learners' writing performance.

2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Self-efficacy as a cognitive construct is developed as a key component of Bandura's Social Cognitive Theory. During the past two decades, self-efficacy has appeared as a strong predictor of students' motivation and learning. It has been defined in different ways. Oxford and Shearin (1994) defined self-efficacy as "one's judgment of how well one can execute the courses of action required to deal with prospective situations" (p.21). According to K.M. Baldwin, Baldwin and Ewald (2006), self beliefs influence thought patterns, the amount of effort expanded, stress level, endurance in the face of obstacles, and level of accomplishment achieved. Schunk (2001), stated that all beliefs about "one's capabilities to learn or perform behaviors at designated levels" are referred to self-efficacy (p.126). Moreover, according to Hosseini Fatemi and Vahadnia (2013), some studies have shown that self-efficacy contributes to the prediction of writing outcomes (Pajares, & Miller, 1995; Pajares, & Valiante, 1997a, 1997b; Zimmerman & Risemberg, 1997).

Writing achievement is one of the important goals of language learners. Academic writing ability has been particularly recognized as one of the central facets of language ability for successful academic achievement (Damavand, 2012; Hosseini Fatemi &Vahidnia, 2013). Krashen (1981) pointed out that writing performance is a spontaneous skill through which learners have better controlling and monitoring on themselves as well as retaining their knowledge during their performance. According to Silva and Matusda (2001), social and affective factors seem to strongly influence the writing development of second language writers who have to learn a new language in different social contexts. Moreover, Bronson (2005) who followed four ESL graduate students through their academic careers for a period of 1-3 years found that ESL students' development in writing would be hindered without social and moral supports. Rubin, Katznelson and Perpignan argued that students' affective and social domains are to be approved and inspired as part of their educational development along with the cognitive one (as cited in Damavand, 2012). Given the importance of self-efficacy as affective variable in the process of L2 learning different researches have been done in past decades.

Pajares and Valiente (2001) carried out a research on writing self-efficacy of elementary school students and found that students' writing achievement is predicted by their beliefs. Additionally, they concluded that students' anxiety about the task of writing, their feelings about its perceived effectiveness and particularly their evaluation of essay writing directly were influenced by their self-efficacy beliefs. In another study Pajares (2003) examined the contribution of self-efficacy component in the writing in academic settings. The findings demonstrated that students' confidence in their writing abilities controls their writing motivation as well as various writing outcomes in school. Findings of these two studies indicated that pupils who regarded themselves as successful and good writers, could undeniably write well, while the students who considered themselves as imperfect writers, would work in accordance with their beliefs. Along the same line, Kim and Lorsbach (2005) studied whether young students were capable

of describing their self-efficacy in writing and whether there was a correspondence among the educators, investigator, and students' perception of writing self-efficacy or not. They found out that the degree of writing development of students with high sense of self-efficacy was greater than those having low self-efficacy. In addition, individuals with low self-efficacy exhibited limited knowledge of writing rules and skills. Moreover, Kim and Lorsbach (2005) demonstrated in their study that students with low self-efficacy for writing avoid writing tasks more than those with high level of self-efficacy.

Another study was designed by Shah, Wan Mahmud, Din,Yusof and Mat Pardi (2011) to examine the relationship between the Malaysian English language learners' self-efficacy and their writing performance and competence. Two instruments were used to collect data: writing assessments and self-efficacy questionnaires. The findings showed the significant positive relationship between self-efficacy and writing performance. And the results revealed that respondents exhibited a medium level of self-efficacy in writing.

Along the same line, Sarkhoush (2013) sought to investigate whether writing performance in students of English as a foreign language (EFL) was related to self-efficacy in writing, writing apprehension, and attitude towards writing. Fifty IELTS students, studying IELTS Writing participated in the study. In order to collect data, three instruments were utilized including: a writing apprehension test (WAT), a self-efficacy in writing scale (SWS), and a questionnaire on attitude towards writing (WAQ). The results indicated that self-efficacy and writing performance were positively correlated. Besides, the results showed that self-efficacy in writing and writing apprehension was negatively correlated. Moreover a positive correlation between self-efficacy and attitude towards writing was found. There was a negative correlation between writing apprehension and attitude towards writing. Finally there was a negative correlation between writing apprehension and writing performance. The findings also revealed that those learners with positive attitudes accomplished better than those with negative attitudes on writing task. In terms of self-efficacy and apprehension levels no significant differences were found.

Hosseini Fatemi and Vahidnia (2013) conducted a study to investigate the relationship between EFL learners' sense of self-efficacy and their writing achievement. Participants were ninety three Iranian EFL learners. Instruments were two English and General self-efficacy questionnaires, and students were supposed to write on given topic. A significant relationship was found between learners' writing performance and English self-efficacy beliefs, and also between learners' writing performance and their General self-efficacy beliefs. English self-efficacy beliefs have stronger relationship with learners' writing performance than General self-efficacy.

Hashemnajad, Zoghi, and Amini (2014) conducted a research to examine the relationship between the learners' self-efficacy and their writing performance across gender. Participants were 120 EFL university students. At three different points in time, the participants were asked to write essays and also responded to the questionnaires on self-efficacy. They found that there was no significant relationship between male and female EFL students' self-efficacy and writing performance. Findings also revealed that there was a significant positive relationship in self-efficacy between female and male EFL students.

Self-efficacy belief is one of the main mechanisms of human agency in social cognitive theory. There are different factors which affect self-efficacy and likely increase it such as: goal setting, models, social comparison, feedback and rewards. Goal setting: Schunck (1984) stated that goal setting is an important variable which affects achievement outcomes. He believed that setting goal conveys more sense of self-efficacy to the learners to attempt hard to achieve it. Social comparison: Observing similar peers success in doing a task, people's self-efficacy would increase (Gorban Doordinejad, & Afshar, 2014). If students believe that they can learn as well as their similar peers, so the social comparative information provided by the teachers should help them to develop a sense of efficacy for learning (Schunk, 1984). Feedback: Giving feedback is beneficial to the students at the time of performing a task (Gorban Doordinejad, & Afshar, 2014). Rewards: Reward possibilities have important contextual influence on students' efficacy appraisals (Schunk, 1984).

Writing well is one of the most complicated human activities. The complex processes of writing have been studied in different ways. Since affective factors such as self-efficacy are very significant in

language learning, this study aimed to explore the relationship between self-efficacy and female EFL learners' writing performance at intermediate level.

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1 Design of the Study

This study used quantitative data collection method in which the data was collected from a questionnaire and a writing test. The study has a correlational design. There were two variables in this study, one of which is the general self-efficacy of the EFL candidates and the other one was their writing performance.

3.2 Setting and Participants

In this study, 70 female participants were chosen from a language institute in West Azarbaijan. They all were native speakers of Azari. Although they were taking intermediate classes of English, having been learning English for at least 5 years, a test of general English proficiency was used for homogenizing the students regarding their proficiency level. Among the standardized tests, Oxford Placement Test (OPT) was chosen for measuring students language proficiency. Then, Out of 70 individuals, 56 participants who scored one standard deviation above and below the mean were conceived of as being at the intermediate level and selected as the ultimate candidates for the research. The point with regard to the main reason for selecting intermediate language learners for this study was that learners of this level of proficiency deal with writing skill frequently than lower levels learners. In other words, they are familiar with writing skill and also the approaches and methods for writing effectively. The age of participants ranged from 19 to 27. There was no age limitation since researchers observed an age disparity among participant.

3.3 Instrumentations

For the purpose of the current study, the following instruments were utilized: The Oxford Placement Test (OPT), General Self-Efficacy Scale (GSES) and IELTS writing test. The employed instruments are discussed in the following sections.

3.3.1 The Oxford Placement Test (OPT)

The test contained 60 multiple choice items was utilized to enable the researchers to control the language proficiency of the learners. This test consisted of grammar (20 items), vocabulary (20 items), reading comprehension (20 items) together with a writing section. The time allocated for answering the questions was an hour.

3.3.2 General Self-Efficacy Scale:

To measure students' general self-efficacy, the researchers used General Self-Efficacy Scale (GSES), which is originally designed and validated by Sherer et al., (1982). In order to make the questionnaire more comprehensible, it was adapted to Iranian context. The scoring method for general self-efficacy is a matter of one to five points awarded (strongly disagree=1 to strongly agree=5) based on Likert scale. A total scale score ranges from 15 to 75 and higher scores indicate a higher level of belief in one's self-efficacy. Each item gets a score of 1 to 5 producing a score range of 15 to 75.In the current study, Cronbach's alpha for this scale was 0.82.

3.3.3 Writing Test:

In this study, the writing test was selected from the IELTS test. The result was studied according to IELTS nine-band scale. Each overall band scale points out a descriptive statement which tells a summary of the English language ability of a student classified at a certain proficiency level. The writing test was scored by two raters.

3.4 Procedure

This study was conducted in three stages administering: a placement test, self-efficacy questionnaire, and a writing test. Initially all participants attended a common session and were given the Oxford Placement Test (OPT) to ensure that they were at intermediate level of language proficiency. After homogenizing, out of 70 participants, 56 candidates were established as intermediate EFL learners according to OPT. Then, in the next first session these participants were asked to fill out self-efficacy questionnaire which included 15 five-point Likert items and they were told that they would have been given enough time to fill it out about 20 minutes. The researchers distributed the questionnaire to the participants and then explained the instructions to them in Persian. Students were asked to check the questions carefully and if there were some questions regarding the comprehension of the questions, they were permitted to ask them either in native language (NL) or English target language (TL). There was no missed questionnaire. It should be mentioned that some changes were made in the wordings of questions by using synonyms to make it more comprehensible for the Iranian students. Respondents were informed that the information they gave would be kept confidential and would be used only for research purposes.

In the third stage, students who had instruction of essay writing during their years of study, were asked to write an essay in a different session. The topic of writing test was selected from IELTS test. The writing test took 40 minutes and required participants to write at least 250 words. The compositions were graded according to IELTS nine-band scale by two raters. Both raters were English instructors at the institute. In this part, the inter-rater reliability was established to see how consistent the raters were in their judgments. To this end, the inter-rater reliability was found to be acceptable (0.86). The average of raters' scores was taken as the main scores for computation.

4. RESULTS

In the analysis of the obtained data, the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software version 19 was used. First, descriptive statistics was calculated. Then, Pearson product-moment correlation was employed to determine the association between participants' English writing performance and self-efficacy beliefs.

4.1 Descriptive Statistics of Self-efficacy

Table 1 shows descriptive statistics for the scores of the subjects on the self-efficacy questionnaire. The Table provides a summary of minimum, maximum, and mean scores, as well as standard deviations in self-efficacy scores.

Table 1 Descriptive statistics of students in self-efficacy variable

Variable	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD
Self-efficacy	56	37.00	56.00	45.66	5.21

Total scores for self-efficacy could be between 15 to 75, and as the Table 1 demonstrates the participants total scores ranged from 37 to 56. The mean score was 45.66 and the SD was 5.21. This questionnaire was proved to be reliable with the Cronbach's Alpha value of .82.

4.2 Inferential Statistics

Inferential statistics deal with appropriate data analysis to answer the research question of the study. In order to confirm or reject null hypothesis of the current study, the researchers have taken the following data analysis into consideration.

Null Hypothesis

H0: There is no significant relationship between self-efficacy and female EFL learners' writing performance.

To find out whether there was any significant relationship between female EFL learners' self-efficacy and their writing scores, Pearson Product Moment Correlation was run between female learners' self-efficacy scores and their writing scores. The results are summarized in Table 2.

Table 2 Results of pearson's correlation for female self-efficacy and writing scores

			Writing scores
Female	self-efficacy	Pearson correlation	.253
		Sig.(2-tailed)	.060
		N	56

As shown in Table 2 the correlation is '.253' and P-value is '.060'. (r=.253, P=.060). Thus, it can be concluded that there is no significant relationship between self-efficacy and writing in females. P is higher than 0.05 (p>0.05) (correlation is significant at the 0.05 level). So, the null hypothesis (H0) is confirmed because according to the Table 2 there is no significant relationship between female self-efficacy and writing performance.

5. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

As was stated previously, this study aimed to investigate the relationship between self-efficacy of Iranian female intermediate EFL learners and their writing performance. To realize the relationship between self-efficacy and writing, Pearson Product Moment Correlation was run. The obtained results from the present study revealed that there was no significant relationship between female EFL students' self-efficacy and writing performance. Therefore, the null hypothesis was confirmed. The finding was consistent with those of Hashemnejad et al. (2014) concluded in their studies that there is no significant relationship between male and female EFL students' self-efficacy and writing performance. However, there were evident controversial results and it is believed that self-efficacy has an impact on learning and success. Zimmerman, Bandura and Martinez-Pons, (1992) stated that "perceived efficacy to achieve motivates academic attainment both directly and indirectly by influencing personal goal setting"(p.12). Sarkhoush (2013), Assadi Aidinlou and Massomifar (2014) found that self-efficacy and writing performance were positively correlated. Also Hethong and Teo (2013) found that there is a positive relationship between writing self-efficacy and writing performance both at the paragragh level and at the sub-skill level. Other findings have revealed strong feelings in writing self-efficacy and they have investigated the relationship between writing self-belief and writing final result in universities; a strong relationship between them was revealed (Pajares, & Johnson, 1996; Pajares, 2000; Pajares, & Valiente, 2001).

As it was mentioned in the literature review, self-efficacy theory postulates that students who judge themselves as capable and confident tend more to be motivated (Seitfert, 2004, Hosseini Fatemi &Vahidnia, 2013). The findings of this study will help provide insight on students' self-efficacy beliefs, and their writing in learning English as a second language and the relationship between these two variables. Therefore, useful input is yielded to EFL teachers in gauging the effective way to boost their learners' motivation and to encourage them to enhance their self-efficacy beliefs. Persuasion is one of the sources of self-efficacy and motivation (Bandura, 1986). Therefore, positive feedback and encouragement from the teachers can enhance students' self-efficacy and motivation. The results of this study may help EFL learners. Individuals get efficacy information from their performances, experiences, persuasions, and physiological indexes (Schunk & Swart, 1993). By being aware of their capabilities, their beliefs, and their feelings, they attempt to diminish the effects of obstacles in L2 learning.

Like many other studies the present study encountered with some limitations. The small sample size is one of this research's limitations. It could be beneficial for subsequent research to explore these issues with a wider range of participants. Another limitation was related to that participants were selected from a private institute, therefore the findings of the study is limited to be generalized to other

Iranian EFL learners. Further researchers are recommended to run the same research at public schools or universities. Another drawback, associates with the techniques of data collection. In this study learners' self-efficacy was assessed through questionnaire, it is possible that learners' response might not indicate their genuine behaviors because of several factors such as their overestimation or underestimation of their capabilities, social demands, the anxiety they may gain while they are responding. Therefore, in future studies the researchers need to use other extra techniques such as face to face interview, observation in order to obtain more comprehensive pictures of learners' self-efficacy. The other limitation related to that, only one language proficiency level was taken into consideration. Conducting the study with different language proficiency level can emerge different results.

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THE EFFECT OF TEAM –POLICY DEBATE ACTIVITIES ON IRANIAN INTERMEDIATE EFL LEARNERS' LISTENING COMPREHENSION ABILITY

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ABSTRACT
THE PRESENT INVESTIGATION WAS AN ATTEMPT TO STUDY THE EFFECT OF TEAM –POLICY DEBATE ACTIVITIES ON IRANIAN INTERMEDIATE EFL LEARNERS' LISTENING COMPREHENSION ABILITY. TO THAT END, AN OPT TEST WAS ADMINISTERED TO 110 EFL STUDENTS LEARNING ENGLISH IN SIMIN LANGUAGE INSTITUTE. LEARNERS WHO SCORED BETWEEN ONE ABOVE AND BELOW THE STANDARD DEVIATION WERE SELECTED FOR THE STUDY, BECAUSE THIS STUDY FOCUSED ON INTERMEDIATE LEARNERS. SO 40 LEARNERS WERE SELECTED FOR THIS STUDY AND THEY WERE DIVIDED INTO EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUP, EACH GROUP CONTAINED 20 LEARNERS. THEN A LISTENING COMPREHENSION TEST WAS ADMINISTERED TO BOTH GROUPS AS A PRE-TEST TO TAKE THEIR INITIAL KNOWLEDGE OF LISTENING COMPREHENSION. THE LISTENING SECTION OF THE DEVELOPING TACTICS FOR LISTENING WAS SELECTED TO TEST THE LISTENING ABILITY OF THE PARTICIPANTS. THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP USED DEBATES IN FIFTEEN SESSIONS .THE CONTROL GROUP WERE TAUGHT THE TRADITIONAL WAY. FINALLY BOTH GROUPS SAT FOR THE POST-TEST FOR LISTENING COMPREHENSION TEST. AN INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T-TEST WAS CONDUCTED TO SEE IF MALES AND FEMALES HAD DIFFERENT PERFORMANCES. THE RESULTS WERE COMPUTED AND ANALYZED THROUGH SPSS AND IT WAS EXPLORED THAT USING TEAM POLICY DEBATES HAD A POSITIVE EFFECT ON IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS' LISTENING COMPREHENSION ABILITY. THE RESULTS ALSO INDICATED THAT THERE WAS NO SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MALES AND FEMALES IN THIS RESEARCH.

KEY WORDS: LISTENING COMPREHENSION, TEAM –POLICY, LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY, PLANNING

1. INTRODUCTION

Listening comprehension is one of the most significant skills of a good language learner in normal daily life. It is a major component in language learning and teaching and is seen as the promoter of language learning. Although listening is now well recognized as a critical dimension in language learning, it still remains one of the least understood processes. During the 1980s, special attention to listening was incorporated into new instructional frameworks, that is, functional language and communicative approaches. Throughout the 1990s, attention to listening in language instruction increased dramatically.
Debate is an excellent activity for language learning because it engages students in a variety of cognitive and linguistic ways. In addition to providing meaningful listening , speaking and writing practice , debate is also highly effective for developing argumentation skills for persuasive speech and writing .

When debating is used in EFL classes, all four skills of English language (e.g. listening, speaking, reading, and writing) are practiced. Moreover, debaters need to master pronunciation of words, stress,

vocabulary, brainstorming, script writing, logic building, argumentation and refutation. So practicing debate in English requires many skills which ultimately lead them to learn English.

2. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

According to Graham, & Vander plank (2011) , many learners are anxious about listening to a foreign language , this is partly because of the difficulties presented by the text , for example the speed of delivery , and partly because learners have unrealistic expectations , for example that they need to understand every words. If he/she follows the principles for the selection of appropriate texts and design of the tasks , then we have every chance of helping our students to develop confidence in dealing with a range of texts and speakers , and with variations in speed of delivery. An important factor in the development of confidence will be the grading of tasks throughout a program me , and in order to grade effectively he/she needs to follow . also for groups of factors to be taken in to account in grading of tasks according to (Brown & Yule (1983)) , it is to do with the speaker , content of the text , the listener and it covers the degree of support . Confidence can also be built through exposure to English. If English is available in the community , learners might be persuaded to exploit the available resources in some way.

3. SIGNIFICANCE of the study

The field of listening in second language acquisition and pedagogy in L_2 had occupied a particular position through much of the history of language teaching but it has enjoyed about a half century of endeavors by scholars, experts, teachers and began to emerge as a branch of teaching, learning and testing in its own right with exponentially growth numbers of stockpile of knowledge.

We listen for the gist, or for specific information that we need to know. The main goal of teaching listening is to enable our students eventually to cope with the natural listening situations that they are most likely to encounter in real life. The listening comprehension process is internal and thus not subject to direct, external observation, examination and correction. Therefore, language teachers and students tend to overlook its prerequisite importance in language learning because there is learning no tend to overlook its prerequisite importance in language because there is no immediate observable output.

4. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

In spite of the fact that listening lagged behind during the history of language learning, however, Interest in teaching / learning of English listening skill has been gaining momentum in recent years mainly due to more reasons such as being an international l/ language in real life situation we listen for a number of different purposes and our particular purpose will determent the range and balance of team-policy-debate activities skill which we need to employ in English language classroom, means of communication and so forth.

Krashen and Terrell (1983, pp. 75 - 78) believe that several ways in which the teacher can provide com prehensile input in the initial stages of language learning without resorting to the students native language. To do so the teacher maintains their attention on key lexical items, uses appropriate gestures, and uses context to help them understand response activities because the technique enable students to focus on and understand meaning as they see the teacher and other students performing the commands they particularly recommend total physical an interesting examples of focusing on interactional task especially discussion comes from.

4.1 WHAT IS TEAM POLICY DEBATE ACTIVITY

Team policy debate is the oldest, and still probably the most popular format of debate practiced in language classes .The preposition side is called the affirmative and the opposition side is called the negative. Each side is a team composed of two debaters, so that there are two groups participating in the debate. These debates are the Lincoln-Douglas debate and also there are several different format for debate practiced in high schools and college. In many debate formats, there is a policy resolution(a resolution regarding the policies followed by some organization or government) represent a change from

current policy, so that the opposition team will be defending the status. Policy debate is a form of debate competition in which team of two advocate for and against a resolution that typically calls for policy change by United States Federal government. It is also referred to as cross examination debate (sometimes shortened to cross – X, CX, cross – ex or C-X)1 because of the questioning period following each constructive speech affirmative teams generally present a plan as a proposal for implementation of the resolution.

Overall, there is also a judge present in the debate whose job is to decide the winner. Below are descriptions of some of the most common debate formats:

High school formats
Team policy debate
Lincoln-Douglas debate
College format
NDT debate
CEDA debate
Parliamentary debate

-High school

High school policy debate is sponsored by various organizations including the national speech and debate association, national catholic forensic league, STOAUSA, and the national Christian forensics and communications association, as well as many other regional speech organizations. Collegiate policy debate are generally competed under the guidelines of national debate tournament (NDT) and the cross examination debate association (CEDA), which have been joined at the collegiate level a one – person policy Format is sanctioned by the national forensic association (NFA) on the collegiate level as well.

-Team Policy Debate

Team policy debate is the oldest, and still probably the most popular, format of debate practiced in American high schools. The proposition side is called the affirmative or (Aff), and the opposition side is called the negative or (Nag). Each side is a team composed of two debaters, so a round of team policy debate consists of Speeches. The first speeches are called constructive speeches, because the teams are perceived as laying out their most important arguments during these speeches the last speeches are called rebuttals, because the teams are expected to extend and apply arguments that have already been made, rather than make new argument?

-LD

Lincoln – Douglas (or L-D)1 debate began as a reaction to the excesses of team policy debate in high school the idea was to have a debate focused on discussing the merits of come ting ethical in a persuasive manner. L-D is a one-on-one debate, and as in team policy debate, the proposition and opposition teams are called the Affirmative and the negative. The emphasis was on speaking clearly, logically, and fluently.

-College format

A similar view by the mid-1970$_s$, structured rules for lengths of speeches developed. Each side (affirmative and negative) was afforded two opening qwerty as "constructive" speeches, and two closing "rebuttal" speeches, for a total of Speeches per debate. Traditionally rebuttals were half the length of constructive, but when a style of faster delivery speed became more standard in the late 1980$_s$ this time structure became problematic. Wake Forest University introduced reformed speech times in both its college and high school tournaments, which spread rapidly to become the new de facto standards.

-NDT

NDT stands for national debate tournament. It is the oldest, and probably most popular form of debate at the college level. NDT is just like the team policy debate of high school, except more so.

-CEDA

Studies on CEDA stands for cross – examination debate association. This is a newer from of college – level debate than NDT, and it was born as a reaction to NDT in the same way that Lincoln – Douglas debate was born as a reaction to team policy debate. CEDA is a two – on – two debate with a structure

very similar to that of NDT and team policy debate. The difference is in the style of resolution while NDT resolutions are policy – oriented, this is not always the case in CEDA. In addition, CEDA was intended to be values – driven debate.

-Parliamentary

An important element in Parliamentary debate is yet another form of debate that arose as a reaction against the excesses of NDT and team policy debate. This form of debate is called "parliamentary 'because of its vague resemblance to the debates that take place in the British parliament. The proposition team is called the "government team" consist of two debaters, the prime minister (PM) and the member of government (MG) the opposition team also consist of two debaters, the leader of the opposition (LO) and the member of the opposition (MO). Parliamentary debate is actually a world – wide phenomenon, but the rules differ greatly from country to country.

4.2. PROCESSES IN LISTENING

Listening Processes both terms "bottom-up processing" and "top-down processing" originally came from computer science, and were later introduced to the linguistic field. Some studies on bottom-up processing carries the meaning of "data-driven", and top-down processing is known as "knowledge driven" in computer science (Field, 1999). In the second language acquisition field, the terms bottom-up processing and top-down processing are used to describe the cognitive processes of second language listening or reading (Clement, 2007).

Vandergrift (2007) believes that listeners favored bottom-up processes when they relied on their linguistic knowledge to recognize linguistic elements-phonemes, syllables, words, phrases, sentences to construct meaning. On the contrary, top-down processes work in the opposite direction, and listeners used context and prior knowledge (topic, genre, culture and other schema knowledge stored in long-term memory) to build meaning.

In fact, a set of alternative terms for bottom-up processing and top-down processing are decoding and meaning building (Field, 2008). The decoding process starts from the sound elements of the target language, such as phonemes and syllables, and then progresses into words, phrases, and sentences. In contrast, the meaning building process requires external information, such as world knowledge, personal experiences, or prior knowledge gained in academic situations. Field explained the reason why he suggested a new set of terms was that the words "bottom-up" and "top-down" might cause misinterpretations by implying opposite stances on comprehension. However, research suggested that L2 listeners need to learn both types of processes in order to successful complete a comprehension task, depending on the purpose for listening(Mendelsohn, 2001; Vandergrift, 2004).

4.2.1. BOTTOM-UP PROCESSING

An important element in listening comprehension, bottom-up processing occurs when listeners attend to linguistic features and decode each sound and word for semantic meaning (Siegel, 2011).

According to Clement (2007), in bottom-up processing, the language learners heavily rely on sound input in listening comprehension. In order to guess what a word might being the listening text, a listener might try to match initial sounds to various lexicons that he/she knows and eliminate more and more possibilities until he/she finds the most accurate match to the input sounds (Clement, 2007).Clement (2007) believes that a comprehensible example of how a learner might encounter the new word "founder." When the learner initially hears the first phoneme /f/, he/she activates the memory of possible words that sound familiar, such as *find, fact, fan, found*, etc. As the learner receives the next sound, he/she then eliminates the words *find, fact,* and *fan*, as these words do not match the received sounds anymore. *Found* seems a good match, until the final sound /era/ occurs. Depending on language proficiency, the learner may infer the meaning of the word based on the link between *found* and *founder*. Such an elimination process usually takes no more than 25 second, (Field, 1999). Also, the processes of

analyzing first phonemes, then progressing into syllables, words, phrases, and even sentences can all occur simultaneously.

4.2.2. TOP-DOWN PROCESSING

The process of learning a second language, if learners encounter listening input for which they have no prior knowledge, they may need to resort to top-down processing to compensate for the insufficient knowledge of the language (Wilson, 2003). In top-down processing, the listeners draw upon background knowledge and expectations of the upcoming oral text and then infer what the true meaning of the speaker may have been (Clement, 2007). The representation of such prior knowledge or a generic concept of the subject is also referred as a schema. However, as schemata (plural of schema) are frequently being developed and updated, and listeners refer to a variety types of schemata that help them interpret the text and predict the outcomes (Roost, 2005). This knowledge could also assist learners to make sense of the oral text and fill in missing information. In the case of a cultural or intellectual disconnection, learners are able to adjust or incorporate a new schema to facilitate their comprehension. It is worth mentioning that listeners may not always correctly interpret the meaning of the oral text by applying the top-down process. According to Macro, Vander plank and Graham (2005), in their systematic review of the role of prior knowledge in listening comprehension, listeners' use of prior knowledge could lead to inaccurate comprehension especially when their interpretation lacked supporting evidence later in the text.

5. METHOD

5.1. THE DESIGN OF THE STUDY

The current study followed a quasi-experimental design in which subjects of the study were non-randomly selected, were made homogeneous, and then their intact classes were randomly assigned into control and experimental in order to investigate research questions of the study. The reason to call the design of this study quasi experimental is the lack of randomization which is one of the main principles of true experimental method of research (Faraday, 2008).

5.2. PARTICIPANTS

The study was conducted with 40 Iranian EFL students who were studying English at Simin language institute in Rasht, Iran. One class was randomly chosen as the experimental group and the other one with the same number and features were regarded as the control group. All participants were aged 18 to 27. In order to make sure of homogeneity, the participants were selected out of a pool of 110 based on their result in OPT test. Having calculated the mean and the SD, participants with the score of 1 SD above and below the mean (± 1SD from the mean) were selected to conduct the study. The rest of the students were in the classrooms but their scores were excluded from the data analysis phase. The first group (i.e. experimental group including 20 participants) received a 15-session treatment in which they encountered and received team-policy debate. The second group (i.e. control group including 20 participants) was taught the traditional way.

5.3 DATA ANALYSIS PROCEDURE

The results of post test were analyzed for further discussion via ANCOVA on the scores obtained from experimental and control group to see whether using team policy debate had any effects on EFL learners listening comprehension ability.

A descriptive statistical analysis was done on the collected data of OPT (Oxford Placement Test) test. The results are shown in Table (1).

Table 1 Descriptive statistics for the proficiency test

		OPT	gender
N	Valid	110	110
	Missing	0	0

Table (2) shows the number of students who took the pre-test and post-test. It should be mentioned that no one excluded.

Table 2 Number of students participated in pre-test and post-test case

	Included		Excluded		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Pre-test Group	40	100.0%	0	0%	40	100.0%
Post-test Group	40	100.0%	0	0%	40	100.0%

Table 2 represents the number of participants in the present research. All participants took part in pre-test and post-test in this study.

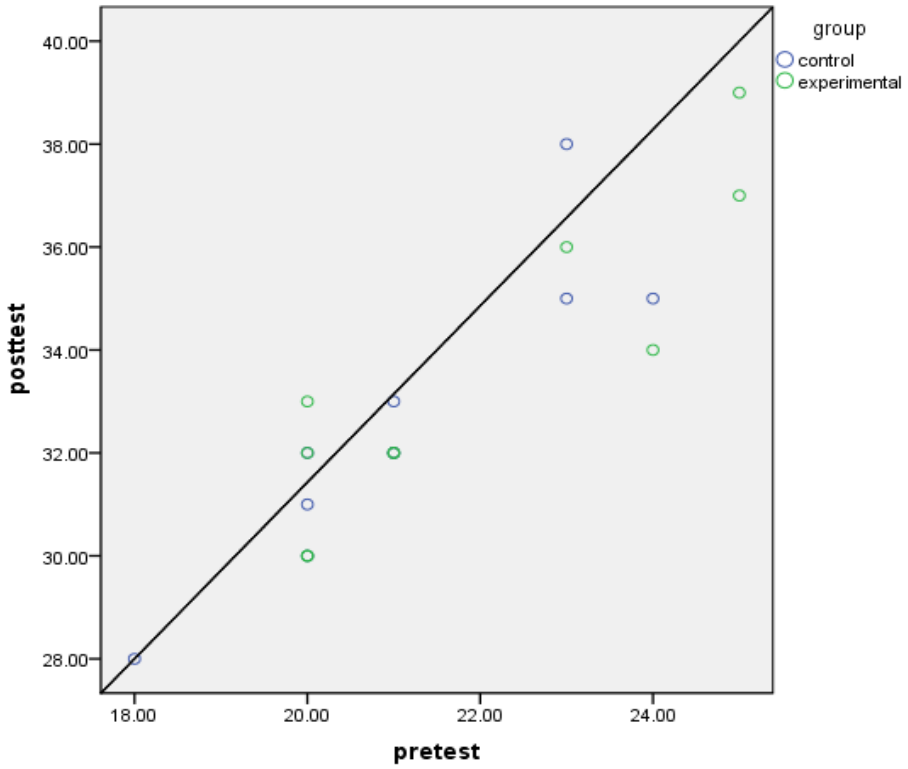
Table three indicates the descriptive statistics done on the pretest and posttest in this study.

Table 3 Mean of listening comprehension

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
pretest	20	18.00	25.00	21.5000	1.96013
posttest	20	28.00	39.00	33.0500	2.87411
Valid N (list wise	20)				

The descriptive statistical analysis done on the collected data of pre-test and post-test is shown in the table 3. The mean and standard deviation of each group are included. In this study, in order to investigate the research hypothesis "Team –policy debate activities do not have any significance effect on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' listening comprehension", the differences between mean scores of pre-test and post-test of control and experimental group were calculated through ANCOVA.

Before running ANCOVA, the following hypotheses were examined:
 Linear relationship between variables (pre-test and post -test)
 Equality of variances
 Homogeneity of regression
 The linear relationship between pre-test and post-test was examined through spread plot (1):
As graph(1) shows, because the regression lines are parallel, there is a linear relationship between the two variables, pre-test and post-test. It means that the relationship between the two variables in both groups is the same.



In order to examine the equality of variances, Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances was run. It tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

Table 4 Levene's test of equality of error variance.

F	df1	df2	Sig.
.517	1	18	.481

According to table 4 the calculated F is not significant. So there is equality of variances and ANCOVA can be run.

Table 5 Test of between subject effect

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	127.695[a]	2	63.847	37.101	.000	.814
Intercept	2.947	1	2.947	1.713	.208	.092
pretest	123.645	1	123.645	71.849	.000	.809
group	.130	1	.130	.075	.787	.004
Error	29.255	17	1.721			
Total	22003.000	20				
Corrected Total	156.950	19				

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	127.695[a]	2	63.847	37.101	.000	.814
Intercept	2.947	1	2.947	1.713	.208	.092
pretest	123.645	1	123.645	71.849	.000	.809
group	.130	1	.130	.075	.787	.004
Error	29.255	17	1.721			
Total	22003.000	20				
Corrected Total	156.950	19				

As table 5 shows, between subjects effect (a, b) is not significant (F=0.075, sig=0.787). It shows that the data supports homogeneity of regression. Therefore, covariance should be run just for between – subjects effect of post-test and the group to show whether mean scores of the two groups are the same or not. The result of this analysis is demonstrated in table 6.

Table 6 Mean of listening comprehension

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
pretest	20	18.00	25.00	21.5000	1.96013
posttest	20	28.00	39.00	33.0500	2.87411
Valid N (list wise)	20				

Table 6 shows the means of dependent variable of listening comprehension. The data demonstrate that the means of experimental group are upper than control group. Sum of analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) of listening comprehension in experimental and control group after eliminating between-subjects effect is demonstrated in table 7.

Table 7: Sum of Analysis of Covariance Source Type III Sum of Squares

SourceType lll Sum of Square	**df**	**Mean Score**	**F**	**Sig**	**Partial Eta Squared**
Corrected Model 1879.415	2	939.71	354.48	.00	.95
Pre-test 818.52	1	818.52	308.76	.00	.89
Group 805.48	1	805.48	303.84	.00	.89
Error 98.08	37	2.65			
Total 46200	40				

As it can be seen, the corrected model (F = .00, F = 354.48) is statistically significant. The results (F = 303.84, sig = .00, Eta = .89) show that there is a difference between two groups. It means that there is a significant difference between experimental and control group.

6. CONCLUSION

The countries where English language is treated as a foreign language are laden with many problems that prevent students from using the language outside classroom. Moreover, in most of the cases, EFL teachers fail to implement properly the best methods, approaches and classroom activities to teach students the skills of English language. In such cases, students in these countries need to go through some practices that make them practice English language in real-life situations. Debating can be used to learn English in both formal and informal settings.

Through practicing debate, students can improve their listening skills. By using listening aids like radio, tape recorder, CD player and PC, learners will listen to audio clips e.g. conversation, speech, debate, talk shows and reports. They will watch video clips of debate sessions, speeches of famous speakers, talk shows, round table discussions, reports, and news. Recorded video clips of debate sessions, news, reports

as well as talk shows on television channels like BBC and CNN can be very good resources for practicing listening in English. Learners will listen to CDs of different dictionaries to repair pronunciation of sounds and words. They will also watch selected English movies in the classroom which will be followed by group discussion. Teachers will give feedback on the discussion. In the feedback, teachers should focus on sounds, pronunciation, accent as well as use of words, technical words and jargons. In this case, teachers can use their notes on students' difficulty in pronouncing particular sounds and words.

It is such an activity that engages learners in practicing all skills of English language. If the debate practice modules are practiced appropriately, students will learn both English language and presentation skills which will make them confident users of English language in academic, social and professional settings. As a result of using debates in this study, the participants showed great improvement in their listening skill.

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EXPLORING THE ILI TEACHERS' ATTITUDES TOWARD CLASSROOM OBSERVATION

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ABSTRACT
THE OVERRIDING OBJECTIVE OF THE PRESENT STUDY WAS TO EXPLORE THE PERCEPTIONS OF MALE AND FEMALE TEACHERS AT IRAN LANGUAGE INSTITUTE REGARDING THEIR ATTITUDES TOWARD CLASSROOM OBSERVATION. THIS STUDY ALSO TRIED TO FIND OUT THE POSSIBLE DIFFERENCES AMONG THE TWO GROUPS OF MALE AND FEMALE TEACHERS REGARDING THEIR ATTITUDES TOWARD CLASSROOM OBSERVATION. THIS STUDY WAS A QUALITATIVE STUDY IN WHICH A QUESTIONNAIRE HAS BEEN EMPLOYED. THE QUESTIONNAIRE INCLUDED SEVEN DOMAINS. OVERALL, WHILE BOTH MALE AND FEMALE PARTICIPANTS HAD NEGATIVE ATTITUDES TOWARD CLASSROOM OBSERVATION, "STUDENT DEVELOPMENT AND FEEDBACK TIME," RECEIVED A RELATIVELY HIGH MEAN, SHOWING THAT THESE ASPECTS OF SUPERVISION HAVE BEEN AMONG THE FEW STANDARDS THAT WERE POPULAR AMONG THE PARTICIPANTS. THE RESULTS SHOWED THAT THERE IS LITTLE DIFFERENCE WAS OBSERVED AMONG THE MALE AND FEMALE TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS IN REGARD TO CLASSROOM OBSERVATION.

KEY TERMS: PERCEPTIONS, ATTITUDES, CLASSROOM OBSERVATION, QUALITATIVE STUDY.

Introduction

Teachers' observation is a fundamental part in teachers' career. One of the philosophical foundation of supervision seems to be based on the theory that all teachers need to be supported morally, technically and educationally. Teachers need to be aware of what they do in the classes and what they need to do when teaching in their classes. While young teachers may not be well informed about the new era of methods and characteristics of teaching and learning, supervision can play an important role as a training approach to support the teachers by routine observation, analysis of teachers' real performance in the classes.

One of the most noticeable points is that teachers are rarely appreciated for what they do in their classes and supervision is mostly a threatening or frightening process for teachers. The reason may lay on the nature of the observation which is mostly directive and authoritative. There are two routine

characters in teachers' observation: a nervous teacher trying to handle the class well and do his best to satisfy the observer and a serous observer sitting at the back or corner of the class having a list of things to be done and monitoring every single action of the frightened teacher and finally giving the teacher acceptance as acceptable one or not. The teachers who receive the point try to get them right the next time work on the weak point and eliminate them. All these process of observation is done to improve the teachers' way of teaching and unify the method being taught at an institute.

Supervision in Iran EFL context seems to be a one dimensional practice that needs improvements in both theoretical foundation and classroom practice. In some institutes and English Language Centers there is no observation system and the teachers (especially novice ones) are faced with many problems in classrooms while they have passed TTC. In some other institutes where supervision is part of the policy of the institute, it is restricted to a paperwork job rather than a tool for teaching and hence learning improvement. Some other institutes have based their supervision practice on traditional theories of supervision in which the teacher has no role and his creativity and independence are mostly ignored. Based on the theoretical framework put forward by Rosenberg and Hovland (1960), teachers 'attitudes towards observation is not considered as a unitary concept, but rather as a complex of three classrooms of components (cognitive, affective, conative).

Theoretical Framework

To make supervision system successful, it is important to know the teachers perception of supervision. There was a time when supervision has been seen as a process of inspection and evaluation. Kapfunde (1990) stated that teachers usually associate instructional supervision with appraisal, rating, and controlling them. Looking at supervision as a system to provide support and guidance to teachers for the instructional process is a new idea that rese3archers have insisted on recently. Tyagi (2010) talked about inspection as a top-down approach which mostly focusing on the assessment and evaluation of school improvement based on the standards that have been set, while supervision mostly included providing guidance, support and continuous assessment to teachers for their professional improvement and increasing the quality of their job performance. Alemayehu (2008) believes that instructional supervisors mainly concerns about: examining and reporting programs, organizing and managing of teaching-learning activities; developing and presenting different methods that can be used to improve instructional programs; guiding and monitoring schools and teachers; preparing and organizing professional development programs such as trainings, workshops and seminars; monitoring and supporting mentoring programs for teachers who have just entered the profession; providing direct assistance and performing instructional and administrative activities in schools with teachers and school management through organizing and carrying out clinical, collegial, peer coaching and cognitive coaching methods of supervision.

Fraser (1980) stated that supervision and teacher satisfaction are in close relation where improvement in the teaching learning process relies on the teachers' attitudes towards supervision. Fraser also (1980) mentioned that teachers need to perceive supervision as a process of promoting professional growth; otherwise the process of supervision will not be effective and leads to the results it wants to achieve. Acheson and Gall (1997) noted that if supervision concentrates on teacher appraisal and efficiency, teachers will not accept supervision as a helpful method for teaching and professional growth. Tshabalala (2013) stated that the superiority and demanding nature of certain supervisory approaches can cause unwillingness of teachers towards supervision. Acheson and Gall (1997) concluded that teachers are often dissatisfied resistant with the supervision styles and approaches used rather than the supervision itself. The way and the models of supervision which is selected is really important that can develop trust, autonomy and professional learning culture to achieve improvement in teachers' job performance and professional growth (Hargreaves and Fullan, 2000).

The main outcome of supervision is to help teachers get better in their jobs. This includes improving on teachers' previous knowledge, their teaching skills and their ability of making informed professional decisions (Sergiovanni and Starratt, 2006). Zepeda (2007) stated that the connection between supervision and professional growth and teacher evaluation should be clearly understood. Zepeda (2007) also noted that there is a link between the various models of supervision and professional development.

If supervision aims at collegiality and professional development, it can be used as an effective tool for teacher's professional growth and improving their job performance. Nolan and Hoover (2008) stated that instructional supervision that focuses on teacher growth can lead to improvement in teaching performance and greater student learning. Continuous improvement in methods and skills seems in high value for every professional, and so the professional development of teachers has become highly important (Alemayehu, 2008, Alfonso & Firth, 1990; Zepeda, 2007 ;). From the supervisor's view point, professional development should focus on "providing teachers with the opportunity and resources they need to reflect on their practice and to share their practice with others" (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2006).

Supervision is in different models. It seems illogical for the supervisory practices to only depend on one model in order to improve teacher's job performance, cannot depend on only one model. The reason may lay on the fact that each teacher is different individual and approaches to supervision need to examine the most effective features of different models, this way it can assist teachers' growth and development in their job performance.

There is an approach to supervision named Differentiated supervision (Glathorne, 2000) in which teachers are free to choose the kinds of supervisory methods they would like. The characteristics of this model is that all teachers are involve themselves in evaluation process, staff development and informal observations to improve instruction, without considering their experience and competence. This model involves clinical supervision, cooperative development and self-directed development in working towards teacher's growth (Glathorne, 2000).

Developmental supervision Glickman et al. (1998) is another model that involves three approaches to supervision, which are directive, collaborative and non-directive. Developmental supervision mainly work on the professional development of the teachers to enhance their job performance (Tyagi, 2010)

The planning and administration of effective staff development programs should result in staff development that promotes the school improvement, a school climate and culture supportive of change, and individual and institutional professional learning (Wood and Thompson, 1993). Instructional supervision of teachers should be an important factor of an effective, inclusive teacher professional development program in order to improve teachers' job performance.

Review of literature

Defining supervision is quite a daunting task as some definitions seem to be incompatible with one another. Anderson (1982), for example, finds the terminology of supervision discomforting because there are "many perplexing and challenging problems" (p. 181) in the field. Goldsberry (1988) views supervision as an organizational obligation associated with the assessment and refinement of current practices. Allan (1990) similarly defines the term as a set of duties with an aim to help teachers to develop themselves for professional fulfilments.

Daresh (2001) uses the term in a broader educational context, referring to its dynamic process facilitating instructional improvement in the overall quality of education. Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary (1998) defines the term as "the action, process, or occupation of supervising; especially, a critical watching and directing as of activities or a course of action" (p.1184). However, according to Sullivan and Glanz (2000) school supervision basically refers to a procedure in which an authority would examine a teacher's classroom 'looking for errors' for the purpose of maintaining the prescribed standards of instruction in the context of the supervisor's experience. According to Duke (1987), supervision ensures maintenance and improvement of standards.

In spite of focus on professional development, to some teachers "even the mere mention of the term supervision is enough to evoke unpleasant feelings mixed with indignation at the disturbing condition" (Kayaoglu, 2007, p.15). Interestingly enough, complaints of not having been appreciated by the teachers for the supervisor's positive contribution to the quality of instruction and stresses the feeling among teachers that "most teachers react defensively and hostilely towards supervision even though it is a standard part to most programs" (Stoller, 1996, p. 2). However, there is a bitter irony in Stoller's following remarks "whether we supervise teachers for the purposes of retention, review, dismissal, promotion, reward, or reprimand, our efforts need not be viewed as negative or unproductive"(p. 2). Then, teachers are perfectly justified in their view to see supervision as a threat when interacting with their supervisors in a notably hierarchical context.

The connotations of the term supervision in the related literature "cold war" (Blumberg, 1980, p. 2); "snoopervision"(Schön, 1983, p. 14); "ghost walk" (Black, 1993, p. 38); "assessment and evaluation" (Kayaoğlu, 2007, p. 16) are so negative that even a new word is needed to denote the essential functions of supervision. This perhaps describes the prevailing effect of the type of traditional supervision characterized by the perfunctory visits of the supervisor in an authoritarian and directive rather than democratic, cooperative, and collaborative manner. These adversarial attitudes may possibly be related to the inherited ideas and terms incorporated from the historical development of supervision which has its roots in industry, business and production. The biggest problem perhaps stems from conceptualizing the role of the supervisor as there has been a constant conflict between the helping and evaluator aspects of supervision.

It is important to note that teacher supervision has gone through a drastic change and supervisory practice also has evolved since the mid-twentieth century. The shift has been from maintaining the existing standards of instruction when it first appeared to directing efforts towards teachers' improvement of instruction and providing professional growth. The strong emphasis on teacher growth is reflected in the sheer variety of supervision models and their respective development over time.

Models of supervision appear to be very much associated with supervisors' roles in professional contexts in that "supervisors' responsibilities have moved from being largely judgmental and evaluative to being more developmental in focus" (Bailey, 2006, p. 6). For example, we have Abrell's (1974) humanistic supervision which is characterized by the supervisor's love, respect and concern for teachers. The humanistic concept of supervision includes teachers in the process of supervision as fellow workers rather than subjects with an emphasis on teachers' pride, dignity, professional goals, and individual freedom. The supervisor is expected to function primarily as a resource person having democratic attitude and empathetic relationship when interacting with teachers, regardless of their education backgrounds.

On the other hand, Goldsberry (1988) comes up with three models of educational supervision outlined as (a) nominal (b) correcting and (c) reflective model. The primary goal of nominal supervision is to maintain status quo. This type of supervision is preferred when time is limited and when the supervisor is attempting to comply with standard legal requirements. The prescriptive model is geared toward diagnosing the problem and subsequently treating it. For this reason the supervisor is expected to possess diagnostic skills and considerably higher knowledge than the teacher being supervised, in order to maximize benefits of expertise. The final model of reflective supervision leads teachers to think about their teaching as much as their actual teaching behavior. The reflective model "is based upon using and developing the expertise of the teacher to examine ideal purposes and procedures for teaching, and to refine present performance accordingly (Goldsberry, 1988, p.7). Clark's (1990) model is based on six different roles a supervisor may have. Specifically the roles are judgmental, non-judgmental, clerical, cooperative, responsive and clinical supervision.

The current literature also suggests other supervisor-based categories of supervision such as mentor, consultant, counsellor, coach, cooperating teacher, inspector (Acheson & Gall, 1997), supervision as leadership. Freeman (1982) suggests three approaches to teacher supervision depending on the role of the supervisor: 1) the supervisor as an authority 2) the supervisor as a provider of alternative perspectives 3) the supervisor as non-directive figure. Gebhard (1984) appears to have expanded on Freeman's model and comes up with five models of supervision: 1) directive, 2) alternative, 3) collaborative, 4) non-directive, and 5) creative.

In response to the adversarial attitudes towards supervision, the clinical supervision has gained recognition in many educational settings as it gives utmost importance to the improvement of instruction in the manner of a democratic and collaborative environment.

Clinical supervision is characterized by being more interactive, democratic, teacher-centered, more concrete, objective and more focused. Acheson and Gall (1992) define clinical supervision as "the professional development of teachers, with an emphasis on improving teachers' classroom performance" (p. 1). Bowers and Flinders (1990) see the rise of this model as "a desire to move away from past images that portrayed the supervisor as an 'inspector, whose job was to maintain unilateral control over the transmission of a particular socio-political belief system" (p. 200). The new model is a partnership in

inquiry jointly shared by the teacher and supervisor in a collaborative and-trust-developing atmosphere that involves the cultivation of positive attitude held by the teacher toward the process (Acheson & Gall, 1992; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1993; Stoller, 2006; Tracy &Mac Naughton, 1989).

According to Acheson and Gall (1997), the principal goal of clinical supervision is the development of the pre-service or in-service teacher, (a) providing teachers with objective feedback on the current state of instruction, (b) diagnosing and solving instructional problems(c), helping the teacher develop positive attitudes about continuous professional development.

The clinical supervision model involves three essential elements. The planning, the first phase of supervision, refers to a meeting between supervisor and supervisee during which they clarify concerns, need, and aspirations and make decisions as colleagues about the focus of the forthcoming classroom visit and the method of data to be collected in class for later analysis (Sullivan &Glanz, 2000; Stoller, 1996). The second stage involves a classroom visit during which the supervisor observes the teacher in terms of the implementation of the methods and objectives defined in the planning conference. According to Stoller (1996), general areas of concern at this stage are classroom management, classroom interaction, affective factors, use of resources, teaching techniques and methodology. Among commonly employed data collection techniques are Selective Verbatim (word for word written record of what is uttered), Seating Chart Observation Records (record of patterns of teacher-student interaction, verbal flow, student and/or teacher movement, and at- task behaviors using a seat chart, and Wide-Lens Techniques (Stoller, 1996).

The final step of clinical supervision is the feedback conference during which both the teacher and supervisor review the observational collected data with a view to diagnosing potential problems and subsequently offering solutions. Teachers are allowed to come to their own conclusions about the data and come up with some alternatives. Therefore, the feedback conference may turn into a planning conference with teacher and supervisor working cooperatively to collect further observational data.

Because of the paramount role feedback plays in supervising teachers (Oprandy, 1999; Roberts, 1998), much research about language teacher supervision has focused on the discourse of post-observation conference (Bailey, 2006; Hooton, 2008; Wajnryb, 1994; 1995; 1998; Wallace & Woolger, 1991). Wallace and Woolger (1991) suggest that such discourse can literally become a monologue in which "the supervisor 'sorts out' the trainee's problems, the latter dutifully taking notes" (p. 321). As Bailey (2006) states, the post-observation conference is often an awkward event for supervisors because they must sometimes deliver negative feedback to teachers. Such events are examples of unequal power discourse and can be face-threatening for both the supervisor and supervisee (Bailey, 2006).

Another line of research on the supervisory discourse focuses on how supervisors mitigate their criticisms during post-observation conferences. For example, Wajnryb (1994; 1995; 1998) found that supervisors used different syntactic (e.g., tense shift) and semantic. For example, Hogan (1973) says that some teachers now consider supervision as a necessary part of the administration of. They see the merit of the whole program if the supervisors are democratic and fair.

Gordon (1990) shows that although American teachers conveyed generally positive perceptions of the three supervisory approach of directive, non-directive, and collaborative, their response to non-directive supervision was less positive compared with the directive and collaborative approaches. He explains this by proposing the probability that these teacher might not be used to being given decision making responsibilities.

An examination of the literature on language teacher supervision reveals that there is a paucity of studies looking at the supervisory process and the impact of teachers' attitude on it. In other words, what goes on during supervision and what happens afterwards is rarely reported and analyzed. The current study intends to address this research gap. As supervision is a fundamental part of every teacher's career, research on the supervisory process can further our understanding of how teachers develop.

Methodology

The number of questions in questionnaire equaled thirty. The items of the questionnaire were prepared by the researcher and it was made sure about the reliability by calculating Cronbach formula. At first, it was important to calculate the questionnaire reliability. The reliability of 30 items of the questionnaire was estimated with two pilot groups, each comprising 30 participants. Moreover, the Coefficient

reliability was interpreted according to the reliability standards suggested by Barker, Pistrang, and Elliott (1994).

The estimated value of Cronbach alpha for the idiom test equaled .894, which was acceptable based on the reliability standards suggested by Barker, Pistrang, and Elliott (1994). The results are presented in Table 3.1.

Table 1
Reliability Statistics for the questionnaire

	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items	N of sample
questionnaire	.894	30	30

The Design of the Study

The most important instrument of this study as hinted above were one questionnaire which contained items about the attitudes of the teachers toward observation and the other material is the observation check list prepared in ILI center. The teachers were asked to complete the questionnaire in break time. Respondents had enough time to complete the task and the whole questionnaire was collected at the end. Respondents were informed that the information they gave would be kept confidential and used only for research purposes. Due to the fact that attitude as the name suggests, goes under a very broad category in general, the items were categorized under seven domains.

Participants

To know about how Iranian ILI EFL teachers think about the conception of observation, one questionnaire was administered to two equivalent samples of EFL teachers in Rasht ILI Centers. Some of the ILI teachers held a B.A or an M.A degree in English Literature or Translation or teaching from different universities while the others held other degrees in other different fields. They had taken part in Iran's nation-wide and standard ILI Entrance Examination and were passing their educational courses at the University. The teachers were from different cities in Gilan mostly from Rasht. Their mother tongue was mostly Farsi but some had other dialects of their dialect region. They were in different age from 22 to 40 male and female. In this study mother tongue and type of university weren't considered as influential variables. From the total number of 100 teachers, 60 ones submitted their complete questionnaire with fully filled items.

Materials

The whole questionnaire has two parts. It was rated by three professors of English teaching and by the way the reliability of the questionnaire has been determined based on Cronbach's alpha, which was found to be 0.894. Regarding validity, it enjoys all areas of face, and construction validity. The whole items were 30 and were written in English and no translation of them was used. The questionnaire was prepared and arranged by the researcher in Likert-scale format and was rated by three professors teaching in English Teaching and testing area and the reliability of 0.894 resulted after calculating it.

There was no missed or distorted questionnaire. It should be mentioned that some minor changes were made in the wordings of the questionnaire by using synonyms to make it more comprehensible for the Iranian teachers.

The other material of this study is the official observation check list prepared and confirmed in ILI that observers use during class observation based on which the questionnaire was devised. First part is the first page that is specified for participants' personal information. Second part was specified for the items of the questionnaire. The questionnaire consisted of seven rubrics including Teacher Development, Students' Development, Negative Impact of Observation, Teachers' Time Management, Observation Readiness and Frequencies, Observation Feedback time, and Teachers' Opinions about dramatizing conversation and going beyond syllabus.

Methods of Analyzing Data

After collecting and arranging the data, descriptive statistics assessing, mean, and standard deviation, and depicting histogram for general distribution of the variables across the sample were used. The

researcher entered the participants' responses into SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) software (version 23) for data analysis. As the data of this study were gathered by psychological and according to Best (2006, p.290),"psychological tests and inventories are interval scales"), for descriptive statistics, and Mann-Whitney tests were run.

The main purpose of the first research question was to scrutinize the teachers' perceptions of the class observation at the ILI. The questions proposed were:

Rq1-What are the ILI teachers' attitudes toward teacher supervision?

Rq2-Are there any statistically significant differences among male and female teachers in terms of their attitudes toward teacher supervision?

Table 2
Male Statistics

		Teachers' development	**Teacher/Students' development**	**Negative impact**	**Time management**	**OBS. Readiness and frequency**	**Feedback time**	**Teachers' opinions**
N	Valid	30	30	30	30	30	30	30
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		17.57	21.8667	29.37	7.30	11.80	27.53	8.23
Median		19.00	24.0000	29.00	7.00	11.00	29.00	8.00
Std. Deviation		3.014	4.14174	6.526	1.601	2.797	5.871	1.813
Variance		9.082	17.154	42.585	2.562	7.821	34.464	3.289
Minimum		9	11.00	17	4	7	14	4
Maximum		20	25.00	40	10	15	35	10

a. gender = male

With respect to the first section of the questionnaire that scrutinized the teachers' perceptions of their development through classroom observation, the total mean rank was (17.57) with standard deviation of (3.014). The second section which examined their attitudes on students' development as well as the teachers' development, the total mean rank was calculated as (21.8667 with a standard deviation of (4.14174). The third domain investigated the negative impact of the classroom observation which had a total mean of (29.37) and with a standard deviation of (6.526). This clearly suggests that classroom observation should be carried out in such a way as to save the face of the individuals. Time management was the next domain which had a total mean rank of (7.30) and its standard deviation was computed as (1.601). Observation readiness and frequency gained the total mean of (11.80 and the standard deviation equaled (2.797). The feedback time received a total mean of (27.53) with a standard deviation of (5.871). The last domain examined teachers' opinions on syllabus exceeding and dramatizing conversation in front of the observer which had a total mean of (5.871) and the standard deviation was (1.813).

Concerning the degree of dissimilarity among the responses provided by the teachers, the sixth domain had the highest standard deviation (SD= 5.871). Yet, the highest uniformity among the responses was observed for time management (SD= 1.601).

A glance at the above table reveals that from among the seven domain, the highest mean belongs to negative impact of observation among male teachers. While the students and teachers' development received high mean ranks respectively. This could mean that perhaps the way it is done should be revisited, however, they believe such observation could lead to improvements in the teachers and students performance. The same table was demonstrated for female teachers of the study.

Table3
Female Statistics

		Teachers' development	Teachers/Students' development	Negative impact	Time management	OBS. Readiness and frequency	Feedback time	Teachers' opinions
N	Valid	30	30	30	30	30	30	30
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		17.50	21.8000	29.50	7.33	11.50	27.50	8.17
Median		17.00	24.0000	29.00	7.00	11.00	28.00	8.00
Std. Deviation		2.813	3.91637	6.877	1.516	3.071	5.244	1.802
Variance		7.914	15.338	47.293	2.299	9.431	27.500	3.247
Minimum		9	11.00	19	4	6	17	4
Maximum		20	25.00	40	10	15	35	10

a. gender = female

In case of female teachers, the total mean rank of the first domain which examined the development of teachers equaled (17.50) and the standard deviation was (2.813). The second domain investigated the students' development and had a total mean of 21.8000 among female respondents with standard deviation of (3.91637). The next domain which investigated the negative impact of observation had a total rank of (29.50 and the standard deviation of (6.877) which had the highest degree of dissimilarity of responses among all domains.

Regarding time management domain while being observed the mean equaled (7.33) and the standard deviation was (1.516). This domain received the least mean rank and it was the most uniformed domain in terms of the teachers' responses. In case for observation readiness and frequency the total mean rank was (11.50) while the standard deviation equaled (3.071). Feedback time received a total mean of (27.50) and a standard deviation of (28.00). Considering the last domain the total mean rank was computed as 8.17 and the standard deviation of (1.802).

On the whole, domains of negative impact and feedback time (29.50, 27.50) had the highest mean rank among female participants which in comparison to the male respondents' answers were almost similar in case of negative impact, since in both groups the negative impact received the highest mean. Generally, both males and females had negative attitudes toward the observation. While students' development, like males, received a relatively high mean.

Inferential Analysis of the Data

In this study it was aimed to find out the teachers attitudes toward classroom observation. While gender was a determining factor, the following hypothesis was proposed:

H0: There is no difference between male and female ILI teachers in terms of their attitudes towards class observation.

Table 4
mean Ranks of male and female participants

	gen	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
independent	M	30	31.02	930.50
	F	30	29.98	899.50
	Total	60		

To examine the hypothesis of the study, first, the ranks table was depicted which provides information regarding the output of the actual Mann-Whitney U test. It shows mean rank and sum of ranks for the two groups tested in terms of their gender.

Table 5
Mann-Whitney U test for relation between gender and attitude

	independent
Mann-Whitney U	434.500
Wilcoxon W	899.500
Z	-.229
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.819

a. Grouping Variable: gen

This table shows us the actual significance value of the test. Specifically, the Test Statistics table provides the test statistic, *U* statistic, as well as the asymptotic significance (2-tailed) *p*-value.

Regarding the null hypothesis of the study, as the first table above shows, the gender was regarded as an independent variable which was takes as 1and 2 to represent different genders of male and female. The ranks of the scores were compared with each other, and in the second table a Mann-Whitney U test was conducted. The table shows the significance level as .819 which is larger than .05 and proves the null hypothesis that there is no significant difference between males and females in terms of their attitude and toward classroom supervision.

General Discussion

The present study addressed two major questions as to the attitudes the ILI EFL teachers toward classroom observation and whether there would be any significance difference among male and female teachers regarding their attitudes. Descriptive statistics were conducted and showed that the highest mean belonged to negative impact of observation among male teachers. While the students and teachers' development received high mean ranks respectively.

Regarding the female respondents, domains of negative impact and feedback time (29.50, 27.50) had the highest mean rank among female participants which in comparison to the male respondents' answers were almost similar in case of negative impact. Generally, while both males and female participants had negative attitudes toward classroom observation, student development, feedback time, time management, and observation readiness and frequency received a relatively high mean, showing that these aspects of supervision have been among the few standards that were popular among the participants. According to the data gathered, the first research question was answered and teachers had negative attitudes toward supervision in the classroom with the highest mean of the negative impact domain.

Concerning the second research question, a Mann Whitney test was run and the significance level as .819 which is larger than .05 and proves the null hypothesis that there is no significant difference between males and females in terms of their attitude and motivation toward learning English.

Much previous research about language teacher supervision has focused on the discourse of post-observation conference (Bailey, 2006; Hooton, 2008; Wajnryb, 1994; 1995; 1998; Wallace &Woolger, 1991). The result of this study showed that most teachers prefer an immediate direct feedback in the conversation form with the observer. Wallace and Woolger (1991) suggest that such discourse can literally become a monologue and Bailey (2006) states, the post-observation conference is often an awkward event for supervisors because they must sometimes deliver negative feedback to teachers.

Unfortunately, research is inadequate in looking at the supervisory process and the impact of teachers' attitude on it. In other words, what goes on during supervision and what happens afterwards is rarely reported and analyzed. Little research has been conducted on devised questionnaires to inquire teachers about their perceptions on different aspects of the supervisory process (e.g., Chamberlin, 2000; Hismanoglu & Hismanoglu, 2010).

Generally speaking, classroom observation in the ILI needs to be revisited since both male and female teachers of this study reported the negative impact of it in their responses. This observation system may have some shortcomings and further research is needed to analyze in depth what the weak points are. Teachers' ideas and opinions must be exercised to ensure that this process can promise improvement of both teachers and their learners.

Conclusion

In general, EFL teachers at ILI language center of Rasht think classroom observation has a negative impact. However, the domains regarding teachers and students development as well as feedback time were regarded to be positive. The attitudes of male and female teachers represent a red light for the administrators of the ILI as well as the supervisors. A conclusion than can be drawn from the available evidence is that the supervisory in the ILI needs to take into account the opinions of its teachers since they are the people for whom the supervision is conducted. Their opinions must be considered to have a more successful observation which not only satisfies the needs of the system but also takes the most important body of the system-teachers- into account.

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THE EFFECT OF PRONUNCIATION TRAINING SOFTWARE ON THE IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS' PRONUNCIATION SKILLS

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ABSTRACT

THE PRESENT STUDY ATTEMPTS TO INVESTIGATE THE EFFECT OF PRONUNCIATION TRAINING SOFTWARE ON THE IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS' PRONUNCIATION SKILLS. TO THIS END, 30 FEMALE LEARNERS OUT OF 80 WERE SELECTED BASED ON QPT. THE PARTICIPANTS WERE RANDOMLY ASSIGNED TO EXPERIMENTAL (N = 15) AND CONTROL (N = 15) GROUPS. A PRE-TEST WAS ADMINISTERED TO ALL PARTICIPANTS, THEN THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP RECEIVED AN 8-WEEK PRONUNCIATION TRAINING PROGRAM VIA PRONUNCIATION TRAINING SOFTWARE (ROSETTA STONE SOFTWARE) 3 SESSIONS A WEEK ABOUT 90 MINUTES, AND THE OTHER 15 LEARNERS AS CONTROL GROUP RECEIVED PLACEBO. THE DATA WERE ANALYZED USING SPSS SOFTWARE, AND THE RESULTS OBTAINED THROUGH DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS, PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST, INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T-TEST, ETA SQUARED AND LEVENE'S TEST REPRESENTED A SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE BETWEEN TWO GROUPS WHICH HIGHLIGHTED THE SIGNIFICANT EFFECT OF PRONUNCIATION TRAINING SOFTWARE ON EXPERIMENTAL GROUP'S PRONUNCIATION SKILLS COMPARED TO A NO-TREATMENT CONTROL GROUP. IN ADDITION, PRONUNCIATION INSTRUCTION THROUGH PRONUNCIATION TRAINING SOFTWARE WAS FOUND A NECESSITY IN WHICH IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS NEED MORE COACHING IN EARLY ENGLISH INSTRUCTION.

KEY WORDS: COMPUTER ASSISTED LANGUAGE LEARNING, PRONUNCIATION TRAINING SOFTWARE, EFL LEARNERS, PRONUNCIATION SKILLS

1. Introduction

It is important to look at how technology is gradually taking over school and university classrooms at all levels and the impact that technology has on L2 learners in any country like Iran. In body literature, several studies have been done in order to establish the advantages of the use of computers for reading, listening, writing, speaking and lately pronunciation skills for students that are learning a second language (Morales, 2014).

School districts generally assume that second language teachers and students already know how to use the computer technology and the programs that are needed to be efficient teachers (web browser, Microsoft Office, etc.); but the reality is that districts usually do not provide the necessary training and suitable programs to complement the curriculum of each level for optimal implementation of the educational technology. Frequently, students and teachers have positive thoughts about the use of technology in classrooms and how it presents a more open format, flexibility and creativity on language learning. Undoubtedly, its accessibility in and out of the classroom is viewed as beneficial by teachers and students because the learning process keeps taking place without walls and time limitations (Sato, 2013).

In this regard, desk computers, laptops, smart phones and tablets are such these technologies that are evolving rapidly into the classrooms and help students to improve their language skills like pronunciation. Encouraged "by rapid developments in information and communication technologies, diverse tools are now being used in a rich variety of ways to support teaching and learning" (Yun, Chee-Kit, & Wenli, 2012, p: 35), especially second language learning. Therefore, the Computer assistance pronunciation technologies (CAPT) like Rosetta Stone Software could help L2 learners to improve their pronunciation. So this study attempts to establish the effectiveness of Rosetta stone software on Students' Pronunciation skills.

Pronunciation is a neglected area in English language teaching which is not considered as a language skill. Most of Iranian students and learners have pronunciation problems and difficulties which will be influenced on their spelling, listening, speaking, reading and writing abilities. Most often, this problem is due to similarities and differences between Persian and English sounds which makes a confusion in Iranian learners' minds as EFL learners. However, the main problem is that there is no a continuous syllabus (curriculum) design or method of training to instruct the similarities and differences between Persian and English; therefore, pronunciation problems will be unsolved for Iranian learners in their second language learning which maximizes their anxiety and stress and minimizes their motivation and interest. This problem acts as a hindrance for learners' language developmental stages, because there is a close relationship between pronunciation skills and other areas of language learning.

The purpose of using Computer-Assisted Pronunciation (CAP) is to improve English language pronunciation. There are two purposes in using computers to teach English pronunciation: (a) recognizing the student's mistakes in English pronunciation and (b) helping them in correcting these mistakes (Machovikov et al, 2002; Najmi & Bernstein, 1996). There are a lot of benefits in computer-assisted pronunciation instruction which cannot be found in traditional teaching approaches.

Moreover, considering the emphasis and importance placed on English pronunciation ability, the researcher of the present study felt the urge and need to investigate pronunciation training via software like Rosetta Stone software to promote the pronunciation skill of ELF Learners in order to find an answer for the following question: Does the pronunciation training Rosetta Stone software have a significant impact on Iranian EFL learners' pronunciation skills?

2. Literature Review

One of the important concerns about teaching pronunciation in today's world is how modern technological tools can be used in this field. Computer-assisted pronunciation teaching or CAPT is one of these ways that teachers and researchers have been increasingly using it for several decades (Elimat, AbuSeileek, 2014). CAPT programs are designed to provide learners with private, individualized, and instant feedback on learning process (Neri, Cucchiarini, Strik, & Boves, 2002). A number of researchers (Butler & Wiburg, 2003; Neri, Cucchiarini, Strik, & Boves 2002) have investigated the advantages of CAPT programs for enhancing English learners' pronunciation. CAPT programs help students in selecting what function to employ and how often to utilize it. CAPT also help programs the learners study independently. However, language teachers also benefit from CAPT programs in their pronunciation classes since they can give students drilling practice, which language teacher's view as monotonous and time-consuming. Finally, CAPT programs present an interactive learning context in a range of methods: whole class, small-group (Elimat, AbuSeileek, 2014). Overall, the researcher of this study utilized the research findings of present and previous Articles, Theses conducted in Iran or other countries; besides, the contents of the books which were written by well-known authors in the fields of

problems of acquiring pronunciation skills, importance of technology to second language learning, and kinds of technology available to teach/learn a second language specifically related to pronunciation training software.

The structural differences between languages are a common problem for second language learners especially in learning pronunciation (Yangklang, 2006). Indeed, for most Iranian students, identifying the differences between English and Persian sound structures is one of the problems in achieving acceptable English pronunciation. Contrastive analysis hypothesis is often used by language teachers for investigating the difference between the two languages which has been developed intensively by well-known scholar Lado (1957). This hypothesis holds this belief that native language has a strong influence on second language learning (Yangklang, 2006). In this regard, problems often people face when learning a second language could be predicted by comparing two languages systems. According to this hypothesis, all the difficulties of learning a new language stems in transferring all structures of first language to second language. Therefore, it can be noted that the interference of first language is a factor. Liu (2008) claimed that people often tend to transfer all of their native language system in the process of learning a foreign language. He argued that people often tend to transfer the phonemes' variants, transitions, stress and rhythm patterns, intonation patterns and also interaction of their with native language those of foreign language. So, it can be concluded that foreign language learners usually speak a foreign language with the characteristics of their own first language (Yangklang, 2006).

In addition, technology-assisted teaching and learning methods have received great attention during the last 20 to 30 years. It offers a wide variety of dynamic tools in the education system, especially in the context of second language learning (Reinders & Thomas, 2012). Along with today's great advances in technology, many teachers and students now use computers and the Internet for teaching and learning purposes to second language learners (Han, 2008). An effective use of any sort of technology has recently been designed for new language pedagogy practices in second language teaching and learning processes (Hoopingarner, 2009). Computers offer students new opportunities to have firsthand experience about the culture of a second language; they provide a wide range of accessible material to students such as videos, podcasts and blogs in the target language, and students can use them to interact with native speakers (Dickinson, Brew, & Meurers, 2012).

2.1. The Role of Technology in the Second Language Learning

Technology-assisted teaching/learning methods can improve students' motivation. They provide more opportunities for student's individual access of technology whenever they want. This way they would be able to express their ideas using the new second language (Díaz, Jansson & Martínez, 2011). Indeed, teachers must teach students appropriate learning strategies about technology usage so that they could use the technology independently together with face-to-face learning (Salinas, Cabrera, & Ríos, 2012). Technology has made learning settings more learner-centered where the context of language and cultural learning and teaching methods has become more customized. Students indeed not only learn a second language, but also get familiar with technological literacy as well (Poureau, & Wright, 2013). Technology could be a powerful tool with positive effects on the second language learning skills if it is used properly (Gill, 2011). From one side, as the technology is becoming increasingly available and growing, teachers have to choose hardware and software that meet their needs. Their choices depend on several issues like personal preferences and abilities to implement a technology with a second language. Pedagogical purposes are important elements that teachers should take it into account when selecting new hardware and software according to their learning goals. Also, institutional judgment based mainly on the school's budget, is another important factor in the selection of a new technology for teaching and learning purposes (Stockwell, 2007). The use of mobile devices has dramatically changed teaching a second language because of its availability in out-classroom settings (Abdollapour & Maleki, 2012).

And the other side, broad uses of CALL technology in the second language teaching has led to emergence of some new technologies that can be used in more than one language skill (Stockwell, 2007). Lin (2010) in his research study found a positive impact on learning verbs, nouns, and adjectives in second language among students. Sites such as Facebook and Wikipedia provide a lot of new material for second language learners with realistic situations (Istifci, Lomidazde, & Demiray, 2011). CALL based

language teaching and learning applications like interactive activities and multimedia applications have many benefits for the learner (Genc, 2012). The unique multifunctional and multiuse aspects of computer technology have turned CALL to a powerful tool appropriate for several levels of intricacy in four areas of second language learning, i.e., speaking, reading, listening and writing (Levy, 2009).

2.2. The Benefits of Computer -Assisted Instruction

Computers have an essential role in EFL teaching and learning. Kitao (1995), for example, states that CAI is an interesting material in second language teaching. He further pointed out that CAI (computer assistance instruction) can be helpful for teachers in prompting each individual student to meet his/her own goals as it presents better materials compared to paper-based texts. He has listed the benefits of using CAI as follows: first, students can assess their learning progress as well as their problems. Therefore, teachers can use these assessments to better adjust the lessons according to students' abilities; second, there would be more opportunity for individualized instruction according to each student's ability; third, learning with the help of a computer is naturally more interesting for students; and forth, a computer can give a chance to students to process more materials than with a textbook in the same amount of time (Yangklang, 2006). Crew (2003) and Uemura (2003) revealed that there are positive attitudes toward Computer-Assisted Instruction. Improved performance of students is a result of long hours of individualized tutoring with timely directed feedback. Computers have unlimited patience and no perceived judgments of learners' performance which lead to increased self-confidence for them. Computer-Assisted Instruction can create entertaining atmosphere in classes for students so that they will not get bored easily.

To sum up foregoing, CAI can be considered as a useful method for language learning and teaching and they are beneficial for making higher motivation and positive attitude which both are very important for effective learning. Embellishments such as animations, graphics, sounds, colors, and other written lessons in a game format can make CAI lesson more interesting. Students will be able to enhance their language skills whenever they want by themselves. However, CAI has some drawbacks. First, the computers are expensive devices for teaching language in schools. Second, CAI instruction method is not suitable for those who do not like to use a computer for learning. So, CAI method was selected for this study to solve EFL learners' pronunciation problem.

3. Method

Pretest, treatment, posttest design based on quasi-experimental study was employed in this research. The method for this study is based on quantitative design methods and the type of research is applied research, which tries to improve a product or a process_ testing theoretical concepts in actual problem situations.

3.1. Participants

Participants of this study were consisted of 80 learners of Mehr-Aeen language institute in Lahijan, Guilan who enrolled in elementary level of language learning. The age range of them was between 11 and 12. All the participants were female monolingual and native speakers of Persian language. In order to homogenize the sample population and make sure they were at the same English proficiency level, an Oxford Quick Placement Test was administered to all learners in the groups, their papers were scored, the Mean and SD were calculated and eventually 30 learners with the score of 1 SD above and below the mean (1SD ± mean) were selected to participate in this research. It should be pointed out that 30 out of 80 were assigned according to the placement test. The researcher selected 30 learners who were "convenience sample" to attend the research. Half of participants were randomly assigned as the experimental group and received the treatment in pronunciation training software program (Rosetta stone software during a language learning course). The other 15 learners did not receive any instruction classified as the control group.

3.2. Materials

The materials used for conducting the research were instructional and testing materials. In the instructional materials, the researcher made an attempt to make the learners familiarize with the concept

of pronunciation by applying explicit instruction, which was unknown to almost any single learner in the classroom and thus attracted a lot of interests. Then the researcher continued by explaining how pronunciation is used in different fields, specifically in speaking and writing. In the testing material, three independent tests were administered. The first one was a QPT test for determining the participants' English proficiency level. In the first step, this test was used to measure the students' linguistic skills so that the researcher could reach a similar population in order to test research hypotheses. This test consists of 59 questions that measures students' linguistic skills in grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation. This test is based on standard test of Mc Milan institute (2012) and Cambridge University (2009). Respondents were asked to answer the questions in 60 minutes. The second one was pretest: this test consists of 50 words and sentences derived from Rosetta stone software that measures respondents' skills based on Likert scale (0 weak, 1 average, 2 good). Respondents were asked to answer the questions in 50 minutes. In the next step when the number and groups of students in two experimental and control groups is determined, verbal pronunciation test and accuracy of pronunciations were conducted both by instructor and by researcher. Then, the mean score of two tests were considered as valid score of Pre-test. The calculated reliability of pre-test using Cronbach's alpha was 0.86 which indicated an internal consistency.The third one was posttest: it was administered when students of experimental group finished specified educational course with the use of Rosetta stone software, verbal pronunciation test and accuracy of pronunciations were conducted once again both by instructor and by researcher after an 8 week period. Again, mean value of these two scores was considered as valid score of Post-test. Response time of post-test was 50 minutes. The calculated reliability of prost-test using Cronbach's alpha was 0 .92 which indicated an internal consistency.

3.3. Procedures for Data Collection and Analysis

The present study was conducted based on a pretest-treatment-posttest design. Thirty elementary level of EFL learners of a language institute who were selected as the subjects of this study based on convenience sampling. The range of their ages was between 11 and 12, and they were female monolingual and native speakers of Persian language. They were divided into two groups, one group was randomly assigned to serve as the experimental group (N = 15) and the other as the control group (N = 15). Subjects, i.e., one experimental group and one control group, were pretested and post-tested on their understanding of pronunciation concepts. There was no pretreatment for both groups before pretest, but before posttest, there was treatment just for experimental group after pretesting. The experimental group received a pronunciation training program which was based on Rosetta stone software. We are, the control group received the instruction of the pronunciation part of the course book (i.e., traditional method) without any pronunciation training software, Specially Rosetta stone. To determine the effectiveness of pronunciation training software (like Rosetta Stone Software) in improving the learners' pronunciation skills, the experimental group were asked to install the software described on their laptops or desktop PCs (Personal Computers) for 8 weeks (90 minutes, 3 times a week). After the training course (a total of 36 hours), there was post-test which was administered on both groups. Their papers were scored and analyzed. Data analysis was based on quasi-experimental design and a paired samples *t*-test and an independent samples *t*-test (two parametric statistics). Between pretest and posttest, the control group received no formal pronunciation instruction, but experimental group received formal training of pronunciation skills through Rosetta Stone Software.

4. Results

The results are presented in two parts: The first part deals with pretest (pre-training), and the second part presents posttest (post-training). As it was shown in Tables 1 and 2, it was revealed non-significant differences between the results obtained from experimental group and control group scores in pretest before PA training program. The subjects were nearly at similar level in terms of their phonemic awareness and reading ability.

Table 1:
Descriptive statistics of experimental and control groups for pretest scores

Descriptive Statistics

	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
pronunciation pre-test	Exp.	15	67.2667	2.28244	.58932
	Con.	15	66.5333	2.37146	.61231

Table 2:
Descriptive statistics of experimental and control groups for pretest scores

Descriptive Statistics

			Statistic	Std. Error
Pre-test data	Mean		67.7667	.32495
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	67.1021	
		Upper Bound	68.4313	
	Exp. Mean		67.2667	
	Con. Mean		66.5333	
	Variance		3.168	
	Std. Deviation		1.77984	
	Minimum		63.50	
	Maximum		70.50	
	Range		7.00	
	Interquartile Range		2.50	
	Skewed-ness		-.816	.427

The following figure illustrates that the two groups were homogenous in terms of their performance on pretest of pronunciation ability.

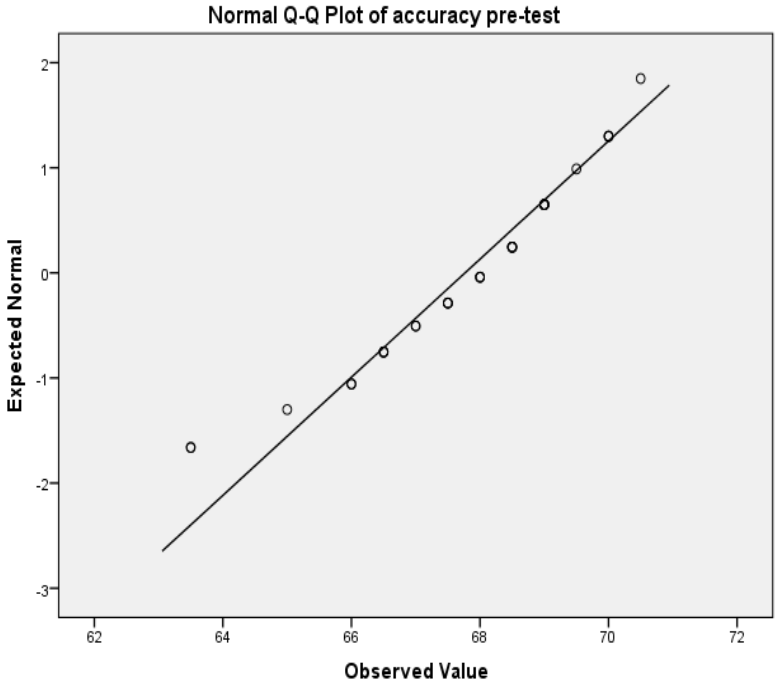

Figure 4.1. The three groups' performances on pronunciation (Pre-Test)

While the results of posttest (Pronunciation Test) after training program (Tables 3 and 4) indicated a significant variation between experimental group and control group. In general, a comparison between the results obtained from both at the beginning and end of the study revealed expressive differences.

Table 3:
Descriptive statistics of experimental and control groups for posttest scores

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: pronunciation post-test

Groups	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Con.	67.200	2.03365	15
Exp.	69.533	1.93157	15
Total	68.365	2.28161	30

After confirming that the two groups differed in some way, the detailed structure of the differences was scrutinized through doing multiple comparisons. Levene's test (Table 5) and Eta squared, i.e., test of between subjects effects was employed to determine other effects on the means of two groups. As it is shown in Table 4.3, the experimental group outweighed the other group in terms of their pronunciation achievement (mean $_{\text{experimental group}}$ = 69.5333; SD=1.93 performed better than the control group (mean = 67.00; SD=2.03). Finally, the control group's performance was lower than the other group. The following Table illustrates the performance of the two groups in posttest of pronunciation test.

Table 4:
The independent samples *t*-test results of the study

T-test for Equality of Means

						95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
Groups	**N**	**df.**	**SED**	**T**	**sig. (two-tailed)**	**Lower**	**Upper**
Exp. & Con.	30	28	0.67	3.77	.000	16.11	17.57

$p = 0.0001 < 0.05$

As it is demonstrated in the above table, the T value was found 3.77 with degree of freedom 28 (df= N_1+ N_2 - 2). The probability value (p = 0.0001) of T in the independent samples *t*-test which was computed through SPSS was less than alpha (0.05). Hence, in order to answer the research question, the p value of sig. (two-tailed) < alpha revealed that there was statistically a significant difference between two groups, and the treatment was effective. Table 4.5 shows the equality of variances between two groups in posttest.

In addition, Lower and upper limits of %95 confidence interval on the difference between means are computed for null/two-tailed hypothesis, α = 0.05 and df.28 (as it is shown in Table 4). The findings of independent samples *t*-test verified that there was statistically significant differences among the two groups' mean scores, and means plots showed the location of these differences. The participants of the experimental group who worked on pronunciation test outperformed with their counterparts namely the control group. Table 5 shows the equality of variances between two groups in posttest.

Table 5:
Levene's Test for equality of variances

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances
Pronunciation Post-test

F	df1	df2	Sig.
1.022	1	28	.321

As Levene's test shows (Table 4.6), $F_{posttest}$ = 1.022 and the assumption of homogeneity of variances (HOV) in posttest step is accepted (Sig. = 0.321 > 0.05). Hence, the researcher may have the confident in the validity of the *t*-test results. Likewise, according to Mackey and Gass (2005, p. 282),the most common measurement that can be used after a t-test is Eta² (expressed as η^2), which goes beyond the fact that there is a significant difference and gives an indication of how much of the variability is due to independent variable (instruction type). The formula for eta squared is as follows:

$$\text{Eta squared } (\eta^2) = \frac{t^2}{t^2 + (N_1 + N_2 - 2)}$$

$$\eta^2 \text{ (for t-test)} = \frac{3.77^2}{3.77^2 + 28} = 0.33$$

It means that 33% of the variability in two groups' scores can be accounted by other effects and 79% can be accounted by instruction type because the magnitude of differences in the means is large.

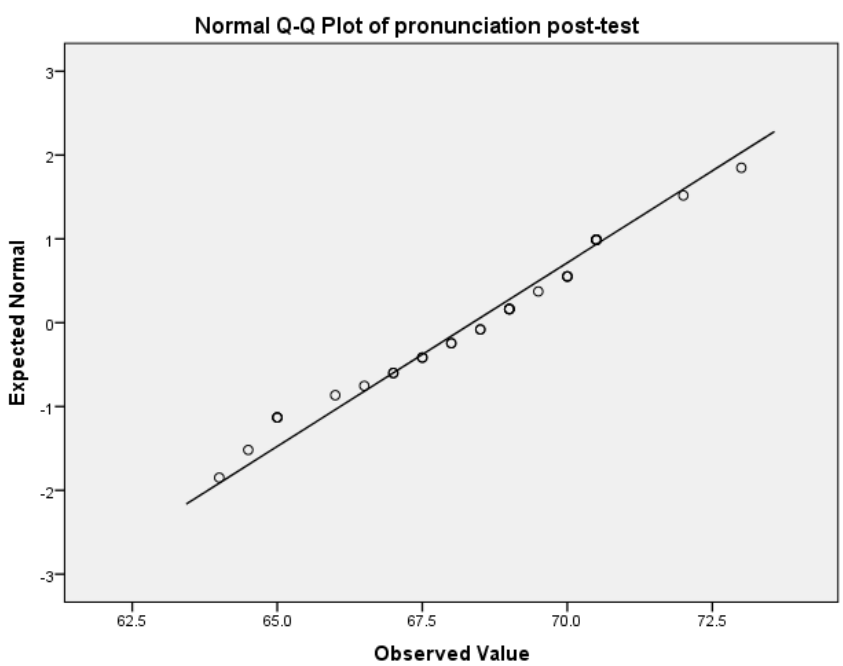

Figure 4.2. The three groups' performances on pronunciation (post-test)

In next section, a systematic comparison is done between the results of posttest of the experimental group with their scores in pretest and a systematic comparison is done between the results of posttest of the control group with their scores in pretest. In order to do so, the scores obtained from pre-test and posttest of the participants in the experimental group and the control group were analyzed individually through calculation of paired samples *t*-test. Paired samples *t*-test allows to pair two sets of data (pretest and posttest) of each group individually to compare within themselves which are presented in Table 6 and Table 7.

Table 6:
Paired samples *t*-test results for control group

	Paired Differences			**t**	**df**	**Sig. (2-tailed)**
	Mean	**Std. Deviation**	**Std. Error difference**			
Pair 1 PosCon.- PreCon.	66.86	.44721	0.75	0.56	14	0.000

Table 7:
Paired samples *t*-test results for experimental group

	Paired Differences			**t**	**df**	**Sig. (2-tailed)**
	Mean	**Std. Deviation**	**Std. Error difference**			
Pair 1 PosExp.- PreExp.	68.39	0.85070	0.75	3.38	14	0.000

As indicated in the Tables above, the result of mean obtained from the paired samples *t*-test for experimental group is greater than the ones obtained from the control group. As it shown in the Table 6 and Table 7, the paired *t*-test of experimental group (3.38) is higher than the paired *t*-test of control one (0.56). Hence, it can be concluded that the results of the two sets of data achieved from the beginning to the end of the study (based on alpha 0.05 and degree of freedom 28) are significantly different; furthermore, it can be expressed that the training variable of pronunciation software of Rosetta Stone had an obvious and great effect on the trainees' pronunciation performance.

5. General Discussion

One of the problematic aspects of EFL/ESL teaching/learning, namely pronunciation skill has been elaborated in the present research. It investigated a direct relationship between pronunciation training software and the learners' improvement pronunciation skills. Looking from a different perspective, the very fact of neglecting pronunciation in language classrooms, as Kelly (2000) put it, arises from the teachers' doubt of how to teach it rather than their lack of interest in the topic. He continued further to pose a paradox between the mutual enthusiasms of both teachers and learners concerning pronunciation and the lack of theoretical foundations for the topic; explaining that while teachers feel it quite essential to upgrade their practical skills in pronunciation teaching, language learners are also biased towards pronunciation as a tool for better communication. Pronunciation is the essential aspect of communication

and should be valued in the same weight as other components of language skills, such as vocabulary, grammar, reading, and writing linguistically, psychologically and sociologically.

Based on Reinders and Thomas (2012), digital media inevitably has revolutionized the traditional ways of teaching and learning second language. It creates best opportunities of executing national and international teaching methods for teachers. The researcher of this study believes that new technologies is not a guaranty for effective teaching and learning but it creates attractive teaching and learning atmosphere for teacher and learners in the route of L2 learning fluency and accuracy. Likewise, the advantages of using software or other technological devices would lead learners cognitively towards self-confidence, self-problem-solving, self-esteem and self-correction in their language developmental stages. In addition, this study explored that utilizing pronunciation training software can provide learners native like pronunciation or natural exposure in order to learn an accurate pronunciation which increases learners' attention to some phonological exceptions and differences between their mother tongue (first language) speech sounds and second language sound system. During the treatment program of this study, the researcher noticed that elementary EFL learners had some difficulties for pronouncing past morphemes [ed] which have three allomorphs, i.e., [t], [d], [ed], they articulated the past morphemes as [d] in *worked* and *played* as well as plural morphemes, namely [s], [z] and [iz], the researcher observed that most of learners pronounced [s] sound for plural morphemes in the words *hats*, *bags* and *benches.* Also, the researcher explored that the interdental sounds such as [θ] and [ð] which do not exist in Persian was the other point of elementary EFL learners' difficulties to pronounce the words like *thin* /θin/ and *that* /ðæt/.

Furthermore, the researcher of this study found out that the employing pronunciation training software may contributed teachers to increase learners' positive attitude, interest and motivation towards 2nd language learning, to enhance learners' engagement in their classroom interaction with their teacher and peers. It facilitates learning material for learners in order to grasp the main points of their learning which has a prominent effect on their future development of language learning process. Indubitably, in pronunciation training software method, learners have a more active role in their own learning than a traditional method. Basically, applying pronunciation training software will involve not only learners' mental activity but also engaged learners sensory learning to process and store receiving data. It provided the learners with "mental exercises" and contributes them to promote intellectually.

6. Pedagogical Implications of the Study

The perspective of the present investigation takes beyond the focus of the pronunciation training which has traditionally and pedagogically been ignored or neglected in curricula as one of English skills to be taught. This study attempts to highlight the teachers' role in "scaffolding" for manageable pronunciation learning opportunities to EFL learners by providing more explicit support and pronunciation inputs in their initial English learning through various software or multimedia tools and practices in order that learners to become more able and independent in their pronunciation skills for using language. In fact, the implications of this study can either be considered for teachers, students and also material developers or designers.

7. Limitations and Delimitations of the Study

This study was encountered with some limitations. First of all, the ability of teachers' teaching pronunciation through software was not considered. Second, this study was performed with only female students as participants. So, in order to take care of gender differences, the future studies can use both male and female students as their participants. Third, any delayed posttest was not used to take care of lasting effects of pronunciation training. Further researchers are suggested to use delayed posttests to see if the teaching of pronunciation has been effective in long run. Fourth, the results of the study may have been influenced by the limited number of students. There is a need for the similar study with a bigger sample size. Fifth, this research was conducted with merely the ages between 11 and 12. So, in order to consider its effects, it is suggested the future studies use different ages. Sixth, this research utilized just Rosetta Stone Software, it can be conducted with various kinds of pronunciation software. Finally, this

study was limited on elementary level. Therefore, any conclusions drawn from this study cannot be generalized to other populations with different proficiency levels.

8. Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to examine the effect of pronunciation training software on the improvement of Iranian EFL learners' pronunciation skills. It is proposed that the students' pronunciation skills of 2nd language would greatly influence early on their L2 learning achievements. Lack of pronunciation training software in Iranian English curriculum design of material developing (pedagogically, in all grades, there is no utilizing of pronunciation training via software). In technological world, it is necessary for learners and school students from elementary to advanced levels in all English skills to use modern tools to improve their reading, writing, speaking and listening proficiencies. Data revealed learners' receiving pronunciation training software attained starkly higher scores than those who did not, over their pronunciation test. It was proved that teaching the pronunciation skills through software tool to the experimental groups was more successful than to the control group with traditional method. Training pronunciation skills via software like Rosetta Stone Software proved to be effective in making students' progress in pronunciation skills in terms of learners' attention, perception and comprehension of language learning. It can improve Iranian EFL learners' language fluency and accuracy. Pronunciation training software (Rosetta Stone Software) had a significant effect on the mean scores of the experimental group; in other words, the mean scores of the experimental group showed significant variation between the experimental and the control groups.

Consequently, it is helpful to utilize software as a tool to enhance learners' language development which engages learners' cognitive process to internalize learning materials. Pronunciation training software engage learners' productive ability (speaking and writing) as well as their receptive ability (listening and reading).

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MJLTM

THE EFFECT OF SCHEMA-BASED INSTRUCTION AND TRANSLATION BASED INSTRUCTION ON ENHANSING IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS' PERFORMANCE ON VOCABUALRY ACCEPTABLITY JUDGMENT

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ABSTRACT
VOCABULARY LEARNING HAS BEEN ONE OF THE CHALLENGES STUDENTS IN IRAN FACE. THEY HAVE A SLOW RATE OF ACQUIRING NEW VOCABULARY ITEMS ON A YEARLY BASIS. ACCORDING TO LAUFER (1997), A MINIMUM NUMBER OF 5000 WORDS ARE NEEDED FOR UNIVERSITY STUDENTS TO HANDLE ACADEMIC STUDIES. FOR THIS PURPOSE, TEACHING POLYSEMOUS WORDS IS ONE OF THE CHALLENGES IRANIAN TEACHER MAY FACE IN TEACHING. THE PURPOSE OF THIS STUDY IS TO SEE WHETHER THERE IS ANY STATISTICALLY SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE BETWEEN SBI (IMAGE SCHEMA-BASED INSTRUCTION) AND TBI (TRANSLATION BASED INSTRUCTION), ON IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS' PERFORMANCE ON A VOCABULARY ACCEPTABILITY JUDGMENT TEST. THE PARTICIPANTS OF THE PRESENT STUDY WERE 88 UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS IN BANDAR ABBAS, IRAN. AT THE INITIAL PHASE OF THE STUDY, STUDENTS WERE GIVEN A NELSON ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY TEST AND THOSE WHO WERE BETWEEN ONE STANDARD DEVIATION ABOVE AND BELOW THE MEAN WERE CLASSIFIED AS THE MAIN PARTICIPANTS OF THE STUDY. THEN, AN ACCEPTABILITY JUDGMENT TEST WAS GIVEN TO ALL THE SELECTED PARTICIPANTS TO ASSESS THE PARTICIPANTS' RECEPTIVE KNOWLEDGE OF THE ENGLISH WORDS. THE PARTICIPANTS WERE ASKED TO READ ENGLISH SENTENCES CONTAINING THE TARGET WORDS AND TO JUDGE WHETHER THE SENTENCES WERE SEMANTICALLY APPROPRIATE OR NOT BY CIRCLING THE ANSWERS. THE STUDENTS WERE NOT ALLOWED TO CONSULT DICTIONARIES, AND ON THE ACCEPTABILITY JUDGMENT TEST, PARTICIPANTS WERE ASKED NOT TO GO BACK TO THE PREVIOUS QUESTIONS. REGARDING THE CONTROL GROUP OF THIS STUDY, NO INSTRUCTION WAS GIVEN TO THE PARTICIPANTS EXCEPT ANSWERING PRE- AND POSTTEST. THE RESULTS INDICATED THAT THE ISBM WAS MORE APPROPRIATE THAN THE TBM IN THAT IT COULD HELP LEARNERS BETTER UNDERSTAND, ASSIMILATE AND RECALL THE METAPHORICAL SENSES OF THE POLYSEMOUS WORDS IN FOCUS. THE COGNITIVE LINGUISTIC INSTRUCTIONAL METHOD WAS ADVANTAGEOUS WHEN COMPARED TO THE TRANSLATION-BASED METHOD IN GUIDING THE LEARNERS TO UNDERSTAND THE INTRA-LEXICAL STRUCTURE UNDERLYING POLYSEMOUS WORDS VIA THE USE OF IMAGE SCHEMAS AND CONCEPTUAL METAPHORS. COMPARED WITH THE CONTROL GROUP, THE EXPERIMENTAL PARTICIPANTS FOUND IT RELATIVELY EASIER TO UNDERSTAND THE MECHANISM UNDERLYING THE MEANINGS EXTENSION OF POLYSEMOUS WORDS.

KEYWORDS: SCHEMA; INSTRUCTION; VOCABULARY LEARNING; POLYSEMY; IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS

1. Introduction

Higher education systems are seeing an increasing number of students enter college ill-equipped to tackle their required coursework. Many students lack the necessary reading comprehension skills that enable them to successfully complete their required coursework (Falk-Ross, 2002; Weiner, 2002). As a result, more systems of higher education are adding remedial courses to prepare students for the necessary coursework (Weiner, ibid).

The literature regarding reading comprehension traditionally emphasizes the importance of vocabulary knowledge and its powerful impact on the reader's ability to comprehend text (Blachowicz & Fisher, 2000; Bukowiecki, 2006). In 2000, the National Reading Panel (NRP) identified vocabulary as one of the key areas for discussion and commissioned intensive studies in the area of vocabulary and its impact on reading comprehension. The NRP was created in 1997 when Congress asked the "Director of the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (NICHHD), in consultation with the Secretary of Education, to convene a panel to assess the status of research-based knowledge, including the effectiveness of various approaches to teaching children to read" (NICHHD, 2000). The NRP built and expanded on work completed by the National Research Council (NRC) Committee, which had identified and summarized research in the acquisition of beginning reading skills; however, it had not addressed how critical reading skills are most effectively taught and what methods of instruction are most beneficial to students with varying abilities. The NRP culled studies and selected prioritized topics relevant to determining the effectiveness of reading instructional methods and approaches. The findings of the NRP are important to note because they included experts in the field of reading whose findings were reported to Congress, and they further impacted policies regarding reading and, specifically, vocabulary.

The reviews depicting vocabulary instructional methods at the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (2000) provide a number of specific recommendations:

The instructional methods must be appropriate to the age and ability of the reader and dependence on a single vocabulary instruction method will not result in optimal learning. Vocabulary should be taught both directly and indirectly with repetition and multiple exposures to vocabulary items. Learning in rich contexts, incidental learning, and use of computer technology all enhance the acquisition of vocabulary, and direct instruction should include task structuring as necessary and should actively engage the students. (p. 5)

Among educators, there is a responsibility to all students to look closely at the process of vocabulary instruction. How word knowledge is transmitted should not only provide an understanding of vocabulary, but it should arouse inquisitiveness about words. The importance of the vocabulary instruction and the selection of the words are made more convincing by understanding that, ultimately, it is the skill with which the words used pull the listener closer and guide the reflection on the message being shared (Aria & Tracey, 2003).

The present study aims to take some insights from cognitive linguistics into account as far as learning polysemous words are concerned. This study can be regarded as the first study, as far as the researchers' know, which utilizes the insights of cognitive linguistics for learning polysemous words in an Iranian EFL context. In order to help the learners understand the mechanism underlying the meanings of polysemous words in English, the treatment is going to heavily rely on image schemas.

In line with the above objective, the present study aims at providing answers to the following research questions:

1. Does SBI (Schema-based Instruction) play any statistically significant role in enhancing Iranian EFL learners' performance on vocabulary acceptability judgment test?
2. Does TBI (Translation-based Instruction) play any statistically significant role in enhancing Iranian EFL learners' performance on vocabulary acceptability judgment test?
3. Is there any statistically significant difference between SBI (schema-based instruction) and TBI (translation based instruction), concerning their effects on Iranian EFL learners' performance on a vocabulary acceptability judgment test.

Research Hypotheses

By considering the above-mentioned research questions, the following research hypotheses were suggested:
1. Schema-based Instruction cannot play any statistically significant role in enhancing Iranian EFL learners' performance on vocabulary acceptability judgment test?
2. Translation-based Instruction cannot play any significant role in enhancing Iranian EFL learners' performance on vocabulary acceptability judgment test?
3. There is no significant difference between SBI (schema-based instruction) and TBI (translation based instruction), concerning their effects on Iranian EFL learners' performance on a vocabulary acceptability judgment test.

2. Literature Review

2.1. The Image Schema Construct

According to the mainstream, classical meaning of the image schema construct in cognitive science, "schemata are typically thought of as general knowledge structures, ranging from conceptual networks to scripted activities, to narrative structures and even to theoretical frameworks" (Johnson, 1987, p. 19). Advocates of this view argue that image schemas help us organize the knowledge we acquire in the world. More importantly, they serve as structured frameworks in which we fit into the situations we encounter in our world in order to understand them. These frameworks or schemata, which are usually referred to as scripts, may include "characters, settings, sequence of events, causal connections, goals and so forth"(Johnson 1987, p. 19). According to this view, the schema should be regarded as abstract conceptual and propositional event structures, or as Johnson put it "the unified recurring organization of conceptual and organizational knowledge and values that we share about typical situations and events" (1987, p. 20)

While cognitive linguists are very much in tune with the idea that general knowledge of this sort helps us organize and understand the different situations we encounter in the world, they disagree with the mainstream view on a number of points. They argue that image schemas(1) are embodied, (2) are not rich, concrete images, (3) have elements and structures(4) universal, and (5) constitute the source domains of many metaphors.

Regarding the embodiment characteristic of image schemas, Johnson (1987) disagrees with the standard view of image schemas as propositional and abstract structures and suggests, instead, these schemas should be viewed as organizing structures of our sensory and perceptual experiences. These schemas, as we explained in the embodied cognition above, are not abstract, but embodied because they stem from the sensory and perceptual experiences with the physical world.

As for the concrete character, image schemas are thought to "operate at one level of generality and abstraction above the specificity of particular concrete, rich images" (Johnson, 1987, p. 24). Cognitive linguists argue that schemas are not mental pictures or concrete images because these usually depict a particular thing. Image schemas, however, should capture all the structural features that are common to "many different objects, events, activities, and bodily movements" (Johnson, 1987, p. 24). In the case of over, for instance, Figure 2.5 would be considered as an image schema because it conveys all the literal and figurative meanings of over.

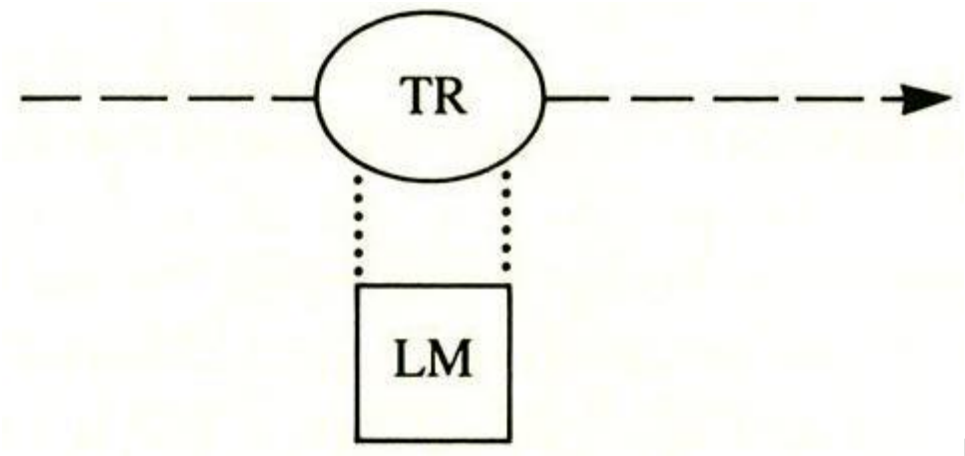

Figure 1. Over image-schema
This schema captures all the meanings of over as it combines elements of both above and across.

2.2. The Learning Burden of Words

When Nation (1990, p. 31) first suggested the multiple receptive and productive features necessary for vocabulary learning, some researchers (e.g., Meara, 1996) and teachers criticized his approach for its impracticality from teaching and assessment perspectives.

Pedagogically, it is axiomatic that not all the words carry the same importance and deserve similar attention, for high frequency words, for instance, seem to be more crucial (for L2 speakers to know) in speech and writing than low frequency words. Similarly, from an assessment perspective, Meara (1996) notes that "it might be possible in theory to construct measures of each of these types of knowledge of particular words; in practice, it would be very difficult to do this for more than a handful of items" (p. 46). To disambiguate the situation, Nation (1990, 2001, 2008) points out that teachers do not need to take into account all the features cited in the table to successfully teach a word, instead, they have to work out what needs to be taught about a word or what he called the learning burden of a word (2008, p. 99).

In his seminal works on vocabulary learning and teaching, Nation (1990, p. 33) discusses the features that make learning words difficult, and states that the areas of difficulties of a word vary from "word to word according to the ways in which the word relates to first language and already existing knowledge or other known languages" (2008, p. 99). For instance, the adjective free is a loan word in Thai, where it is used exclusively to express "free of charge".

Hence, when Thai speakers learn English, they may assume that this word only means "free of charge". Thus, when teaching this word in Thailand, teachers need not pay particular attention to form aspects - sound, spelling, and word part - because the word already exists in Thai. Instead, they have to draw the students" attention to meaning aspects of free and focus on its multiple meanings such as Are you free at six o'clock?, They were set free, and Free speech(p. 100). Nation (1990, p. 33) and Laufer (1997, p. 140) discuss in depth the features that can affect the ability to learn words in a second language positively or negatively, but as covering all these features is beyond the scope of This study, we will limit myself to exploring the feature of multiple meanings and how polysemous words cause learning confusion for second language learners.

2.3. Pedagogical Applications of the Cognitive Linguistic Insights into Teaching Polysemous Words

Polysemous words are natural categories of senses As we saw in the cognitive linguistic account of categorization, Lakoff (1987), as well as many other cognitive linguists, has shown that polysemous words are natural categories of semantically motivated senses, with the more basic sense lying in the centre and the extended meanings radiating towards the periphery.Proponents of such a theory believe teaching polysemous words as natural categories of semantically motivated senses might help EFL learners learn polysemous words better.

According to Danesi (1992) , EFL learners like Iranians prefer the more prototypical meanings occupying the centre of the radial categories to the figurative senses lying at the periphery while it is not the case among native speakers. Such unwillingness to use extended meanings can be due to the language learners‟ poor knowledge of these words which might be the result of their insufficient exposure to "frequent, meaningful, and varied types of communicative interaction" (p. 49) containing genuine examples of meaning extensions in their EFL contexts.

In the same way, advanced EFL learners doing their studies in English-speaking countries like the United States are having the tendency to operate more towards the centre of radial categories, thus producing too literal, unnatural language, void of any figurative language. This shows that even being surrounded by native speakers for a long time, the advanced learners‟ language proved to be too literal, and this indicates that, borrowing Littlemore's words, "radial category knowledge is something that builds over a lifetime" (2009, p.50) and easy to have access to and acquire in natural contexts.

At this stage we could ask: How can teachers help EFL learners understand and buildup knowledge of English polysemous words prototypical and extended figurative senses? To deal with this problem, Danesi (1992) insists on the explicit instruction of polysemous words through syllabuses that start with the more basic meanings of these words followed by the peripheral representations over a period of time (polysemous words are taught in a piecemeal fashion).

Although presenting Iranian EFL learners with several senses of polysemous words from the beginning may be useful, in practice, it is a very lengthy process, as a huge number of high frequency words are polysemous. For this it might be more rewarding if learners are taught polysemous words strategically, and specifically as a vocabulary learning strategy where learners guess the extended meanings of these words through their literal, prototypical meanings. Once mastered, the learners can apply such a strategy to any polysemous word that they may encounter in the future. In this way, teachers will not have to go through all the polysemous words in the English language

3. Methodology

3.1. Participants

The participants of the present study were 88 undergraduate students in Mehrdad Institute, Bandar Abbas, Iran. At the initial phase of the study, students were given a Nelson proficiency test and those who were between one standard deviation above and below the mean were classified as the main participants of the study. Finally, 61 students were considered for further study. They were randomly classified as two experimental groups and one control group. Table 1 illustrates the participants across two instructional groups and one control group.

Table 1. Number of Participants in the Study

Instructional method	Number of participants
	Total
Image-schema-based instruction (ISBI)	20
Translation-based instruction (TBI)	22
Control	19
Total	61

3.2. Procedure

In order to see whether the TBI and ISBI instruction play any significant role or not, first a Nelson proficiency test including 40 questions was given to all participants to select the homogenized participants. Then, an acceptability judgment test was given to all the selected participants to assess the participants' receptive knowledge of the English words. The participants were asked to read English sentences containing the target words and to judge whether the sentences were semantically appropriate or not by circling the answers. The total number of sentences was 30. Half of the sentences included the word "break" and the other half included "over". The students were not allowed to consult dictionaries, and on the acceptability judgment test, participants were asked not to go back to the previous questions.

In the acceptability judgment test, one point was given for each correct judgment, with a total score of 15 for each word. After the participants in the three groups answered the test, the instruction based on ISBI and TBI was started. Regarding the control group, there was no instruction for them.
Then, the participants in both groups answered the same grammatical judgment test as posttest but by different order of presenting items included in the test. Regarding the control group of this study, no instruction was given to the participants except answering pre- and posttest.
Finally, the results of the pre and posttest scores in both groups were compared and analyzed by SPSS to see whether there was any statistically significant difference between the performances of the groups after instruction.

3.3. Instruments

-An acceptability judgment test: it was used to assess the participants' receptive knowledge of the English words in two contexts. The participants were asked to read English sentences containing the target words and to judge whether the sentences were semantically appropriate or not by circling the answers. The total number of sentences was 30. Half of the sentences included the word "break" and the other half included "over".
- General English Proficiency Test: The Nelson proficiency test was used as the pedestal for evaluating the subjects' level of proficiency in English. This test includes 40 multiple-choice vocabulary, grammar, and reading comprehension items.

4. Findings and Results

Before doing data analysis, One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used to check whether the data were normally distributed or not. If the level of significance is more than 0.05, it indicates the normality of data distribution. Therefore, one can use paired sample t-test and ANOVA test for further data analysis.

Table 2. One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test for Pretest Score Among ISBI (Image Schema-based Instruction), TBI (Translation-based Instruction), and Control Group

		ISBI group	TBI group	Control group
N		20	22	19
Normal Parameters(a,b)	Mean	11.60	12.36	12.63
	Std. Deviation	3.393	3.874	2.985
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.140	.138	.128
	Positive	.140	.138	.127
	Negative	-.072	-.135	-.128
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		.626	.645	.558
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.828	.799	.914

As it is evident from Table 2, the result of normality test shows that p value for three tests (.828, 799, .914) is more than significance level (0.05).Therefore, we can accept the assumption of normality and we can use parametric test such ANOVA or T-test for comparing the results of three tests used for the purpose of this study.

Research question 1

Q1. Does ISBI (Image Schema-based Instruction) play any significant role on enhancing Iranian EFL learners' performance in vocabulary acceptability judgment test?
H01. Schema-based Instruction cannot play any significant role on enhancing Iranian EFL learners' performance in vocabulary acceptability judgment test.
In order to answer this research question, data were analyzed and the following tables were elicited.
Before answering the first research question, we wanted to see whether there is any significant difference between subjects in control and experimental groups before any intervention program takes place in the experimental group classrooms. Table3 and Table 4 indicate the results of data analysis. As it is clear from Table 4, no significant difference was found between the control and experimental groups before Image-schema based instruction and Translation-based instruction (F= .473; P=.625). Therefore, we can conclude

that if there is any significant difference between these two groups after intervention program, we can relate these results to the effect of training.

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics for Pretest in ISBI, TBI, and Control Group

group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	Minimum	Maximum
ISBI	20	11.60	3.393	.759	6	21
TBI	22	12.36	3.874	.826	6	23
Control	19	12.63	2.985	.685	7	18
Total	61	12.20	3.429	.439	6	23

Table 4. ANOVA Test for Mean Pretest Among ISBI, TBI, and Control Group

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	11.327	2	5.664	.473	.625
Within Groups	694.312	58	11.971		
Total	705.639	60			

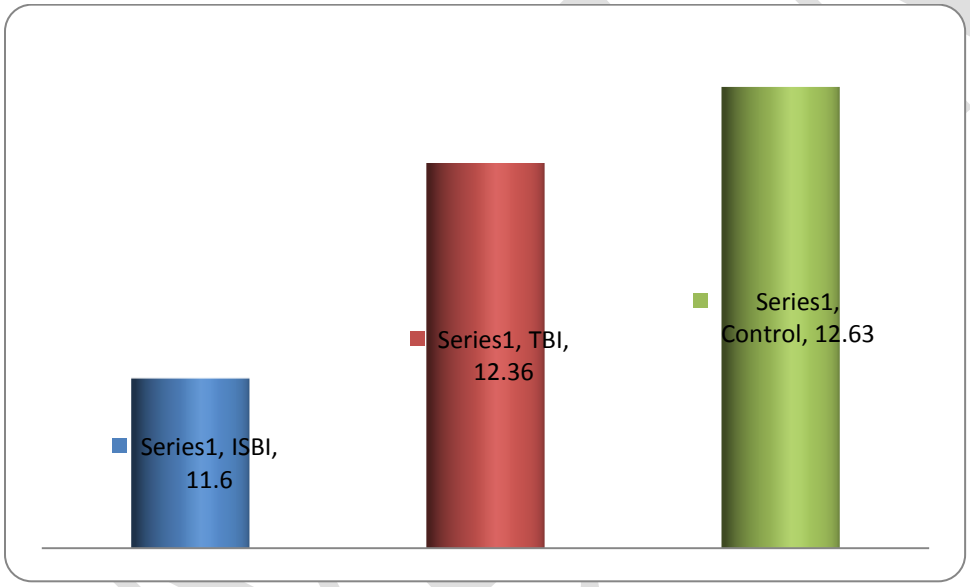

Figure 2. Descriptive Statistics for Pretest in ISBI, TBI, and Control Group

Now, in order to answer the first research question, data were analyzed in both control and ISBI experimental group according to Table 3 and 4. As it is evident from Table 5, there is no significant difference between pre- and posttest in control group in Iranian EFL context (t=.335; P= .742) while with regard to the effect of teaching the words "break" and "over" based on image schema (ISBI), the results of data analysis (t-test) in Table 5 below indicate that there is a statistically significant difference between students' performance in vocabulary performance in pretest and posttest for ISBI group (t= 9.46; P=.000) while it is not the case for the control group.

Table 5. Paired Sample Test for Pre- and Posttest in DSGO and Control Group

Group	**Pair**	**Mean**	**SD**	**Std. Error Mean**	**t**	**df**	**Sig (2-tailed)**
ISBI	**Pre- and posttest**	-5.900	2.789	.624	-9.460	19	.000

Control	**Pre- and posttest**	-.105	1.370	.314	-.335	18	.742

On the other hand, by looking at Table 6, subjects scored higher in posttest (M=17.50, SD= 3.678), when they were taught based on image-schema based instruction, than pretest (without teaching or exposing) (M=11.60, SD= 3.393). By taking the results of data analysis into account, the first hypothesis (Schema-based Instruction cannot play any significant role on enhancing Iranian EFL learners' performance in vocabulary acceptability judgment test.) is rejected. In other words, ISBI training could play a significant role in enhancing Iranian EFL learners learning the words "over" and "break".

Table 6. Descriptive Statistics for ISBI and Control Group

Group	**Test**	**Mean**	**N**	**Std. Deviation**	**Std. Error**
ISBI	Pretest	11.60	20	3.393	.759
	Posttest	17.50	20	3.678	.822
Control	Pretest	12.63	19	2.985	.685
	Posttest	12.74	19	2.621	.601

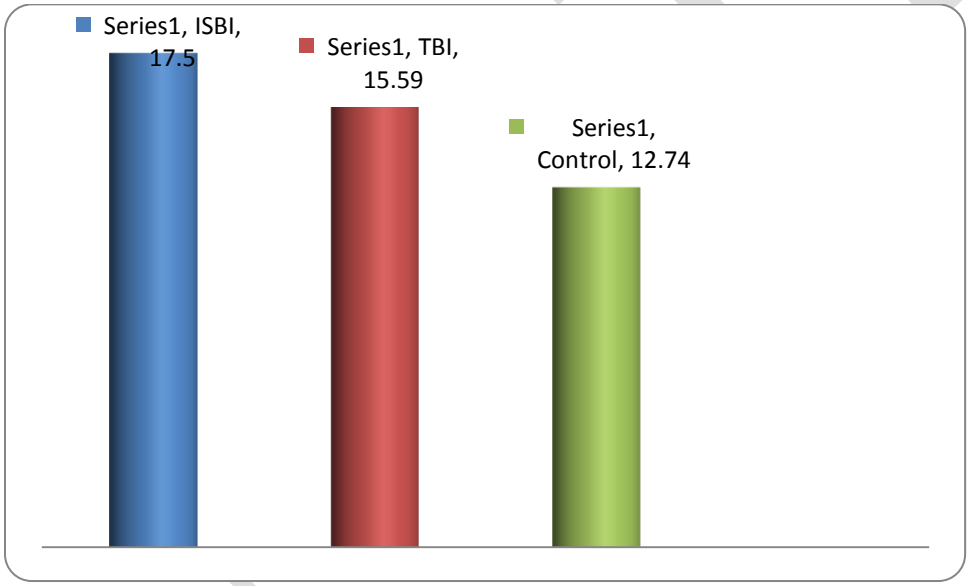

Figure 3. Descriptive Statistics for ISBI and Control Group in Pre and Posttest

Research Question 2

R2. Does TBI (Translation-based Instruction) play any significant role on enhancing Iranian EFL learners' performance in vocabulary acceptability judgment test?

H02.Translation-based Instruction cannot play any significant role on enhancing Iranian EFL learners' performance in vocabulary acceptability judgment test.

Now, in order to answer the second research question, data were analyzed in both control and TBI experimental group according to Table7 and 8. As it is evident from Table7, there is no significant difference between pre- and posttest in control group in Iranian EFL context (t=.335; P= .742) while with regard to the effect of exposing students with Translation-based Instruction (TBI), results of data analysis (t-test) in Table7 below indicate that there is a statistically significant difference between students'

performance in the use of the words "over" and "break" in pretest and posttest for TBI group (t= 9.460; P=.000).

Table7. Paired Sample Test for Pre- and Posttest in TBI and Control Group

Group	Pair	Mean	SD	Std. Error Mean	t	df	Sig (2-tailed)
TBI	**Pre- and posttest**	-5.900	2.789	.624	-9.460	19	.000
Control	**Pre- and posttest**	-.105	1.370	.314	-.335	18	.742

On the other hand, by looking at Table 8, subjects scored higher in posttest (M=15.59, SD= 3.775), when they were taught by translation method than pretest (without teaching or exposing) (M=12.36, SD= 3.874). By taking the results of data analysis into account, the first hypothesis (Translation-based Instruction cannot play any significant role on enhancing Iranian EFL learners' performance in vocabulary acceptability judgment test.) is rejected. In other words, Translation-based instruction could play a significant role in enhancing Iranian EFL learners' learning polysomous words "over" and "break" .

Table 8. Descriptive Statistics for TBI and Control Group

Group	Test	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
TBI	Pretest	12.36	22	3.874	.826
	Posttest	15.59	22	3.775	.805
Control	Pretest	12.63	19	2.985	.685
	Posttest	12.74	19	2.621	.601

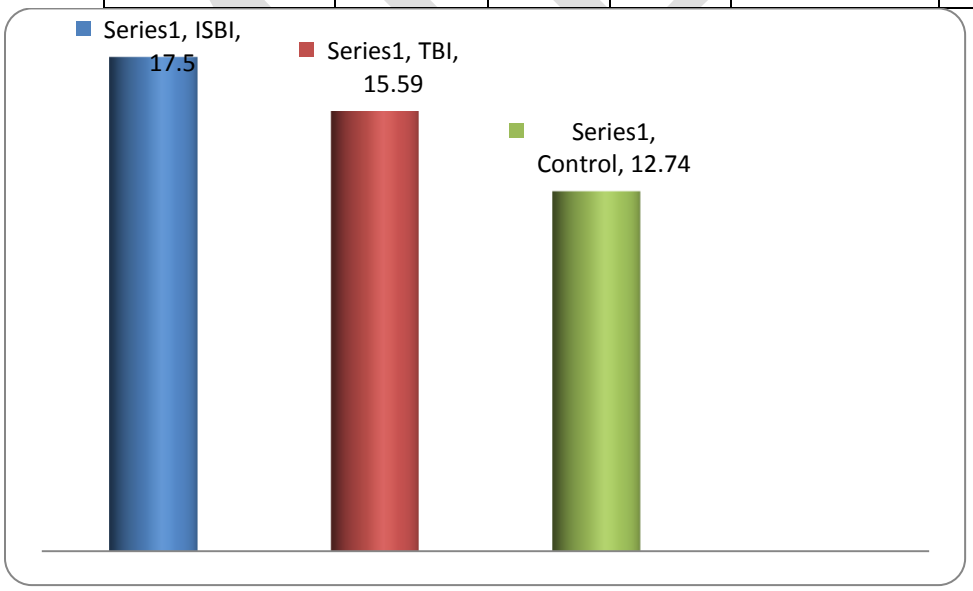

Figure 4. Descriptive Statistics for TBI and Control Group

Research Question 3

RQ3. Is there any significant difference between SBI (schema-based instruction) and TBI (translation based instruction) on Iranian EFL learners' performance on a vocabulary acceptability judgment test?
H03. There is no significant difference between SBI (schema-based instruction) and TBI (translation based instruction), on Iranian EFL learners' performance on a vocabulary acceptability judgment test.
In order to answer this research question, the collected data were compared and analyzed as following:

Table 9. Descriptive Statistics for ISBI, TBI and Control Group

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	Minimum	Maximum
ISBI	20	17.50	3.678	.822	11	24
TBI	22	15.59	3.775	.805	9	25
Control	19	12.74	2.621	.601	8	17
Total	61	15.33	3.880	.497	8	25

Table10. Results of ANOVA for Mean Posttest Scores of Samples in ISBI, TBI and Control group

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	223.440	2	111.720	9.529	.000
Within Groups	680.002	58	11.724		
Total	903.443	60			

The results of data analysis (ANOVA) in Table 10 indicates that there is a statistically significant difference between ISBI, and TBI in the results of posttest because obtained F value of 9.529, was found to be significant (P=.000). In order to see where the difference stands, Post hoc test was used. As it is clear from Table11, there is a significant difference between ISBI and TBI (P=.02). In other words, the third null hypothesis (There is no significant difference between SBI (schema-based instruction) and TBI (translation based instruction), on Iranian EFL learners' performance on a vocabulary acceptability judgment test.) is also rejected. In fact, Image schema instruction played a better role in enhancing Iranian EFL learners' understanding on the polysomous words "break" and " over".

Table 11. Post Hoc Test for ISBI, TBI, and Control Group

	Group	N	Subset for alpha = .05	
			1	2
TukeyHSD(a, b)	Control	19	12.74	
	TBI	22		15.59
	ISBI	20		17.50
	Sig.		.000	.02

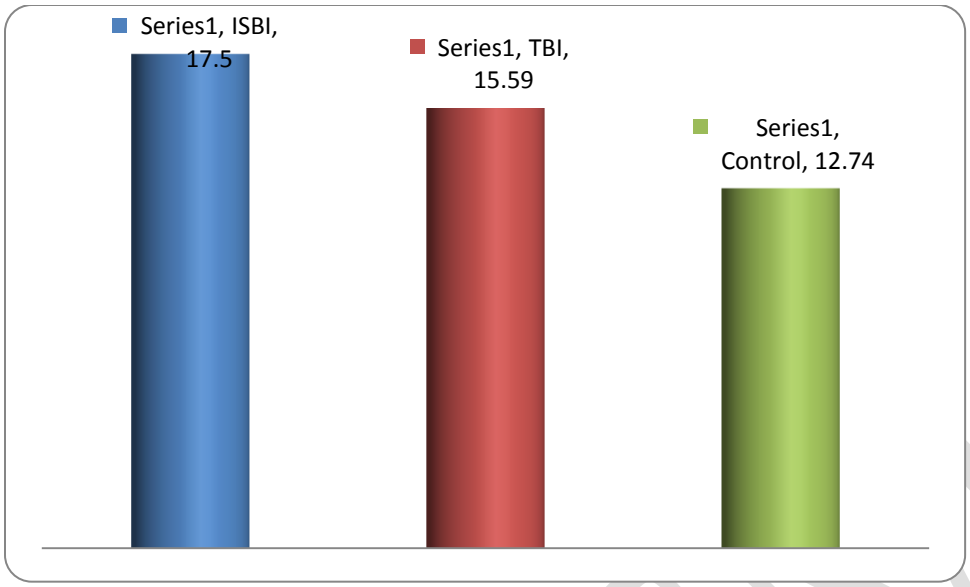

Figure 5. Descriptive Statistics for ISBI, TBI and Control Group

5. Discussion

The results achieved by the experimental group can be attributed to several factors, the most important of which are:

1 The usefulness of understanding the underlying mechanism of polysemous words‟ meaning extension

2 The beneficial role of dual-coding in understanding polysemous words

3 The effectiveness of the explicit instruction of vocabulary

The researchers will discuss these points one by one in what follows.

(1)The usefulness of understanding the underlying mechanism of polysemous words‟ meaning extension

This finding indicates that the ISBM is better than the TBM in that it can help learners better understand, assimilate and recall the metaphorical senses of the polysemous words in focus. The cognitive linguistic instructional method was advantageous when compared to the translation-based method in guiding the learners to understand the intra-lexical structure underlying polysemous words via the use of image schemas and conceptual metaphors. Compared with the control participants, the experimental subjects found it relatively easier to understand the mechanism underlying the meanings extension of polysemous words. The cognitive approach allowed the experimental participants to learn the metaphorical meanings of the treatment words in a gestalt-like version, in the same way they are presented in the mental lexicon according to many researchers (e.g., Folse, 2004). So, unlike the control participants who were left with a fragmented picture of language, their experimental peers were provided with a unified view of language, remedying, thus, for the inability to understand the relationship between core meanings and peripheral senses of polysemous words‟ meanings. According to Gass and Selinker (2008), as a result of the treatment of the extended meanings polysemous words‟ as an "unorganized list of unrelated meanings that are accidentally coded by the same phonological form" (p. 152), EFL learners failed to grasp the relatedness that exists between the different, but related meanings of polysemous words.

The findings on the primacy of the ISBM over the TBM in making the experimental participants aware of the intra-lexical structure underlying the meaning extensions of polysemous words are congruent with the results reached by other studies inspired by cognitive linguistics and notably those of Touplikioti (2007). This researcher found out that by showing the Greek learners of English how the metaphorical senses of the polysemous verbs "make" and "do" are related to their literal meanings through cognitive mechanism such as conceptual metaphors and image schemas (called them graphic representations in her study), the experimental group outperformed their control peers in the understanding of the these verbs.

Similarly, the primacy of the ISBM proved by this study supports the findings reached by Csábi (2004) who found that the explicit cognitive linguistic explanations of the semantic networks of hold and keep can be more effective than translation and memorization in polysemous words teaching and learning.
Besides, this finding is consistent with what is argued by Boers and Demecheleer
(1998) about the ability of EFL learners to correctly interpret unfamiliar figurative senses of beyond if they are given cognitive semantic analyses of its core meaning and if shown how figurative senses are extended from the core meaning, a phenomenon they refer to as themetaphorization process (p. 97).
As it is clear from the above discussion that by being aware of how the extended senses of polysemous words are derived from their core, literal meanings, the experimental participants were able to retain the taught information better than their counterparts in the control group.
(2) The beneficial role of dual-coding in understanding polysemous words
Also, the good performance of the experimental group can be attributed to the implementation of the dual coding theory. The instructional approach in accordance with which the experimental participants studied polysemous words adopted image-schemas accompanied by verbal explanations in showing how metaphorical senses are extended from core meanings of polysemous words. As a result, image-schemas were used as visual aids that might have helped the experimental participants better understand the metaphorical extensions of the polysemous words taught. According to proponents of the dual coding theory (e.g. Boers et al, 2008), visual aids used in the form of image-schemas in this study might have had the potential to make the taught figurative, abstract senses, which are long-considered to be beyond the EFL learners¨ grasp, concrete. Such concretization seems to have helped the experimental participants better understand and retain the abstract senses of the taught words as concrete scenes in memory along with their verbal forms. Such visual aids were absent in the instructional treatment of the control group who seems to rely only on the teacher's verbal explanations to understand the instructed polysemous metaphorical senses.
(3)The effectiveness of the explicit instruction of vocabulary
More importantly, the experimental group obtained better results, which might have been made possible through the deliberate instruction of the treatment words. This finding provides evidence in the support of the view that vocabulary should be deliberately targeted for instruction (Nation, 2001; Laufer, 1997).
The explicit vocabulary instruction method has always been advocated as a requisite for the EFL learner's substantial vocabulary base (Laufer, 1997). As a result, the direct vocabulary teaching method would be more appropriate for teaching high frequency words (Nation, 1990, 2001, 2008). The direct method adopted in the study proved to be very rewarding in drawing the learners' attention to the different, related meanings of polysemous words.
To sum up, the experimental participants succeeded in outperforming their control
peers in dealing with the metaphorical meanings of polysemous words due to the power of the ISBM to facilitate the teaching and learning tasks of polysemous words.

6. Conclusion

The present study sought to compare the effectiveness of two different approaches to teaching polysemous words to Iranian EFL learners: an image-scheme approach based on insights from cognitive linguistics and the traditional translation method.
The findings drawn from the statistically analyzed results confirm the primacy of techniques inspired by cognitive linguistics over those based on translation in learning polysemous words. However, both techniques were beneficial in learning polysomous words by two experimental group of this study, while control maintained nearly the same results on the grammaticality judgment test taken immediately after the treatment. Regarding the comparison of two methods of teaching, teaching polysemous vocabulary strategically, using an approach inspired by cognitive linguistics, was found advantageous as the experimental participants managed to work out the metaphorical senses of newly encountered polysemous words through their literal meanings. More specifically, it came to light that learners who are inclined to think in pictures were found to be more successful in learning polysemous words.
Such findings give pedagogic support to the tenets of cognitive linguistics and prototype theory within cognitive linguistics (e.g., Gass & Selinker, 2008). Also, the results of this study are in congruent with the

findings from other studies using teaching methods such as the study done by Csábi (2004) and Touplikioti (2007).

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EFFECT OF USING COLLABORATIVE PROBLEM-SOLVING TASKS ON TASK ACHIEVEMENT OF EFL LERNERS WHILE WRITING

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ABSTRACT
THE STUDY GAUGED THE EFFECT OF COLLABORATIVE PROBLEM-SOLVING TASKS ON TASK ACHIEVEMENT OF EFL LEARNERS WHILE WRITING. TO THIS END, THE RESEARCHERS SELECTED 58 IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS OUT OF 89 BY ADMINISTERING TASK 2 OF THE IELTS TEST. THE PARTICIPANTS IN THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP WENT THROUGH COLLABORATIVE PROBLEM-BASED TASKS BY WORKING WITHIN GROUPS OF 4. THEY WERE ASKED TO DEVELOP ESSAYS COLLABORATIVELY BY ANALYZING THE TOPIC QUESTION AND SELECTING PROPER SUPPORT FOR THE PARAGRAPHS THROUGH BRAINSTORMING. IN THE CONTROL GROUP, THE PARTICIPANTS WERE GIVEN TOPIC QUESTIONS AND WERE ASKED TO WRITE THE ESSAYS INDIVIDUALLY. THE FINDINGS OF THE STUDY PROVED THAT COLLABORATIVE PROBLEM-SOLVING TASKS COULD HAVE A CONSIDERABLE POSITIVE EFFECT ON TASK ACHIEVEMENT OF EFL LEARNERS IN WRITING. THE FINDINGS OF THE STUDY CAN BE USED BY LANGUAGE TEACHERS WHO AIM AT ENHANCING THEIR STUDENTS' TASK ACHIEVEMENT IN WRITING.

KEYWORDS: COLLABORATIVE LEARNING, PROBLEM-SOLVING TASKS, COGNITION, TASK ACHIEVEMENT, EFL LEARNERS

INTRODCUTION

Task achievement, often defined as the degree to which the writing-exam question has been answered (British council, 2016), is one of the most significant writing criteria in internationally high-stake tests such as IELTS. Along with other factors, namely; grammatical range and accuracy, cohesion, coherence, and choice of lexicon, task achievement is a factor which can help examiners decide whether or not an essay is well written. Thus, the aim of many language instructors, especially those in charge of the writings courses, is to enhance their students task achievement in writing.

Problem-solving tasks, on the other hand, have been found to be a proper approach to enhancing EFL learners' language proficiency. As activities which make use of EFL learners' cognition in order to find answer to questions (Hmelo-silver, 2004), problem solving tasks require learners analysis, defining and decoding abilities to learn language through solving problems. Collaborative problem-solving tasks which are often carried out within groups of 1 to 4 give the opportunity to the learners to not only make use of their cognitive and metacognitive abilities, but also to enjoy the feedback received from other group members to enhance their individual performance (Woods et al., 1996).

Of interest to many researchers has been to find a method to enhance EFL learners' writing skill with regard to task achievement, to this end; the researchers in this study measured the effect of collaborative problem-solving tasks on task achievement of EFL learners in writing.

PROBLEM STATEMENT

It seems that task achievement is one of the challenges of EFL learners in writing. Not only are they concerned with writing the minimum number of words required by the test (e.g., 250 words in Task 2 of the IELTS test), but also they are worried about arguing, describing or explaining the topic question properly. In addition, excessive attention paid to other factors such as choice of words, coherence and cohesion causes negligence toward task achievement. Task achievement is often not satisfactorily achieved as the language learners cannot find enough justifications or examples to support their ideas. Besides, the allotted time to the test is often limited which causes more difficulty in achieving the task.

RESEARCH QUESTION

The following research question was formulated to pursue the purpose of the study:

Q1: What is the effect of collaborative problem-based tasks on task achievement of EFL learners in writing?

RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS

Hand in hand with the research question, the following research hypothesis was formed:

H1: The effect of collaborative problem-solving tasks on task achievement of EFL learners in writing is positive.

OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY

The prime objective of the study is to find a way to enhance EFL learners' writing skill by enhancing their task achievement. The secondary objective of the study is to investigate whether or not collaborative problem-solving tasks can be used to achieve the above mentioned goal. The study also aims at finding out whether writing tasks could be carried out collaboratively instead of individually.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Using the findings of the study, language teachers can conduct EFL classes more purposefully. In terms of writing classes, they can use collaborative problem-solving tasks to enhance EFL learners' task achievement in writing. Also, their role as a language teacher will be diminished to a facilitator which gives them more opportunity to observe learners' performance and provide them with feedback.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

THEORETICAL BACKGGRIUND

COLLABORATIVE LEANING

Swain (2000) definition of collaborative leaning (CL) describes CL as one of the most significant and influential tools by which learning can occur. In collaborative learning social interactions are rampant. Learners try to explore a subject by means of social interactions. In a similar way, collaborative learning is defined by Dillenbourg (1999, p. 1) as a "situation in which two or more people learn or attempt to learn something together." Considering the classroom setting, Gokhale (1995, p. 22) states that CL is "an instructional method in which students at various performance levels work together in small groups toward a common goal."

The use of collaborative learning activities has been emphasized in many language teaching methods such as the communicative language teaching method (CLT), and different forms of projected-based learning (Larsen-freeman & Anderson, 2013). It is through collaboration that language learners find the opportunity to give and receive feedback and to build their self-confidence and autonomy in real communication.

PROBLEM-SOLVING TASKS

The core component of problem-solving tasks lies in using cognition to solve a problem. Problem-solving tasks are generally referred to tasks in which what is meant to be learned will be presented in form of a question rather than explanation, description of a report (Hmelo-silver, 2004). Abdullah (1998) posited that if language learning could be carried out by posing problem similar to students' real life problems, PBL could situate language learning. However, Larsson (2001) stated that there exists a difficulty. He considers language as a tool for learning in disciplines such as medicine and physics but a target in

language classes. Thus, teaching language through language is more difficult that teaching, for example, chemistry through language. In fact, it requires a lot of artistry on the side of the instructor to guide the learners to obvious real situations. In turn, it indicates that the tutor has a very significant role in scaffolding the learners in PBL settings. In addition, Larsson (2001) argued that PBL is in accordance with Blooms constructivist approach as it aims at students' comprehension, questioning, and critical thinking skills, all of which are essential for language learning

Considering the aforementioned contradictions by scholars on the possible effect of collaborative problem-solving tasks on task achievement of EFL learners was sought.

METHOD

PARTICIPANTS

In order to conduct this study, Task 2 of the writing academic module of IELTS exam was administered to 89 EFL learners studying at Danesh language institute in Esfahan, Iran. 3 raters were asked to score the participants' writing in terms of task achievement. Same results were used as the participants pretest scores. Considering 1 standard deviation above and below the mean score of the participants on the writing test, 58 EFL learners were selected for the study who formed two different groups, namely, the experimental group and the control group with 25 and 23 participants respectively.

INSTRUMENTS

Two main instruments were used in this study. Two different versions of the IELTS writing test were used as the pretest and the posttest. As announced by the British Council, all IELTS test have the same level of difficulty , thus, the researcher used two test to avoid the practice effect.

Cambridge IELTS series designed by Jakeman and McDowell (2006) is a series of books to help IELTS candidates prepare themselves for the exam. Each book consists of 4 different complete IELTS tests and the audio files. The topic from Cambridge IELTS series were practiced with the participants during the course of treatment in both the control group and the experimental group. However, prior to the actual study, the researcher make sure that the writing tasks in the books were unfamiliar to the participants in order to avoid the practice effect.

PROCEDURE

In the experimental groups (collaborative problem-solving tasks), the participants were asked to form groups. There were 4 participants in each group (except for 2 groups with 3 participants in each). They were all given topics to write. They were asked to develop the topics within the group by thinking about the topic and brain storming about possible ways to support the ideas and answer the topic question. Next they were asked to write the essays and compare their writings to each other to come up with a final paper to achieve the writing task. The procedure lasted for 10 sessions.

In the control group, the participants did not form groups. They were given topics in form of questions and were asked to develop the topics and write five-paragraph essays which contained 250 words. The procedure lasted for 10 sessions.

RESULTS

The study entitled "Effect of Using Collaborative Problem Solving Tasks on Task Achievement of EFL Learners While Writing'' aimed at finding the answer to the following research question:

Q1: What is the effect of collaborative Problem-Based Tasks on Task achievement of EFL learners in writing?

In the first step of the data analysis, ratios of skewness and kurtosis were check for the homogeneity test scores(writing Task 2) to find out whether of not the study is a parametric one.

Table 1

Normal Distribution of the Homogeneity Test Scores

N	Valid	89
Skewness		.664
Std. Error of Skewness		.121
Kurtosis		.505

Std. Error of Kurtosis	.348

Having made sure that the scores have normal distribution and by considering 1 standard deviation above and below the mean score, 58 participants were selected as the participants for the study. Independent sample t-test was run prior to the main study to make sure the difference between the experimental group and the control group was not meaningful.

An independent t-test was run to compare the experimental groups (Considered as one group) and control groups' mean score prior to the main study. Based on the results displayed in Table 2, it can be claimed that the experimental group (M = 25.617, SD = 2.81) had a slightly higher mean than the control group (M = 25.608, SD = 2.75).

Task 2

Descriptive Statistics

Group Statistics

	VAR00002	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
General	1.00	23	25.6170	2.81729	.41094
	2.00	25	25.6087	2.75910	.57531

The results of the independent t-test (t (68) = 0-12, p = .991, r = .712 representing a weak effect size) (Table 3) indicate that the difference between the mean scores of the control group and experimental group is not meaningful.

Table 3

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
General	Equal variances assumed	.036	.850	.012	68	.991	.00833	.71216	-1.41276	1.42941
	Equal variances not assumed			.012	44.621	.991	.00833	.70701	-1.41599	1.43264

It should be noted that the assumption of homogeneity of variances was met (Levene's F = 0.36, p = .850). That is why the first row of Table 3, i.e., "Equal variances assumed" was reported.

Through an independent samples t-test, the participants' scores on the posttest in both groups were compared.

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics

Group Statistics

	VAR00003	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
general_posttest	1.00	25	29.6809	2.71955	
	2.00	23	27.0000	2.67989	

The results of the independent t-test (t (68) = 3-89, p = .00, r = .688 representing a large effect size) (Table 5) indicate that the difference between the mean scores of the control group and experimental group is meaningful. Thus, the null hypothesis was **rejected**.

Table 5

Independent Samples Test

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Posttest	Equal variances assumed	.041	.841	3.892	68	.000	2.68085	68879	1.30638	4.05532
	Equal variances not assumed			3.912	44.37	.000	2.68085	.68528	1.30008	4.06162

It should be noted that the assumption of homogeneity of variances was met (Levene's F = 0.41, p = .841). That is why the first row of Table 5, i.e., "Equal variances assumed" was reported.

CONCLUSION/ DISCUSSION

The results of the study proved that collaborative problem-solving tasks can have a positive effect on task achievement of EFL learners in writings. The findings of the study are in line with findings of Hayati (1998) who state that problem solving activities are a suitable way to enhance language learners' communicative abilities; considering that writing is a communicative ability. The results of the study are also congruent with woods et al (1996) who finds collaborative problem based tasks one of the most innovative approaches to education due to learners' active participation in the class to solve problems.

Ansarian (2015) gauged the effect of problem-based tasks on writing proficiency of Iranian EFL learners concluding that problem-based tasks can have a positive effect on writing proficiency of EFL learners, though task achievement was not the specific criterion under investigation by the researcher.

This study also provides answer to Larsson's (2001) hypothesis about the use of problem-based task in language classes by providing evidence that in terms of task achievement in writing collaborative problem-solving tasks could be useful.

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MJLTM

PERSONALITY TRAITS AND CRITICAL THINKING AS PREDICTORS OF READING COMPREHENSION

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ABSTRACT
THE ABILITY TO THINK CRITICALLY AND TO REASON WELL HAS BEEN CONSIDERED AS AN IMPORTANT AND NECESSARY OUTCOME OF LIFE AND EDUCATION. BY THE SAME TOKEN, PERSONALITY TRAIT IS OF IMPORTANCE IN THE WAY LEARNERS ATTEMPT TO LEARN LANGUAGE. IN THIS RESPECT, THE PRESENT STUDY EXPLORED THE PREDICTION EFFICACY OF CRITICAL THINKING ABILITY AND PERSONALITY TRAIT ON IRANIAN LEARNERS' READING COMPREHENSION. FIFTY EFL INTERMEDIATE LEARNERS PARTICIPATED IN THE STUDY. FOR DATA COLLECTION, A PERSONALITY TRAIT QUESTIONNAIRE (CASPER, 2005), A CRITICAL THINKING QUESTIONNAIRE (WATSON & GLASER, 2002) AND A VERSION OF TOEFL READING COMPREHENSION TEST (TOEFL, 2010) WERE USED. THE DATA WERE ANALYZED USING STANDARD MULTIPLE REGRESSION. THE RESULTS OF THE STUDY INDICATED THAT ABOUT 70% OF VARIABILITY IN READING COMPREHENSION IS ACCOUNTED FOR BY PERSONALITY TRAITS AND CRITICAL THINKING. IN ADDITION, THE RESULTS INDICATED THAT PERSONALITY TRAIT IS A BETTER PREDICTOR FOR READING COMPREHENSION THAN CRITICAL THINKING. THE IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY WERE DISCUSSED AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDIES WERE MADE.

KEYWORDS: PERSONALITY TRAITS, CRITICAL THINKING, READING COMPREHENSION

1. Introduction

Recently, critical thinking, as a higher-order cognitive ability, has received due attention in ESL/EFL studies. According to literature, higher-order thinking skills play a significant role in learners' language achievement (Alwehaibi, 2012; Burris &Garton, 2006; Davidson, 1998). Another important phenomenon gained attention in research related to learners' success is personality trait. Individuals with different personality traits have unique thoughts, feelings and behaviors leads to individual differences in behaviors (Salgado , 1997; Salgado, 2002; . Despite the significant roles that critical thinking and personality trait have as factors creating individual differences, few studies have explored their relationship to learning comprehension. In this regard, the present study investigated the possible predictability power of critical thinking and personality trait and reading comprehension.

2. Review of Literature

2.1. Critical thinking

Critical thinking ability is a higher-order thinking skills which permits reasoning the unknown ideas and situations. Thinking critically helps students to analyze objects in an open-minded way, monitor opinions from different angles, examine their personal world view, and, infer the opinion of others (Davidson & Dunham, 1997). According to Halpern (1998), critical thinking is "the ability to analyze, synthesize, and evaluate information as well as the disposition to apply these abilities. As a higher-order cognitive ability, critical thinking is important for individuals to make decisions in their career, personal and public lives" (p. 24). Similarly, Paul and Elder (2008) stated that critical thinking allows students to make complicated

choices in their personal, academic, and social lives. According to Dewey (1933), learning to think is the central goal of education. Critical thinker demonstrates a progress in skill to reflect critically, communicate efficiently and find solution for problems.Robin Bell*, Mark Loon (2014)state that the relationship between students' critical thinkingdisposition and their learning while engaging in a business simulation at a UK highereducation institution (HEI). The research informs educators making decisions about the use of simulations as to the value of considering critical thinking dispositions.Damián Gelersteina, Rodrigo del Ríob,(2016)belive that tThe importance of critical thinking in education is underpinned by decades of theoreticaland practical work. Differences have been demonstrated between students who receiveeducation in this area from an early age and those who do not. However, not enough workhas been done to measure these skills in a classroom setting. Scott A. DeWaelsche (2015) belive that explores the viability of higher-level questioning in student-centered activi-ties to elevate critical thinking and increase student engagement among Korean universityEnglish majors. The author examines research that identifies limitations for Korean studentsassociated with their reluctance to speak or share opinions in class due to socioculturalinfluences in the classroom.

According to Kanik (2010), critical thinking skill encompasses:

a set of information and belief generating and processing skills,

1. the disposition to use those skills to guide behavior (p. 19).

Regarding L2 learning, Dressel and Mayhew (1954) argued that critical thinking assists learners to understand the subject matter and apply the knowledge in related contexts. In one meta-analysis by Hornstein and Garvan (2013), hierarchical linear model was applied to explore potential predicators of the variance across effect size on the effect of critical thinking teaching on learners' language achievement. Findings of the study revealed that critical thinking teaching interventions are effective and lead to improvement in students' critical thinking skills and their language performances.

2.2. Personality traits

Personality traits refer to an individual's particular pattern of thoughts, feelings, and behaviors. Moreover, personality comes our form within the individuals and is constant over life. Wtink and Nelson (2014) provided the most comprehensive taxonomy for describing and examining personality. The taxonomy includes 1) Openness to experience, 2) Conscientiousness, 3) Extraversion, 4) Agreeableness, 5) Neuroticism. In one study, Hudson and Roberts (2014) explored the correlation between goals to change and personality trait. The results of the study revealed that most individuals tend to change aspects of their personalities, and that these desires are organized around the big-five personality dimensions. Moreover, it was found that change goals were related to theoretically relevant predictors, including life satisfaction and current personality traits. In three subsequent daily–diary studies, they found that change goals were discriminate from more generalized trait-relevant motives, and that change goals were negatively correlated with daily behavior, to the extent that traits and behavior covered. Laurence Fiddick , Gary L. Brase (2016) state that major personality traits are systematically associated with social regulation response tendencies. Specifically, the adaptive function of specific traits from 'Big-Five' and HEXACO models were evaluated in terms of how they are understood and utilized in predicting the behaviors of others. In another study, Pantone, Michael and Ashton (2013) attempted to replicate a previous study in which they showed that lower level personality trait measures related to achievement motivation predicted the academic success of university students. Besides, the study explored that such lower-level traits were frequently superior to broader personality factors for accuracy in prediction. According to Pantone, Michael and Ashton (2013), collecting small personality measures into broad factor measures have a negative effect with respect to the predication and understanding of important outcomes, particularly learners' language achievement. Several studies about critical thinking and learning comprehension, (Hashemi & Ghanizade, 2014) in critical discourse analysis and thinking research, study the effects of critical discourse analysis and thinking on students. Shinnick (2012) in human patient simulation on critical thinking and its predictors in prelicensure nursing student's research that improves knowledge. Chan (2012) in critical thinking and creativity in nursing, study explored nursing student's perception towards critical thinking and creativity. Wltink and Nelson (2014) in relationship between personality traits and psychotic suggested that this relationship may be partly accounted for by higher level of depression in individual with certain personality traits. Mondolia and

Walker (2014) study the effect of personality traits on subject choice and performance in high school research. While considerable studies have investigated the correlation between different aspects of personality on different skills, few studies investigated the correlation between personality traits and reading comprehension. So, this study tried to fill the gap by examining the correlation between personality trait, critical thinking and reading comprehension.

1. How much of the variance in reading comprehension can be explained by personality traits and critical thinking?
2. Which is a better predictor of reading comprehension: Personality traits or critical thinking?

3. Methodology

3.1. Participants

A total of 60 intermediate EFL learners were randomly (through simple random sampling) selected from among 200 intermediate language learners enrolled in two language centers in Iran. There were both males (n=30) and females (n=30). Their ages ranged from 18 to 20. All of the participants had studied English for a minimum of three years. None of them had ever been to an English-speaking country and they all confirmed that they do not use English for communicative purposes outside the classroom. Before the study, the researcher administered a reading comprehension test (TOEFL 2009) to select homogenous participants. Following homogenizing students, 50 learners were selected for this study.

3.2. Instruments

In this study, the following questionnaires were used in order to evaluate personality trait characteristics, critical thinking ability, and reading comprehension:

3.2.1. Personality trait questioner

Personality trait questioner, developed by Caspy (2005) were employed in this study. This questionnaire includes five sections: 17 items about conscientiousness, 19 items about extraversion aspect of personality trait, 15 items about agreeableness, 14 items about neuroticism, and 18 items about openness to experience.

3.2.2. Critical Thinking questionnaire

To explore students' critical thinking ability, the questionnaire by Watson and Glaser (2002) was adopted. The questionnaire includes 16 items about interference, 16 items about recognizing unstated assumption, 13 items about deduction, 15 items about interpretation and 15 items about evaluation of arguments.

3.2.3. Reading comprehension test

To test learners' reading comprehension, a TOEF reading test (TOEFL, 2010) was applied. The test includes three short reading comprehension text with 21 items and two long reading comprehension with 12 items.

3.3. Procedures

After a brief explanation to the participant about the way of filling the questionnaires, the researcher distributed the two questionnaires (i.e. critical thinking and personality trait) among the participants. After one week interval, the researcher administered a reading comprehension test (TOEFL 2010) to examine students' reading comprehension level. After administrating the instruments, data were collected and coded for statistical analysis. The researcher used standard Multiple Regression to examine the predictability power of personality traits and critical thinking on reading comprehension.

4. Results

The purpose of this study was to examine the predictability of personality trait and critical thinking on reading comprehension. This part provides the statistical results of learners' responses to the personality traits and critical thinking questionnaires and their reading comprehension performances. In this study, it was hypothesized that variance in reading comprehension cannot be explained by personality traits and critical thinking ability. Standard multiple regression (Table 1) was performed to examine the predictability power of personality traits and critical thinking on reading comprehension, as the outcome variable.

Table 2: Standard multiple regression for personality traits, critical thinking and reading test

Model Summary

Model	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Estimate of the
1	.68	.67	1.64051

a. Predictors: (Constant), Critical Thinking, Personality Trait

According the results, both personality traits and critical thinking significantly and highly (67%) predict Iranian EFL students' reading performances (R^2= 0.68, p=0.00). The adjusted R^2 value of 0.68 indicates that 68% of the variability in reading comprehension is explained by personality traits and critical thinking.

Table.1: Standard multiple regressions for personality trait, critical thinking and reading test.

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
		Std. Error	Beta	t	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1		1.247		10.850 .000	11.020	16.037
Personality Trait	.663	.045		14.585 .000	.572	.755
Critical Thinking	.559	.108		5.187 .000	.775	.342

a. Dependent Variable: Reading Test

Based on this results, both critical thinking and personality trait noteworthy aid Iranian learners to achieve better reading comprehension. However, it should be mentioned that personality trait (b=0.66) is a better predicator for the students' reading achievement than critical thinking (b=0.55). With respect to the first research question, the result revealed that there is difference between personality trait and critical thinking in predicting students' reading comprehension; the predication is in favor of personality trait.

5. Discussion and Conclusion

The main purpose of this study was to explore the extent to which critical thinking and personality traits significantly predict reading comprehension of EFL learners. Findings of the study revealed that about 68% of variability in reading comprehension can be accounted for by the mode. In addition, both personality traits and critical thinking significantly and highly predict Iranian EFL students' reading performances. It was also indicated that personality traits is a better predicator of reading skills as

compared to critical thinking. The results of this study is in line with that of Pitt, Powis and Hunter (2014) which showed that there was a positive correlation among critical thinking scores, academic performance and students' risk of failing, especially in the first semester of study. Concerning the implications of the study, the results of this study indicated that critical thinking and personality traits have significant effect on learners' reading comprehension. Critical thinking is an important skill which helps learners to be a better examiners of situation. Thus, teachers are required to encourage earners to think well. In doing so, learners should practice regularly; they need to regularly practice good thinking to become good thinkers. Moreover, teachers should increase students' awareness of critical thinking skills. Instructors emphasize the importance of beginning to take charge of the parts of thinking and applying intellectual standards to thinking. They must teach students to begin to recognize their native egocentrism when it is operating in their thinking. With respect to personality trait, teachers should help learners to be more open to different world views, tend to consider different aspects of ideas and consider the positive and negative aspects. The results of the research show that students with high critical thinking and personality traits are successful in reading comprehension. For this study policy makers and syllables designers should encourage aspects of personality trait and critical thinking that have more effects on reading comprehension. The findings of this study reinforce the belief that instructional interventions are generally effective in fostering students' critical thinking skills, as supported by numerous studies .This is encouraging for educators searching for effective ways to promote this higher order thinking ability. This study has some limitations that can suggest future research recommendations. The current study was probably the first study conducted in Iran that studies the Relationship between Personality Traits, Critical Thinking, and Reading Comprehension of Iranian EFL Learners. In This study nonrandom sampling was used. Age and sex were not taken in to account. And it would have also been better if the study had been done in two or three cities.

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THE CONFORMITY BETWEEN THE EVALUATION METHODS OF ENGLISH AND THE IRANIAN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS` LINGUISTIC NEEDS

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ABSTRACT
EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS ARE IN CONSTANT NEED OF DECISIONS TO BE MADE AS TO THE EFFECTIVENESS OF THE PROGRAM. TEACHERS ARE THE MAIN USERS OF THIS INFORMATION, PRIMARILY TO MAKE DECISIONS ABOUT ONGOING INSTRUCTION, ABOUT STUDENTS' CURRENT LEARNING NEEDS, INSTRUCTIONAL ACTIVITIES AND SO ON. LEGITIMATE AND TRUSTWORTHY PROGRAM EVALUATION STUDIES OF TEACHERS AND STUDENTS DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS ARE ESSENTIAL FOR EDUCATION IN GENERAL AND FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING IN PARTICULAR. WHAT CAN BE WITNESSED AS A MAJOR MODEL ALL OVER THE LITERATURE ON PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT IS THAT, ONLY PARTIAL AWARENESS IS GIVEN TO EVALUATING THE PROGRAM IN SPITE OF THE FACT THAT A LOT OF VALUE IS DEDICATED TO THE PROGRAM DESIGN AND ITS EXECUTION PROCESS. TO BE USEFUL AND EFFECTIVE, ANY EVALUATION REQUIRES PLANNING. ALDERSON AND GENESEE ON THE ONE HAND AND UPSHUR ON THE OTHER, MAINTAIN THAT THE RESULT OF ASSESSMENT CAN BE USED BY DIFFERENT PEOPLE FOR DIFFERENT PURPOSES. THESE ASSESSMENTS CAN MEASURE THE MATCH BETWEEN THE NEEDS OF LEARNERS AND THE EVALUATION SCHEME, WHICH IS THE RESULT OF A PROGRAM EVALUATION AND THE VERY TOPIC UNDER STUDY HERE. THE SAMPLE POPULATION IN THIS STUDY CONSISTED OF THE STUDENTS AGED 13 TO 15 AND INCLUDED BOTH MALES AND FEMALES AND THEIR RESPECTIVE TEACHERS. A CIPP-BASED QUESTIONNAIRE WAS USED IN THIS STUDY. THE DATA COLLECTED THROUGH THE QUESTIONNAIRES WERE COMPILED AND THE STATISTICAL PACKAGE FOR THE SOCIAL SCIENCES [SPSS] 21.0 WAS EMPLOYED TO ANALYZE THE DATA. THE CHI SQUARE RESULT INDICATED DISCONFORMITY OF THE STUDENTS` EVALUATION METHODS WITH THEIR LINGUISTIC NEEDS.

KEY WORDS: PROGRAM EVALUATION, STUDENTS` LINGUISTIC NEEDS, ACHIEVED KNOWLEDGE, IRAN`S JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL, STUDENT EVALUATION

Introduction

Educational programs are in constant need of decisions to be made as to the effectiveness of the program. In every context, educational or non-educational ones, the positive feeling as a result of accomplishing a task known as satisfaction is a sufficiently interesting subject which means that the learners goals and also needs have been met. To help educationalists and stakeholders revise and reconsider the context of education and the decisions, students' satisfaction information can present good hints (Witowski, 2008). To make the program more efficient, researchers should evaluate the program repeatedly and regularly (Aman, 2009). This can be materialized through using direct performance criterions such as comprehensive exams or by indirect ones like students' satisfaction with the curriculum (Jamelske, 2009). To be useful and effective, any evaluation requires planning. Alderson (1992) and Genesee and Upshur (1996) maintain that the result of assessment can be used by different people for different purposes. Teachers are the main users of this information, primarily to make decisions about ongoing instruction, about students' current learning needs, instructional activities and so on. As cited by Mal Amiri (2008), Alderson and Scott (1992) believe that both insiders and outsiders should be involved at all stages in the process. However, as Alderson (1992) points out, there are situations where it is acceptable that an outsider be asked to evaluate a program. He believes that the content of any evaluation must relate to its purpose. There is a wide range of content that an evaluation can focus on, like the learning outcomes of the program, or attitudes to the language, its speakers and culture, etc. Alderson (1992) asserts that how one is to evaluate will depend upon what is to be evaluated. There is no one-to-one relationship between the content and the method of evaluation.

Legitimate and trustworthy program evaluation studies of teachers and students development programs are essential for education in general and foreign language teaching in particular. What can be witnessed as a major model all over the literature on professional development is that, only partial awareness is given to evaluating the program in spite of the fact that a lot of value is dedicated to the program design and its execution process. This is problematic since evaluation is a fundamental module in specifying the advantages of any professional development process. This discrepancy is ascribed to the stakeholders by Guskey (2000), in which it is believed that evaluation as waste of time and considering its impact as trivial on the daily tasks. Dufour and Eaker (1998) believe most of evaluation efforts lack a strong structure and framework in design and planning and are far from meaningfulness. Just mere perceptions of "happiness quotient" are quoted inadequately. Guskey (2000, p.92) puts it clearly:

A lot of good things have been done in the name of professional development; so have a lot of rotten things. What professional developers have not done is provide evidence to document the difference between the good and the rotten. Evaluation is the key, not only making those distinctions, but also to explaining how and why they occurred. To do this, we must recognize the important summative purposes that evaluation serves, as well as its vital planning and formative purposes.

Schools are required to get involved in systematic and ongoing evaluation of programs which may provide relevant information for the policy making educational authorities.

Program evaluation produces a sort of formative feedback that helps the implementation of the curriculum as it was intended (Madaus G.F. & Stufflebeam 2002). It simultaneously assists the administrators of the curriculum to see if they are progressing in the path which was anticipated and determined by the objectives, and whether the learners themselves are satisfied with the course outcome. Without effective evaluation, the program staff may fail to document important impacts the program has on its participants (Llosa, & Slayton, 2009). It may also fail to recognize how different components in the program are affecting the participants or participating institutions. In addition, evaluation helps focus staff `s efforts and project resources on the specific goals of the program. Without written goals and specific objectives, the staff members often direct their individual efforts toward slightly different goals, thereby reducing the efficiency of the overall program. Program evaluation has long been a useful technical tool for determining if programs are meeting their stated goals. Specialists submit reports that help administrators to decide changes in curriculum content or direction.

An Analysis of Students` Need

Among the key concepts underlying the considerations of curriculum that are believed to be essentially fundamental is the application of the principles of students` needs analysis. The notion of taking learners' needs into consideration, which has evolved in a close tie with the instruction of

language courses for specific purposes, better known as the ESP, came into vogue in the 1970s as a result of the interest in providing language programs which had the capability of satisfying learners` personal and societal needs (Martínez, 1992). Later in 1978, the CNP model by Munby was proposed to the world. This, being a very strong and persuasive model, suggested that if a design is going to work properly, needs of the learners should be incorporated into it and certainly analyzed carefully. What Munby tried to do was related to the linguistic aspects of the learners; however, Mayo in 2002 insisted on adding and including other features to the list of desired characteristics. When stakeholders are informed about the needs the learners might have, they will be able to enhance both the content to be taught and the potential goals of the course. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) mentioned that the sophisticated mission of needs analysis has to consider and/ or differentiate between target needs and learning needs. The former refers to what the learner aims at performing in the real life circumstances. The latter takes into account the strategies that help the learners to learn. What has been mentioned covers the objective aspect of the learners` needs, while, as Nunan (1988) believes, in a more modern methodology learners` subjective information should be recorded and attended to. That aspect will include affection and feeling, their interests, needs, and preferences. To achieve what we need to carry out the analysis, information is obtainable through numerous tools as proposed by Martinez (1994). As mentioned below in this article, surveys, language tests, questionnaire, content analysis, observation, etc. can be used as the tools for achieving the essential data. Something which is extremely important to bear in mind is that what is done as a needs analysis is not just a preparatory stage in designing a course syllabus; as a matter of fact, this continues during the study and through the whole business. As White (1998) continues it can be an evaluation technique too for enhancing language courses.

In an attempt to explain the process of needs analysis, Brown strives to convey an established and widely acknowledged description and delineation of needs analysis by stating that it involves gathering the data which play a substantial role in evolving a curriculum which helps the realization of students` learning objectives and needs(1995, p.35). Needs analysis has also been touched upon by other scholars and researchers in much the same way. To Richards (1983), for instance, needs analysis assists to obtain the three main objectives of a) providing a gateway to acquire a more extensive input into the content, its scheme and application of the language instruction b) proliferating it in goal setting and content selection c) paving the way for continual revision and assessment of the instructional course. Richards (2001, p52) further noted and illustrated that needs analysis serves multiple purposes among which the following can be mentioned:

-distinguishing the necessary skills students need to assume a social role such as manager, teacher, nurse in the real authentic world,

- to specify if the current program satisfies the needs of the learners sufficiently,
- specifying who needs what kind of training more than other students in a course regarding the skills,
- Respecting the need for changes that are felt urgent and significant by the participants,
- determining the gap between learners` present level and what they are supposed to reach, and
- gathering data regarding the obstacles which students face up with throughout the course.

It is very profitable to think of developing a scheme to perform needs analysis. Experts such as Robinson buttressed the idea of performing needs analysis; however, they tended to merge their emphasis on both the learners` needs and the course objectives (1991, p. 3). This will facilitate the future real world performance of the learners.

The idea that needs are multidimensional and are of a dynamic nature has been stressed by Graves (2000, p. 98- 100). He further noted that as long as needs analysis forms a constant part of classrooms and educational programs, it can facilitate learning and developing a source of authority in the learners to manage their own learning process through identifying their needs at different stages of learning.

As can be estimated from the above discussion, the proliferation of needs analysis and benefitting from its findings can be done at different stages, namely before, during, and even after the course begins. The knowledge about the assets available to the learners, their goals and what their favorites can be are the pieces of information revealed by the needs analysis done prior to the beginning of the course. Occurring during the course, this process can confirm or disconfirm whether things are going on as they were planned, and in the case of disapproval is that methodology, assessment or even the resources

which are responsible for learners' failure or attainment of goals. All the above necessitates a careful and well planned procedure. In so doing, a few suggestions were made by Brown (1995). He contends that a sound procedure must follow the procedure of a) making substantial decision to initiate the process, b) data collection and c) using the information (p. 36). The first phase of the procedure requires the policy makers and stakeholders to make major decisions regarding the participants, what sort of information is expected, the viewpoints, how to merge and interrelate the viewpoints and theoretical aspects of the course. Brown(1995) stated that four more groups of people are engaged in the story, that is the needs analysis. The target group is the first. It refers to the people from which the information is supposed to be collected which is usually the students, though teachers and administrators might be involved, too. Next is the audience. This embraces the people ultimately required to follow the upshots of the analysis and benefit from it in one way or another. Third comes the analysts themselves. All those who tie up themselves in the factual process of analysis. Who these people will be hinges on the nature and certain steps taken in the process. These may be instructors from universities who play the role of advisors. This partnership makes the process more workable and achievable. Finally, there is the resource group. Considering the situation, this group is a very heterogeneous one and may range from family member to even future employers.

This model presented by Brown is rather sophisticated; however, with some minor variations, it could turn into a more feasible model.

This study aims at investigating the extent to which students feel happy when they are said to have finished the course and their needs are said to have been met. An all-inclusive program evaluation in Gilan`s Junior High School was carried out to find out if the evaluation methods, used during the three years of schooling are in line with learners` needs.

Research Question

Based on the last stage of CIPP, which is *product* the question "*Is there any conformity between the evaluation system of English and the students` linguistic needs in the Junior High School, as perceived by teachers?*" has been put forward.

Review of literature

Using Grave`s analogy (2000), a comprehensible definition for what constitutes the goal and objectives can be given (p. 75). He uses the analogy of a trip in which the trip itself is the educational course and the destination is the goal while objectives are the rest areas where people stop for a while. The final outcomes of a needs analysis form the cornerstones for the development of goals and objectives. In so doing, Brown (1995) proposes some consideration in devising the goals (p.71) when the needs are understood. First, he emphasized that the purposes should be general. He, next, mentioned that purposes should be futuristic and real-life based. Then he strives to say that goals help us set the objective, as well. Finally, he goes on saying that goals are of a dynamic nature and are not fixed. Confusion might have arisen by the above mentioning of goals and objectives. To distinguish between the two, Brown views goals as a more general concept and labels them as the final, anticipated, and achievable ends as far as the curriculum is regarded; whereas, objectives are more specific. Furthermore, certain knowledge, behavior and skills are expected as a result of illustrating the objectives. A learning outcome is specified in terms of objectives. In Richard`s words, "objectives are thought of as the changes which are expected to be brought about as a result of the instructional program" (2001, p. 122-3). In other words, objectives help operationalize the goals and let them become teachable. Once the objectives are attained, goals will be achieved, as well. It can be concluded that there is a causal relationship between objectives and goals in which the first causes the second. Graves also believes in generality of goals and specificity of objectives (2000). To further distinguish between goals and objectives, Brown (1995) believes the major distinction between them is the level of specificness. He continues to say that objectives are rather short term, and that the objectives constitute the goals.

Testing and Evaluation

Upon setting the objectives, testing should inevitably be the next concern in devising the curriculum (Brown, 1995). He contends that testing plays a substantial role since it can be used to make consecutive

decisions and changes in the program when the deficiencies have been revealed as a result of the evaluation system. From the above discussion on tests, it can be concluded that for the purpose of correction and developing the components of a curriculum, tests and testing play an invaluable part.

To have a sound and comprehensive assessment, some points have to be made clear. A definition of evaluation is mandatory here. It is claimed that three different types of evaluation are in vogue. The research on evaluation in intellectualization and planning of intervention is the first. Next is evaluation research proposed by Pancer and Westhues (1989). They believe that it is quite helpful to conceive of theorizing the educational program according to a series of developmental steps where different evaluation questions are addressed. It is now high time we talked about two types of evaluation. The first one in which the concentration is on the culpability takes place for the purpose of making sure the stakeholders have reached their ends in their program. However, the second type of evaluation is carried out to make sure things are on the right path and everyone including the learners and teachers are doing their jobs as expected to achieve the ends. The former is a summative evaluation and the latter is a formative one. Formative evaluation is developmental, complementary in nature, and has no precondition in its performance. Mackay (1994) stresses on the harmonizing and complementary nature of formative evaluation which will eventually provide the input for the summative evaluation. In the next section evaluation will be investigated with its various models among which CIPP is the selected model for the present study.

Performing CIPP Evaluations

The CIPP, which stands for context, input, process, and product, benefits from a checklist combined by Stufflebeam`s Model and the Joint Committee Program Evaluation checklist. Researchers can have their own versions of checklist or even follow this checklist without a question. It is composed of eight separate sections. At the beginning, it starts with elaborating and having a consensus for executing the study. The rest deals with designing and planning the four elements reflected in the acronym CIPP, impact, continuity, and transportability, and usefulness from which the last three are the components of the product evaluation. Based on what the needs are, these seven stages can be proliferated individually and selectively or concurrently and collectively. To put it in different words, evaluation in this model is regarded and treated a synonym for concurrence and liability (i.e. evaluation is considered as a comprehensively conducted undertaking). It is aimed at activating and directing a methodical and all-inclusive study that intends to assess the real world condition in which the evaluation takes place rather than in a laboratory or artificial situation. There is no question regarding the great contributions that Stufflebeam has made to the realm of program evaluation (Stufflebeam, 2003). He, however, recommends that within the enormous universe of evaluation model one can sometimes amalgam different models and arrive at the best and most appropriate one depending on the context of study.

Method

This study, in general, was to evaluate the effectiveness of Iran`s formal English teaching program in the province of Gilan from the instructors` and students` perspectives, and in particular, finding out if there is a match between students` linguistic needs and the evaluation methods used at school. The Stufflebeam`s (1971) CIPP (context, input, process, and product) evaluation model was used as the framework of the present study. Quantitative techniques of data collection was applied in this evaluation study. As for quantitative data, a self-reported questionnaire for students' needs analysis consisting of 15 items, a questionnaire on students` needs as perceived by teachers comprising of 15 items. To evaluate and analyze the data obtained through the questionnaire, descriptive and inferential statistics were used.

Participants

Since the present study was going to take place in the province of Gilan, Iran, the participants were students and teachers of Junior High Schools in the same province. The population in this study consisted of two separate groups. The first was the students aged 13 to 15 and included both males and females. The second group included teachers of the Junior High Schools in Gilan, both male and female. Generally, the sample size required for a survey partly depends on the statistical quality needed for

survey findings; this, in turn, relates to how the results will be used (Scheuren, 2004). Even so, there is no simple rule for sample size that can be used for all surveys. Much depends on the professional and financial resources available (ibid). Analysts maintain that a moderate sample size is sufficient statistically and operationally.

Five hundred students and one hundred teachers, out of whom five teachers were left out for their personal reasons, were **randomly selected schools** throughout thirteen cities in the province of Gilan. The students and teachers, who were considered to form the population of this study, were chosen through **cluster sampling** procedure. The student participants were both boys and girls with age range between thirteen and fifteen. The students in Iran at the Junior High School level do not study any special field of science; they receive general education. Cluster sampling is a probability sampling in which making random sampling is more practical especially when the target population is widely dispersed (Dornyei, 2007). The dispersion in this study might be due to many factors such as the geographical location, students` entry level of knowledge, that is, their background knowledge in English, and also teachers` teaching experience which may vary from one to several years. Since the subjects were all Junior High School students and their teachers, such factors as age and sex were not accounted for in this study.

3.6 Instrumentation

As it has become evident so far, the present researcher intended to investigate and evaluate the Junior High School English evaluation methods in Gilan by using CIPP. To do so, a CIPP-based questionnaire was needed right at the beginning of the study. This became possible by using the ideas and views of experts in the field of education in general and language teaching and learning in particular. Some other CIPP-based questionnaires that had previously been used such as the ones by Birjandi and Nosratinia (2009) and Karatash (2011) were also consulted by the researcher. The questionnaires were designed with some subcategories consisting language needs, course book content, pedagogic tasks, and students` satisfaction from the program. The questionnaires were given to both students and teachers but with different

The student questionnaires were all prepared in their native Persian, so that respondents would feel more comfortable in expressing their ideas precisely

Questionnaire

After an extensive study of the literature, the data collection instrument, namely the questionnaires, was developed by the researcher himself. The researcher made an inclusive examination about the points posed through the analysis of the related articles, books, journals and theses conducted both in Iran and worldwide. Afterwards, in accordance with the relevant literature, the researcher designed a self-reported questionnaire for the students

Upon the researcher`s developing the questionnaire, it was evaluated by four English instructors and one statistics expert from the Department of Foreign Languages of Tabriz and Astara Islamic Azad Universities so as to ensure its content and face validity. Thirty students, who did not attend in the sampling, participated in a pilot testing, once the views of the professors were considered, to measure the reliability coefficient using alpha Cronbach`s Alpha.

Procedure

To gather data in such studies different techniques can be employed. These include asking the learners themselves through interviews or questionnaire, each of which is accompanied with merits and demerits. Interviews are greatly susceptible to being subjective and personal and therefore so varied from learner to learner. Consulting the teachers is also very time consuming. Other ways consist of reading the manuals and observing the classrooms where language instruction is taking place. However collected, such data will work as the foundation for designing a curriculum and framework for teaching that includes course objectives, methodology to be used, learner needs, course book and the tasks to be implemented. In this study, however, quantitative data were collected for evaluation purpose. Quantitative research is one of the research methodologies relying heavily on numbers in reporting results, sampling and provision of estimated instrument, reliability and validity. Similarly, quantitative researchers seek to establish relationships between variables and look for and sometimes explain the causes of such relationships (Fraenkel and Wallen, 2005).

To gather the data, the researcher-made questionnaire was piloted, consequently validated. Its reliability concerns also had to be determined through the pilot study of the questionnaires as well. As it was mentioned before, previously produced questionnaires such as the ones applied by Birjandi and Nosratinia (2009) and Karatash (2011) were used to form new questionnaires to elicit information from both students and the teachers. To get the information needed, it was essential to get the permission from the Education Organization in Rasht, the capital city of Gilan province. After determining the nature of the questions, the researcher prepared the final draft of the questionnaires to be delivered. Getting the consent of the teachers was another step before the questionnaires were delivered to both teachers and students. Then the questionnaires were presented to the participants of this study by either the researcher or by the team cooperating with him. The participants in turn were required to fill and return the questionnaire to the researcher and his team. Using SPSS software the data were analyzed and findings were reported.

3.8 Data Analysis

The data collected through the questionnaires were compiled and the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences [SPSS] 21.0 program was employed to analyze the data. The students' answers in the questionnaire were examined for abnormalities and missing data. Since the data gathered from 9 students who participated in the study were incomplete, they were excluded from the analysis. Subsequently, the data were analyzed through both descriptive and inferential statistics.

To begin with, the researcher used descriptive statistics to describe the identified features of the data in the study. The frequencies, means, percentages, and standard deviations for the items were demonstrated. The researcher also employed inferential statistics to find out if any meaningful differences among variables existed.

In an attempt to answer question of the present study, i.e. *Is there any conformity between the evaluation system of English and the students` linguistic needs in the Junior High School?*, Chi square test was used to measure the compatibility and conformity between the evaluation systems employed in junior high schools and students` needs as perceived by the students. With the degree of freedom of 1 and the probability level of .05 the chi-square statistic achieved is 9.76, which is significant. Table 4.21 next page shows the quantitative findings.

Table 4.21 Conformity between the Evaluation System of English and Learner`s Needs as Perceived by Students

	Compatible	Incompatible	*Row Totals*
Interview	29	66	95
Monolog	44	51	95
Role Play	32	63	95
Listen and Write	25	70	95
Read and Write	36	59	95
Column Totals	166	309	475 (Grand Total)

5 Discussion and the Summary of the Findings.

This section presents the results of the study under the product component of CIPP introduced by Stufflebeam. Table 4.1 above shows the findings of the study in terms of the four dimensions of evaluation separately.

In this section, the product component of the evaluation was analyzed through the students' perception of the evaluation system in schools, its relevance with the course book content, pedagogical tasks and activities, and students` needs. All showed inconsistency and insufficiency between the students` linguistic needs and the evaluation system in Junior High Schools.

Every one of us should keep in mind that if something fits to all programs and all sorts of need types will not necessarily be a good element to be included in the educational program. That, of course, can be extended to all aspects of human life and not necessarily limited to educational contexts. In second or foreign language contexts a clearly designed curriculum, either by the ministry of education or

institutionally prepared, usually sheds light on the path of teachers and learners. This framework should however be far from unorganized decisions, teachers` preferences and the current biases. In so doing, three elements should be taken into account. These three points have always been the aspiring questions for teachers and authorities in education in general and for language teachers and policy makers in particular. They include *who?, how?,* and *what?* They, respectively, refer to learners and teachers, teaching methodology, and the course book. If one chooses the immediately available book in the market which is regarded as the most favorable by the people but not suitable for a certain age group with their specific need types, the whole program may face a complete breakdown. Even the methodology that does not fit the goals and objectives of the course or the learners may yield the same disappointing result. The so called functional notional syllabus that is designed for early or elementary or intermediate foreign language teaching, can prove irrelevant if the course is planned for a short term intensive type of program. In devising any educational course, needs analysis which intends to attain various type of information about learners and their objectives seems to be inevitable. Needs analysis which was first intended for ESP programs, gained reputation in the 80s and later became more popular in other general courses as well. As mentioned above in today`s educational courses, especially language courses, needs analysis is a corner stone and a fundamental step. This technique requires controlling both the current and future circumstances. In regards with the situations mentioned above facts about the learners such as the followings must be taken into accounts. Needless to mention that these are closely tied with the learner characteristics. These factors include socio-economical context in which learners have been brought up, their educational records, age range of learners and perhaps even their jobs, current linguistic knowledge of the learners and what they knew in the past. It is also important to notice if the present and past knowledge suffer from a gap or not, what styles and tasks the learners prefer, their time preferences, their talent and incentives. We must not forget that there need to be a reconciliation among students` goals, the stakeholders` expectations and the state or institutional program for teaching; therefore a wider and more comprehensive analysis of the context of education becomes inevitable. This study has proven that the inclusion of foreign language teaching in the school programs requires some careful considerations such as class duration, learner needs, a scheme for formative or summative assessment, existing resources, and a criterion for acceptability all of which compatible with the learner`s needs.

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IRANIAN STUDENTS' ATTITUDE TOWARDS THE IMPLEMENTATION OF CRITICAL PEDAGOGY

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ABSTRACT
REGARDING THE IMPORTANCE OF CRITICAL PEDAGOGY IN TODAY'S WORLD AND IN ELT SETTING, THE MAIN CONCERN OF THE PRESENT STUDY IS TO INVESTIGATE IRANIAN STUDENTS' PERCEPTION TOWARD APPLYING CRITICAL PEDAGOGY IN A READING CLASS. FORTY-TWO FRESHMAN STUDENTS COMPLETED A WRITTEN QUESTIONNAIRE ABOUT THEIR INTUITIONS TO THE IMPLEMENTATION OF CRITICAL PEDAGOGY. THE RESULTS SHOW THAT MOST PARTICIPANTS HAD POSITIVE PERCEPTION TOWARD THE COURSE. FIVE MAJOR POSITIVE AND TWO NEGATIVE THEMES WERE TAKEN OUT FROM DATA ANALYSIS OF STUDENTS' PERCEPTION QUESTIONNAIRE. SINCE MOST PARTICIPANTS HAD POSITIVE PERCEPTION TOWARD APPLICATION OF CRITICAL PEDAGOGY, IT IS SUGGESTED THAT LANGUAGE TEACHERS IN IRAN PAY GREATER ATTENTION TO RESHAPE THE AVAILABLE RESOURCES TO APPLY DIFFERENT DEGREES OF CRITICAL PEDAGOGY IN THEIR OWN CLASSES.

KEYWORDS: ATTITUDE, CRITICAL PEDAGOGY, Critical Reading, PROBLEM POSING EDUCATION

1. Introduction

In the 21st century, Critical Pedagogy (CP) which empowers the voice of learners and inspire critical consciousness (Cho, 2006) by guiding learners to discover problem, critically think and take actions on these problems (Wink, 2000) is regarded as one of the most crucial attributes of success. In higher education, also, critical pedagogy has gained momentum. In fact, a new perspective towards education has been inaugurated in the postmodern era. Postmodern educators all over the world have been concerned with a kind of education which can equip the learners with tools for a better life. The aim of education has been shifted towards developing lifelong learners who are not mere recipients of knowledge but who think critically, are curious about norms and facts, try to question the social relations and feel the instability, contingency and diversity in the world (Eagleton, 1996). Good education must be targeted towards justice, liberation, and political transformation. Kimura-Walsh (2010) also stated that "Higher education institutions must be conscientious members of society by engaging in socially responsible activities and advocating for social justice throughout the world" (p. 540). Today, the core principle of questioning and rectifying ones' own belief and reasoning is still influential in the application of CP and critical thinking. At the advent of the modern era of education, Dewey also accentuated the key role of critical pedagogy and thinking in discovering meaning.

2. Problem Posing Education

The primary contribution of Freire is methodological one which distinguishes banking education from problem posing education. In traditional education, classes are teacher-centered and teachers are the only source of knowledge and they know everything and students know nothing. Teachers inject knowledge in students without asking them to raise question about that knowledge. The main authority is teacher who selects the content and students are obedient and only comply with it. Learners in this model are passive and consumers of knowledge. They receive, memorize and repeat whatever a teacher says. They are never asked to make relation between this knowledge and the current problems and inequalities and injustices in society to boost society. According to McLaren and Leonard (1993) Freire's philosophy was totally against the traditional social and political viewpoints and he emphasized the deconstruction of those known as "the oppressed", by calling for humanization of individuals which refers to human liberation.

According to Giroux (2010), personal experiences are the primary concerns in a critical pedagogy classroom because of providing learners with chances to personalize their answers, to relate what they learn to their social relations and their own experiences. According to Shor (1993), one of the key point of Freire's message is to invite teachers and students to compete and challenge "to empower themselves for social change, to advance democracy, and equality as they advance their literacy and knowledge" (p. 25).

According to Freire (1970), problem posing education includes critical intervention in reality, striving for the emergence of consciousness, and uncovering of reality. He believes that this awareness and consciousness give the chances to students to improve their life conditions. The model was based on the realities of students and their life circumstances. It gives people the right of questioning. Moreover, Nixon-Ponder (1995, as cited in Aliakbari & Faraji, 2011) holds that, the learner goes through five steps of problem posing including describing the content of discussion, defining the problem, personalizing the problem, discussing the problem, and discussing the alternatives of the problem. Freire and Macedo (2003) argue that an educational program should be more than learning how to read. In this way, a critical curriculum teaches learners to "read the world" while "read the word". By "reading the world" they imply preparing and assisting students to become aware of the differences between the world of culture and the world of nature while the world of nature is made by natural forces and cannot be changed by individuals, the world of culture is made by humans and undergoes changes (Sticht, 2006). Nowadays, CP is applied in diverse areas which can take as evidence for its significance for academic research.

3. Critical Reading Pedagogy

Reading as a general skill has gained momentum during the past four decades. Perhaps, one simple definition for reading as a general skill is the ability to understand written texts. However, reading needs the ability to go beyond the linguistic organization of the text to absorb the meaning. As Walker (2000) rightly points out, reading is and active process which calls for the application of several skills simultaneously.

However, possessing phonemic awareness, the ability to decipher new vocabulary presented in the reading texts, and decoding the linguistic structure do not guarantee success in the reading process. According to Grabe and Stoller (2001), reading comprehension is a complex phenomenon in which several processes interacting with each other. In addition to vocabulary, other factors including prior knowledge, meta-cognition, strategy use, syntax, and text structure also have effects on the process of reading comprehension. According to Lee (2009), background knowledge including topic awareness and cultural familiarity has been proved to be one of the more important factors of reading comprehension.

Comprehension highly depends on decoding the word meaning, assumptions, and the author's underlying lines of reasoning (Spache & Spache, 1969). In this sense, reading skill is at the helm of transforming students into long-term critical readers (Cogmen & Saracaloglu, 2009).

In this sense, reading comprehension is similar to critical reading. In other words, critical reading is just one type of reading comprehension, which is, "the process of simultaneously extracting and constructing meaning through interaction and involvement with the written language. It consists of three elements: the reader, the text, and the activity or the purpose of reading" (Rand Reading Study Group, 2002, p.11)

A critical pedagogical approach reading is the one which connect the word to real world which enable learners to be agent of social changes. Reading should not be used for the mere of exchanging of some information. Reading is a very complicated process in which other process such as language knowledge, cognitive processing and more importantly, life experiences are involved (Alderson & Urquhart, 1984).

4. Traditional Reading Instruction vs. Critical Pedagogical Reading Instruction

Traditional reading based instruction is the predominant approach used in Iranian EFL context in which students passively listen to the teacher who lectures and ask question from the students. The traditional reading class is an instructor-centered model. In this model the instructor provides and control content, while the students are more passive recipient of information. In traditional reading based classes the teacher or a student chosen by the teacher read the text aloud, then the teacher provides needed information. The teacher first clarifies the unfamiliar words and then ask some comprehension questions from the students. Each passage is followed by predetermined comprehension questions which do not normally require students to go beyond the text itself. The most common assignment for students is to ask them to paraphrase or summarize the passage and to memorize the new words along with their meaning. Discussions, further reading or writing about the topic are not so welcomed in these classes. The instructor is also responsible to conclude with comprehension questions concerning the text. In contrast in a critical pedagogical approach, the teacher is not the all knower who should transfer the knowledge to the students. He is the facilitator who help learners to construct their own knowledge. In critical pedagogy the teacher tries to relate the text to real word problems and encourages students to participate in classroom discussions. Freire (1970) criticizes top down decision making processes and encourage teachers to give students ownership of the class rules. Determining the rules gives students the feeling of power and control over their own learning environment and this will prepare them for social responsibilities outside the classroom.

5. Research Question:

This study aims at investigating Iranian students' attitudes towards the implementation of CP. To this end the following research question was formulated.

What are Iranian students' attitude towards applying the principles of critical pedagogy in a reading class?

6. Method

6.1 Participants

The participants of this study were 42 students in a general English class in Mazandaran State University. Most students had only studied compulsory English courses at school, only a few students attended private English institutes and were able to communicate in English. Participants were all native speakers of Farsi and aged between 18-26.

6.2 Instruments

To learn about students' attitude towards critical pedagogical approach, a perception questionnaire was used at the end of course. The students were supposed to answer the questions regarding their feelings and attitude about classroom practices, and how they saw the class different from other ELT courses. In order to help students to freely express their attitudes and feel at ease, they were allowed to write in Farsi. To analyze the data, the questionnaires were then thematically analyzed. First the researcher found out the major themes and then classified them into destructive and constructive themes. The findings are reported qualitatively.

6.3 Procedure

At the beginning of the course, students were introduced about the principles of CP and were informed that the class is different from the traditional reading classes they had before. CP completely rejects any top-down decision making and encourages teachers to make decision in collaboration with their students. In pursuing the goals, the course follows a negotiated syllabus in which the content of the course and the evaluation procedures were chosen by mutual involvement of both teacher and students. Tuan (2011) mentioned that a negotiated syllabus can increase students' motivation and success, because it takes into account learners' needs and interests. The teacher introduced the course book "Active Skills for Reading; book 2 and 3" in the first session, students were supposed to buy the books and think of their interested topics at home, then in the second session, students and teacher worked together to reach an agreement

on the course content. The topics were negotiated in the class and students voted on them based on their interests and social, cultural and personal relevance. Students also offer their suggestions for the distribution of final grades and class activities. The students believed that the overall course performance should not be measured only by cross sectional evaluations such as mid-term and final exams. They wanted to devote 50% of their final grades to class activities. Students also accepted to read the passages at home and come to class prepared. It was also determined to devote 15% of the final grades to class attendance, punctuality and meeting deadlines for assignments. And to reinforce students empowering, students were free in choosing their pairs for group work. Students were also convinced to have 20-minute group work prior to each class session. Besides the chosen passages from the books the group was supposed to find appropriate materials relevant to the topics covered the previous week and prepare themselves for critical discussion about the topic. The class time was divided into three parts. First the class started with a group discussion of the previous session topic. In the second part, there was a general discussion about the new reading passage. The students were supposed to read the passage before attending the class; therefore, this part of class time was devoted to the general debate of the topic and clarification of possible any misunderstanding or difficulties students may have faced. The third part of the class time was spent on critical challenges of the passage they talked about, whether they favored or opposed the position of the author towards the topic. It was also tried to relate the topics to students' everyday life and encouraged students to offer possible solutions for the problems depicted in the passages. The students were given a perception questionnaire at the end of the course. The questionnaire was given to see whether they were satisfied with the new approach. Students were allowed to write the answers in Farsi.

7. Results

At the end of the semester, the students were surveyed about their perception towards the course. Students' perception about the course is one of the best methods in understanding and inquiring students' feelings about different experiences in academic settings. The students' answers were examined qualitatively to find out major themes and finally were classified into positive and negative themes. The analysis of students' perception questionnaires revealed 5 main constructive themes; democratic atmosphere of the class, benefits of using Farsi, improving reading and speaking skills, improving critical thinking and empowering students. Two destructive themes were also found, the first emphasized that the treatment was time consuming and the second negative theme mentioned that all voices were not heard. The major themes of the class are reported bellow. The participants' quotations were translated by the researcher.

7.1 Constructive Themes

a) Democratic Atmosphere of the Class

Almost all students expressed their satisfaction with the class atmosphere. Students were free to talk about their own experiences related to the topic. They could easily express their ideas. Students also appreciated the teacher for respecting students and allowing all students a time to speak. Although some students refused to participate in class discussion at the beginning of the course, they gradually started taking the floor and sharing their opinions with their classmates. Some of the ideas expressed by students are:

- *The class was really a democratic one; all students had an equal chance to speak.*
- *Although our ideas were sometimes extremely different, the teacher told us not to fight with each other and allow our friends to freely talk about their ideas*

Students also acknowledged their teacher's friendly relationship which created a comfortable atmosphere for them to speak. Having friendly relationship with students has been emphasized in CP. A critical teacher is not only the source of knowledge; he is the agent of social change to improve students' social and personal life. Of course, this would only take place if the class atmosphere is friendly and democratic.

- *I rarely get involved in any class discussions; but despite being afraid of speaking in class during first sessions, little by little I was motivated to talk, because the teacher did not judge you and your ideas as bad.*

- *The teacher was not just there to tell us what to do; she had good relations with students, even the weak one, that's why we could freely engage in class discussions.*

b) Benefits of Using Farsi

The dominant belief in ELT is the rejection of using L1 in language classes. Phillipson (1992) proposed "monolingual Fallacy" which maintains that students will learn the language better if the teacher does not use L1 and instead use English monolingually. In contrast, the proponents of CP believe that the cautious use of L1 not only does not inhibit students' language learning, but also can facilitate language learning. As Akbari (2008a) mentioned students' native language is just part of their identities and should not be at all neglected. As it is clear in the following extracts, students, especially the low proficient ones admired the use of Farsi in class discussions.

- *I was always quiet in English classes. I had a chance to speak in this class because I was allowed to talk about my opinion in Farsi.*
- *There is no room for maneuver of low language proficient students in English classes; however, this class was an exception. The teacher encourages even the weak ones to be involved in class discussions. She allowed students to speak Farsi whenever we could not communicate in English. This really helped me in reducing my anxiety when speaking.*

c) Developing Reading along with Speaking Skills

Although the main focus of the general English course was improving students' reading skills, since students were supposed to work in groups and be ready to engage in classroom discussion, this indirectly helped learners to improve their speaking skills as well. In addition, since learners were permitted to choose topics that they were interested in and were supposed to relate the topics to their own contexts, these factors increased students' motivation for participating in class discussion. This point has been emphasized by most participants.

- *I'm really satisfied with this class, because besides reading my speaking also improved.*
- *Since we were supposed to work in groups for discussing the topics, our speaking also improved.*
- *I've never thought I could speak English, but since the topics were really interesting for me, I was somehow forced to participate in discussions.*

d) Improving Critical Thinking

In CP teachers are supposed to foster students' critical thinking skills by actively participating in classroom discussions. Through dialogic interactions between teacher and students, most students claimed the class also increased their ability to think critically. Students believe that group discussions and class discussions helped them a lot to broaden their thinking ability, because they were supposed to reflect upon someone else's perspectives. In addition, they believed teacher's critical questions also helped them to improve critical thinking ability. This idea has been shown in the following quotations:

- *we were supposed to talk about the topics for the next class discussion in groups, this not only helped us to share our ideas but also encouraged us to think more deeply about the topic*
- *The teacher does not only follow the reading passages, she also helps us to see the text from our own personal perspective. She encourages us not to accept whatever we hear and discuss our personal views with our classmates.*
- *In reading the passages the teacher asked some important questions about the passage that forced me to think about it the whole week.*
- *The teacher forced us to think deeply about the text, and each group was supposed to talk about one aspects of the proposed topic.*

e) Empowering Students

Contrary to the traditional banking education, CP challenges the asymmetrical and unequal power relationship between teacher and students in academic settings. In traditional banking model, teacher is the absolute authority in the class and students are passive listeners; they are regarded as empty vessels to be filled with teachers' information. However, one of the main goals of CP is empowering both teachers and students. CP focuses on anti-authoritarian approach which seeks equal roles for both teachers and students. In this study the researcher tried to empower students by enabling them to decide

for themselves. Most students felt empowered for establishing class rules. Some students also claimed the class increases their self-confidence. Three students claimed that they felt empowered because they could freely talk about their university problems.

- *I think the course improved my self-confidence, because I could actively decide upon the class rules.*
- *This was the only class in which I could freely talk about our university problems. No one allows us to talk about these things. I think I have the power now to talk about our problems with university authorities.*
- *The class was really an amazing experience, because I found that I could control classroom decisions*

7. 2 Destructive Themes

The thematic analysis of students' perception questionnaire revealed two main destructive themes. These themes along with some examples are discussed below.

a) Time Consuming

The most obvious negative attitudes towards the implementation of CP, is its time consuming nature. Some students complained about the impracticality of class discussions which wasted their valuable class time. They believed instructor should put more time for improving students' language ability, not their communication ability. Below are some quotations emphasizing this notion:

- *I didn't like the class. I think the teacher wasted our valuable time by unimportant discussion.*
- *I didn't learn any valuable thing in this class. My language knowledge did not improve much. Instead of teaching grammatical points, the teacher was just asking students opinion about the topic.*
- *Was it a speaking class or a reading class? The teacher tried to improve students speaking ability rather than improving reading. On the other hand, since students were free to use their native language in class discussions, I think their speaking skills did not improve either.*

b) All Voices Were Not Heard

Although many students appreciated the chance they had in this course to talk about their ideas and interests, a few students pointed out that they couldn't find any opportunity to voice their ideas. They also questioned the teacher for her inability to control the talk time. They claimed that high proficient students had more chance to speak.

- *I know my English is not that good, but the teacher claimed that this course gives an opportunity to all students to speak. But I myself did not experience such opportunity. Although I raised my hand several times; I wasn't called upon to speak.*
- *There wasn't an equal opportunity for all students to express their ideas. Since no one really controls talk times, some students took all the class time and there was no time left for others to speak.*

8. Discussion

The analysis of the qualitative data revealed positive impact of implementation of critical pedagogical approach in reading comprehension. The implementation of CP principles changed the classroom atmosphere to gain desirable results. The findings coincide with Giroux's (1997) opinions that linking students' life experiences is what makes learning most effective and pleasant for both teacher and students. The authentic materials assist students in terms of relating their knowledge to the existing problems in society and act on the problems to improve the society. authentic materials represent the culture and can serve as the basis for classroom discussion and critical reflection of the culture.

Giroux (1997) also stressed the importance of using students' life experiences in increasing both their language and social awareness. "There is significant linkage of meaning between life experiences and the theory of critical pedagogy; this is the way students resist, dispute and push themselves towards devoting their mindsets to the pursuit of knowledge and value for society" (p.21). Thus students not only use critical skills to reflect on their own life experiences but also use it to link to a larger social society, and this expands their understanding of world issues.

Even though the focus of the present study was on improving students' reading skills through critical pedagogical approach, the analysis of students' perception questionnaire revealed an increase in their students' speaking ability. This finding is in line with Liu (2001 as cited in Akbari, 2005) who found that the relevance of the topic and student's familiarity with it can increase students' motivation and speaking ability. When learners realized their real problems are heard they would enthusiastically participate in classroom discussions, and therefore there is the hope of gaining their speaking skills.

The finding of the present study also supports that the use of L1 in language classes can facilitate L2 communication and increase students' participation in classroom discussion. Contrary to the main tenet of ELT mainstreams which put emphasis on rejection of students' first language, CP treats first language as an asset facilitating and contributing to communication in second language. Phillipson (1992) calls this tenet as the "monolingual fallacy" and states this tenet is originating from the maintenance of colonial power and is quite wrong about bilingualism. Akbari (2008b) declares that learners' first language is part of his or her identity which plays a crucial role in the formation of his/her identity and it cannot be completely excluded. Besides, as Ford (2009, p. 65) notes, students' freedom to switch to their first language in the L2 classroom is nothing less than an expression of "linguistic human rights".

This study also tried to empower students by giving freedom to choose the course contents and freedom to decide classroom rules. In CP, critical teachers use their power to empower students and to emancipate themselves from old ways of thinking. The findings of the present study are also in line with Branden (1994) maintains that empowered students are more confident and have higher level of self-esteem. Furthermore, self-confidence can boost a student's ability to think and handle basic challenges. Higher level of self-esteem can promote the feeling of worthiness and give ones the ability to express his/her wants and needs. Besides, empowered learners can become empowered citizens as well.

In following a critical pedagogical approach, the researcher tried her best to create a democratic environment. In attempt to foster a democratic environment, the researcher became a facilitator and coordinator in the process of learning; students were given equal authority to make decisions; they were also given freedom to voice their ideas. Recent research has underscored the establishment and importance of a democratic context (Freire, 2003; Shor, 1992). According to Freire (1970) establishing democracy is the primary responsibility of education. CP supports a humanistic education. Freire (1970) criticized traditional dehumanizing pedagogy which failed to recognize students as a critical being. This study is also in line with Kanpol (1998) who states critical pedagogy is after creating a classroom environment which is democratic and high-lights students' viewpoints through discussion.

This study disfavors traditional approach to reading which asks readers to get or extract information to find out exactly the authors' message conveyed in the text. In a similar vein, Naiditch (2010) stresses to develop a horizontal learning environment in reading classes where no one- knowledge is valued and learners' knowledge and backgrounds are perceived and appreciated as that of teacher and author of the text.

This study also confirms that critical thinking and CP have a lot of shared concerns and even critical thinking is the prerequisite for CP. Safari and Pourhashemi (2012) believe that before applying CP, the culture of critical thinking and critique should be implemented in Iranian context because in Iranian educational setting the culture of silencing is dominated over the culture of critique and critical thinking among students and instructors. In a critical pedagogical reading classes students learn first and foremost to become critical thinkers. Critical reading is similar to (if not identical with) critical thinking since the reader applies his skepticism to the text to interpret and evaluate the author's viewpoint.

Despite the overall satisfaction of most students involved in the study, some dissatisfaction was also traced. Therefore, an important challenge to applying CP to an EFL reading class in Iran, revealed through this study, is the reluctance of few students and their criticism of this different class context. These students debilitated the value of what has been undertaken and considered it as a waste of time. They expressed their preference for a class which was more focused on fostering language knowledge. One explanation could be the authoritarian culture under which they have been brought up. Being used to acting as mere recipients of knowledge, it takes time to get these students accustomed to such a culture and environment. Another explanation could be their ignorance of the advantage of using CP in their final achievements in reading. Although some of the class time was spent on giving a personal touch to the topic by applying it to real world experiences sometimes through the use of L1, they did not take into account that those discussions led to a better understanding and the transfer of new words and structure to long term memory. Both EFL teachers and students must be enlightened to understand the feasibility of developing language knowledge along with concerns and attempts for the social maturity of students as lifelong learners. According to Crooks and Lehner (1998), the main objective of language practice in CP is to aid learners both read with and read against. And all of these arguments and counter-arguments

provided through discussions through reading both the 'words' and the 'world', as maintained by Freire, is by no means a waste of time but a practice in dominance over the material and empowering the students to master the target language.

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MJLTM

THE IMPACT OF PLANNING STRATEGIES ON THE EFL LEARNERS' WRITING PERFORMANCE ACROSS DIFFERENT TASK TYPES

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ABSTRACT
THE PRESENT STUDY INVESTIGATED THE ROLE OF PLANNING STRATEGIES (PRE-PLANNING AND ON-LINE PLANNING) IN EFL LEARNERS' WRITING ABILITY. SIXTY INTERMEDIATE FEMALE STUDENTS IN A LANGUAGE INSTITUTE IN TEHRAN WERE CHOSEN THROUGH A HOMOGENEITY TEST AND WERE DIVIDED INTO TWO EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS. THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP RECEIVED INSTRUCTIONS ON PLANNING STRATEGIES WHILE THE CONTROL GROUP WERE TAUGHT IN CONVENTIONAL METHODS. FOLLOWING THE INSTRUCTION ALL THE PARTICIPANTS RECEIVED POSTTEST OF WRITING TASKS (NARRATIVES AND EXPOSITORY WRITING). THE RESULTS OF DATA ANALYSIS REVEALED THAT PLANNING STRATEGIES COULD IMPROVE EFL LEARNERS' WRITING ABILITY IN TERMS OF GRAMMAR, COHERENCE, COHESION, AND TASK ACHIEVEMENT. HOWEVER, PLANNING STRATEGY WAS NOT BENEFICIAL IN IMPROVING THE VOCABULARY OF SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNERS IN WRITING. THE STUDY RESULTS ALSO REVEALED THAT WRITING PLANNING STRATEGY SHOWS SIGNIFICANTLY DIFFERENT EFFECTS ACROSS TASK TYPES. THE FINDINGS OF THIS STUDY HAVE PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS FOR LANGUAGE PRACTITIONERS AND SYLLABUS DESIGNERS IN THE EFL CONTEXT.

KEYWORDS: EFL, PLANNING STRATEGY, TASK, TASK BASED ACTIVITY.

1. Introduction

Good writing skills are not naturally acquired ones; they are typically learned well or developed as a set of practices in formal instructional settings. Thus, writing skills require practice, and they are generally learned through experience. Writing is a medium of communication, which implies the command of both telling and retelling pieces of information in numerous forms as in narrative, descriptive, expository or argumentative texts (Hyland, 2013).

Previous research indicates that task type is an important variable both in how learners approach language production and in how it affects the fluency, accuracy, and complexity of language products. Foster and Skehan have conducted several studies on task type within the cognitive research framework (Foster & Skehan, 1996; Skehan & Foster, 1997; Skehan, 1998, Foster & Skehan, 1999; Skehan, 2003). They believe that learners' attentional resources are limited and there should be a competition between the three aspects of fluency, accuracy, and complexity in order to attract the learners' attention. Moreover, in order to give a balanced attention to both form and meaning in the task-based approach to language instruction, the second language acquisition (SLA) researchers have investigated the effect of providing

planning time to ensure the learners would focus on form and meaning simultaneously (Skehan, 1996; Skehan & Foster,1999; Yuan,2001).

There are different types of planning in task-based language teaching. Ellis (2005) divided task-based planning into two main types: pre-task planning which includes rehearsal and strategic planning, and within-task planning classified as pressed and un-pressed planning.

2. Review of the Related Literature

A considerable body of research has suggested that allowing learners time to plan their performance before the actual task performance leads them to produce more fluent (Foster & Skehan, 1996; Mehnert, 1998; Ortega, 1999), accurate (Ellis, 1987; Foster & Skehan, 1999; Mehnert, 1998; Ortega, 1999), and complex L2 speech (Foster & Skehan, 1996; Mehnert, 1998; Ortega, 1999).

2.1 Task Planning

Researchers have investigated planning from a variety of perspectives such as different types of planning (Foster & Skehan, 1996; Sangarun, 2005); different amounts of planning time (Mehnert, 1998); planning and different task types (Foster & Skehan, 1996); effects of planning on different levels of proficiency (Kawauchi, 2005), and what learners do when they plan (Ortega, 1999). In general, studies have shown the positive impact of planning on performance; however, the accomplishments do not appear to be achieved to the same extent for the diverse aspects of performance (fluency, accuracy and complexity) since these aspects compete for learners' limited capacity of attentional resources (Foster & Skehan, 1996; Mehnert, 1998).

According to Ellis (2005, p. 3) task planning is divided into two main types. This distinction is in terms of when planning takes place: pre-task planning and within-task planning (online planning). Pre-task planning takes place prior to the task performance. Ellis (2005) points out that pre-task planning is different from pre-task activities, such as brainstorming, in terms of access to the task materials. During pre-task planning, learners receive the actual materials for the task, whereas during the pre-task activities, learners do not have access to the materials that they are going to use to perform the task.

On-line planning, which is also referred to as within-task planning, is a type of planning that is available while engaging in task performance. In research on writing, planning has been viewed as one of the several processes involved in the production of written texts (Ellis & Yuan, 2004). Planning is considered as an independent variable in SLA and one of the most significant processes involved in the written production. It is viewed as a strategy that frees learners from real time stress (Sangarun, 2001). Moreover, it allows learners to process the content and language of their planned production at a deeper and more meaningful level (Wendel, 1997). Several factors such as planning and how it affects the language produced by learners regarding the accuracy, complexity, and fluency have been the focus of many studies thus far (Ellis, 2009; Foster & Skehan, 1999).

2.2 Fluency, Accuracy, and Complexity

Many L1/L2 writing process studies (e.g. Chenoweth & Hayes, 2001; Hatasa & Soeda, 2000) measured writing fluency in terms of the composing rate, i.e. the number of words written per minute obtained through dividing the text quantity by the time spent writing. Other reported measures of writing fluency include holistic scoring of the text (Ballator, Farnum, & Kaplan, 1999), number of words and t-units (Elola, 2006), number of correctly spelled words written, number of sentences written, and number of letter sequences (Rosenthal, 2007).

Bryne (1988) defines accuracy as the use of correct forms where utterances do not contain errors affecting the phonological, syntactic, semantic, or discourse features of a language (cited in Lan, 1994). Shen (2013) also refers to the ability to produce grammatically correct sentences. In other words, accuracy emphasizes precision or exactness and is often emphasized in formal instruction, language acquisition, grammar competence, and grammar-translation method (Shen, 2013). In order to measure accuracy, the proportion of error-free t-units to t-units (clauses) is calculated. All errors in syntax, morphology, lexical choice, and spelling are usually taken into account.

Syntactic complexity is manifest in second language writing in terms of how varied and sophisticated the production units or grammatical structures are (Foster & Skehan, 1996; Ortega, 2003).

A large number of different measures have been proposed for characterizing syntactic complexity in second language writing. Most of these seek to quantify one of the following in one way or another:

length of production units (i.e. clauses, sentences, and T-units), amount of embedding or subordination, amount of coordination, range of surface syntactic structures, and degree of sophistication of particular syntactic structures (Ortega, 2003).

Although the effect of different planning conditions on different task types seems a significant issue, few studies thus far have been carried out to examine this notion thoroughly (e.g. Bagheridoust & Allahyari Fakoor, 2013; Foster & Skehan, 1996). Another limitation to this task planning research to date is that most studies have examined the effects of planning before task performance and have largely ignored the effects of planning that occur during task performance (Yuan & Ellis, 2003). The best methods for investigating the effects of pre-task and on-line planning remain unclear as well. Thus, the purpose of the present study is to fill this research gap to examine the probable effect pre-task and online planning might have on the writing components of Iranian EFL learners. Furthermore, this research might be considered as a step forward as it makes an attempt to investigate the effect of different lengths of feedback along with the other aforementioned variables. As no studies thus far (to the knowledge of the present author) have investigated the joint effect of these variables, the present study might seem a further step in the literature of the planning process and L2 production.

3. Research Questions

Considering the purpose of the study mentioned above the research questions are presented as follows:

1. Does planning strategy have any significant effect on the Iranian EFL learners' writing performance?
2. Does writing planning strategy show significantly different effects across task types (narrative and expository tasks)?
3. Does writing planning strategy show significantly different effects across four components of writing (Achievement, Coherence and Cohesion, Grammar, Vocabulary)?

3. Method

3.1 Participants

The participants of the study were sixty intermediate students (male and female) with the age range 18 to 25 in a Language Institute in Tehran. These participants were chosen out of 90 intermediate students according to their performance in a sample Preliminary English Test (PET). The selected participants were assigned to two groups. One experimental group and one control group with 30 students in each, consisting of 12 to 15 students in each class.

3.2 Instrumentation

A piloted and validated version of PET was used to homogenize students at intermediate level The rating scale used to rate the writing section of PET in this study was the one provided by Cambridge under the name of General Mark Schemes for Writing. The students' writings on the PET test were rated by two raters; the researcher himself and one of his colleagues who was experienced enough in correcting papers and familiar with the scale used. To score the participants' writings the scale presented by Alderson & Tankó (2010) was used which rates the writings based on a 1 to 6 scale. A Pearson correlation was then run to probe the inter-rater reliability of the scores. The results (Pearson R = .85, P = .000 < .05) indicated significant agreement between the two raters.

The second instrument used in the pre-treatment level was a pretest of writing (selected from among the standard topics of PET) which was given to the participants selected after the pretest of language proficiency. The writings of the learners were corrected by two raters based on the rubrics presented by ETS (2000). This revealed how well they were able to write in English before the treatment began. The inter-rater reliability coefficients between the two raters who rated the subjects' writings on the pretest and posttests of writing were calculated. All the inter-rater reliability indices showed significant (P < .05) between the two raters. Table 1 below represents the inter-rater reliability of both pretest and posttests of writing.

Table 1

Inter-Rater Reliability; Pretest and Posttests of Writing

			Rater 1 &2
Pretest of Writing		Pearson Correlation	.690**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000

		N	60
Narrative Task Achievement		Pearson Correlation	.739**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
		N	60
Narrative Grammar		Pearson Correlation	.945**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
		N	60
Narrative Cohesion-Coherence		Pearson Correlation	.516**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
		N	60
Narrative Vocabulary		Pearson Correlation	.868**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
		N	60
Expository Task Achievement		Pearson Correlation	.641**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
		N	60
Expository Grammar		Pearson Correlation	.845**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
		N	60
Expository Cohesion-Coherence		Pearson Correlation	.815**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
		N	60
Expository Vocabulary		Pearson Correlation	.707**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
		N	60
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).			

The validity of the prompts given to the learners in the writing section was checked with two experts. The posttests of writing were two tasks types of expository and narrative writing which the topics of which were selected from among the topics normally appearing in the writing course books but were checked for their content validity by two experts before they were given to the students. The measure of construct validity of the instruments used was also taken into consideration. A factor analysis through Varimax rotation was carried out to underlying construct of the PET, pretest and posttests of writing. The assumptions of sampling adequacy and lack of multi-collinearity were met. As displayed in Table 2 the KMO index of .72 is higher than the criterion of .60. Thus it was concluded that the present sample size was adequate for the factor analysis.

Table 2

Tests of Assumptions of Factor Analysis

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.720
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	401.559
	Df	45
	Sig.	.000

The correlation matrix used to probe the underlying structure of the tests should not suffer from multi-collinearity – too high correlations among all variables. The Bartlett's chi-square of 401.55 is significant ($p = .000 < .05$). Thus it was concluded that the assumption of lack of multi-collinearity was also met.

The SPSS extracted three factors as the underlying constructs of the tests employed in this study. This three-factor solution accounts for 73.13 percent of the total variance.

Table 3

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigen values			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.898	48.977	48.977	4.898	48.977	48.977	4.682	46.824	46.824
2	1.365	13.649	62.627	1.365	13.649	62.627	1.532	15.317	62.141
3	1.248	12.478	75.104	1.248	12.478	75.104	1.296	12.963	75.104
4	.805	8.050	83.154						
5	.604	6.036	89.190						
6	.414	4.142	93.333						
7	.319	3.191	96.524						
8	.177	1.767	98.291						
9	.104	1.036	99.327						
10	.067	.673	100.000						

And finally Table 4 displays the factor loadings of the tests administered in this study. All the writing tests load on the first factor, except for coherence-cohesion component of narrative writing which loaded on the second factor together with the PET test. The pretest of writing, however, loaded on the third factor.

Table 4

Rotated Components Matrix

	Components		
	1	2	3
Narrative Grammar	.926		
Expository Grammar	.898		
Narrative Task	.852		
Expository Vocabulary	.797		
Narrative Vocabulary	.743		
Expository Task	.737		
Expository Cohesion	.640		
PET		.844	
Narrative Cohesion		.771	
Pretest WR			.851

3.3 Procedure

Following the process of subject selection the researcher divided the participants into two groups, an experimental and a control group with 30 students in each. Considering the fact that the syllabus of the language school had to be covered during the semester, ten sessions of 20 minutes were allocated to the experiment in the experimental group. Therefore, the classes of control and experimental groups received the same hours of instruction and practice. Also the researcher himself taught both groups.

Both control and experimental groups enjoyed the same course book, materials, lexical items, and passages. Any vocabulary and grammatical issues discussed were explicitly taught to the learners and they were allowed to receive feedback from the teacher and discuss the main points both inside and outside the classroom. In both groups, at first the researcher created a situation in which specific vocabularies and grammatical points were used. In this level which was the presentation phase, the researcher helped learners do brainstorming and engaged them in the process of learning. Then in the practice phase, the learners were directed towards discussing lexical items and grammatical points. It was done to clarify the training offered as much as possible.

In the third phase which was the production phase, the learners were encouraged towards developing their writings. The planning strategy and its two types (pre-planning and online planning) were introduced to the learners in the experimental group and the learners were asked to take part in the practicing phases in order to get familiar with the concept of planning and thinking before writing. The learners practiced planning in its various forms in different sessions with various topics, but they mainly focused on the strategy they had been exposed to.

Then after an eight-week period the posttests of writing were administered to check the learners' writing development. In this phase both control and experimental groups were asked to write two expository and narrative tasks. The data gathered was analyzed through SPSS version 21 and reported. The data were analyzed through running two independent t-tests to compare the experimental and control groups' PET test means and pretest means of writing in order to prove that the two groups respectively enjoyed the same level of general language proficiency and writing ability prior to the main study. A repeated-measures ANOVA was run to investigate the effect of planning strategy, types of tasks (narrative and expository) and components of writing (task achievement, cohesion-coherence, grammar and vocabulary) on the performance of the subjects on the posttest of writing.

4. Results

4.1 Testing Assumptions

Since the parametric tests of independent t-test and repeated measures ANOVA were used to analyze the present data, four assumptions should be met. The data should be measured on an interval scale. The subjects should be independent that is to say their performance on the test is not affected by the performance of other students. The data should enjoy normal distribution and finally the groups should have homogeneous variances. The present data are measured on an interval scale and the subjects' perform independently on the tests. The assumption of normality is also met. As displayed in Table 5 the ratios of skewness and kurtosis over their respective standard errors are within the ranges of +/- 1.96.

Table 5

Normality Tests

Group		N	Skewness			Kurtosis		
		Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Ratio	Statistic	Std. Error	Ratio
Experimental	PET	30	.221	.427	0.518	-.711	.833	-0.854
	Pretest WR	30	.362	.427	0.848	.198	.833	0.238
	Narrative Task	30	-.002	.427	-0.005	-.572	.833	-0.687
	Narrative Cohesion	30	.214	.427	0.501	-1.034	.833	-1.241
	Narrative Grammar	30	-.173	.427	-0.405	-1.470	.833	-1.765
	Narrative Vocab	30	.194	.427	0.454	-.670	.833	-0.804
	Expository Task	30	.214	.427	0.501	-1.034	.833	-1.241
	Expository Cohesion	30	-.135	.427	-0.316	-.169	.833	-0.203
	Expository Grammar	30	-.295	.427	-0.691	-.754	.833	-0.905
	Expository Vocab	30	.387	.427	0.906	-.594	.833	-0.713
Control	PET	30	.334	.427	0.782	-.658	.833	-0.790
	Pretest WR	30	.499	.427	1.169	.249	.833	0.299
	Narrative Task	30	-.189	.427	-0.443	-.584	.833	-0.701
	Narrative Cohesion	30	.837	.427	1.960	-.080	.833	-0.096
	Narrative Grammar	30	-.136	.427	-0.319	.033	.833	0.040
	Narrative Vocab	30	.054	.427	0.126	-.299	.833	-0.359

	Expository Task	30	-.191	.427	-0.447	.890	.833	1.068
	Expository Cohesion	30	.406	.427	0.951	-.748	.833	-0.898
	Expository Grammar	30	.462	.427	1.082	-.436	.833	-0.523
	Expository Vocab	30	-.349	.427	-0.817	-.937	.833	-1.125

As noted by Bachman (2005), Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) and Stevens (2009) there is no need to check the assumption of homogeneity of variances when the sample sizes are equal as is the case in this study.

4.2 Subject-Selection Statistics

The piloted PET test was administered to 90 students. Based on the mean (40.44) and SD (8.38), 60 students whose scores fell within one SD above and below the mean were selected. Table 6 below represents the descriptive statistics of the subject selection procedure. The KR-21 reliability index for the PET test was .91.

Table 6

Descriptive Statistics of Subject Selection

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance	KR-21
PET	90	23.0	50.0	40.44	8.384	70.295	.91

4.3 PET General Language Proficiency Test

An independent t-test was run to compare the experimental and control groups' PET test scores in order to prove that the two groups enjoyed the same level of general language proficiency prior to the main study. As displayed in Table 7 the experimental (M = 41.03; SD = 2.22) and control (M = 39.13; SD = 2.13) groups showed almost the same means on the PET test.

Table 7

Descriptive Statistics; PET by Groups

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Experimental	30	41.03	2.227	.415
Control	30	39.13	2.009	.383

The results of the independent t-test (t (58) = .17, P > .05; R = .022 it represented a weak effect size) (Table 8) indicates that there was not any significant difference between experimental and control groups' mean scores on the PET test. Thus it was concluded that the two groups enjoyed the same level of general language proficiency prior to the main study.

Table 8

Independent Samples t-test; PET Test by Groups

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	.046	.832	.171	58	.865	.100	.586	-1.072	1.272
Equal variances not assumed			.171	57.844	.865	.100	.586	-1.072	1.272

4.4 Pretest of Writing

An independent t-test was run to compare the experimental and control groups' pretest of writing in order to prove that the two groups enjoyed the same level of writing ability prior to the main study. As displayed in Table 9 the experimental (M = 60.53; SD = 5.57) and control (M = 59.22; SD = 5.52) groups showed almost the same means on the pretest of writing.

Table 9

Descriptive Statistics; Pretest of Writing by Groups

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Experimental	30	60.53	5.575	1.018
Control	30	59.22	5.528	1.004

The results of the independent t-test (t (58) = .21, P > .05; R = .028 it represented a weak effect size) (Table 10) indicates that there was not any significant difference between experimental and control groups' mean scores on the pretest of writing. Thus it can be concluded that the two groups enjoyed the same level of writing knowledge prior to the main study.

Table 10

Independent Samples t-test; Pretest of Writing Test by Groups

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	.036	.849	.215	58	.830	.317	1.472	-2.631	3.264
Equal variances not assumed			.215	57.887	.830	.317	1.472	-2.631	3.264

4.5 Investigating the Null Hypotheses

A repeated-measures ANOVA was run to investigate the effect of planning strategy, types of tasks (narrative and expository) and components of writing (task achievement, cohesion-coherence, grammar and vocabulary) on the performance of the subjects on the posttest of writing (the first research question). The results (F (1, 58) 285.54, P < .05, Partial η2 = .83, it represented a large effect size) indicated that there was a significant difference between the overall mean scores of the experimental and control groups on the posttest of writing. Thus the first research question was answered in positive.

Table 11

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	111477.552	1	111477.552	72522.668	.000	.999
Group	438.919	1	438.919	285.542	.000	.831
Error	89.154	58	1.537			

As displayed in Table 12 the experimental group (M = 16.19, SE = .08) after receiving the planning strategy, outperformed the control group (M = 14.28, SE = .08) on the posttest of writing.

Table 12
Descriptive Statistics; Posttest of Writing by Groups

Group	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Experimental	16.196	.080	16.036	16.356
Control	14.283	.080	14.123	14.444

As displayed in Table 13 the subjects showed a slightly higher mean (M = 15.38, SE = .07) on the narrative task than expository (M = 15.09, SE = .05).

Table 13
Descriptive Statistics; Posttest of Writing by Tasks

Tasks	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Narrative	15.383	.077	15.230	15.537
Expository	15.096	.058	14.981	15.211

Based on the results displayed in Table 14 (F (1, 58) 14.71, P < .05, Partial η^2 = .20, representing a large effect size) indicated that there was a significant difference between the overall mean scores of the narrative and expository tasks. Thus, the second research question was also positively answered.

Table 14
Multivariate Tests

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Tasks	Pillai's Trace	.202	14.712	1	58	.000	.202
	Wilks' Lambda	.798	14.712	1	58	.000	.202
	Hotelling's Trace	.254	14.712	1	58	.000	.202
	Roy's Largest Root	.254	14.712	1	58	.000	.202
Tasks * Group	Pillai's Trace	.865	372.068	1	58	.000	.865
	Wilks' Lambda	.135	372.068	1	58	.000	.865
	Hotelling's Trace	6.415	372.068	1	58	.000	.865
	Roy's Largest Root	6.415	372.068	1	58	.000	.865
Components	Pillai's Trace	.910	189.862	3	56	.000	.910
	Wilks' Lambda	.090	189.862	3	56	.000	.910
	Hotelling's Trace	10.171	189.862	3	56	.000	.910
	Roy's Largest Root	10.171	189.862	3	56	.000	.910
Components * Group	Pillai's Trace	.833	93.257	3	56	.000	.833
	Wilks' Lambda	.167	93.257	3	56	.000	.833
	Hotelling's Trace	4.996	93.257	3	56	.000	.833
	Roy's Largest Root	4.996	93.257	3	56	.000	.833
Tasks *	Pillai's Trace	.568	24.568	3	56	.000	.568

Components	Wilks' Lambda	.432	24.568	3	56	.000	.568
	Hotelling's Trace	1.316	24.568	3	56	.000	.568
	Roy's Largest Root	1.316	24.568	3	56	.000	.568
Tasks * Components * Group	Pillai's Trace	.445	14.956	3	56	.000	.445
	Wilks' Lambda	.555	14.956	3	56	.000	.445
	Hotelling's Trace	.801	14.956	3	56	.000	.445
	Roy's Largest Root	.801	14.956	3	56	.000	.445

Based on the results displayed in Table 14 (F (3, 56) 189.86, P < .05, Partial η^2 = .91, it represented a large effect size) indicated that there was a significant difference between the overall mean scores of the four components of writing. Thus the third research question was also answered in yes. As displayed in table 15 the subjects showed the highest mean score on the grammar (M = 16.72), this followed by task achievement (M = 15.81), coherence-cohesion (M 15.53) and vocabulary (M= 12.89).

Table 15

Descriptive Statistics; Components of Writing

Components	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Task Achievement	15.813	.093	15.626	15.999
Coherence-Cohesion	15.533	.117	15.299	15.768
Grammar	16.721	.107	16.507	16.935
Vocabulary	12.892	.106	12.679	13.104

Although the F-value of 189.86 indicated significant differences between the four components of writing, the post-hoc Scheffe's tests should be run to compare the components two by two. Based on the results displayed in Table 16 it was claimed that:

A: There was a significant difference between the mean scores of the subjects on the task achievement (M = 15.81) and vocabulary (12.89) (MD = 2.92, P < .05).

B: There was a significant difference between the mean scores of the subjects on the coherence-cohesion (M = 15.53) and vocabulary (12.89) (MD = 2.64, P < .05).

Table 16

Post-Hoc Scheffe's Tests; Posttests of Components of Writing

(I) Components	(J) Components	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]
Task Achievement	Coherence-Cohesion	.279	.130	.214
	Vocabulary	2.921*	.155	.000
Coherence-Cohesion	Vocabulary	2.642*	.143	.000
Grammar	Task Achievement	.908*	.109	.000
	Coherence-Cohesion	1.188*	.164	.000
	Vocabulary	3.829*	.171	.000
*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.				

C: There was a significant difference between the mean scores of the subjects on the grammar (M = 16.72) and vocabulary (12.89) (MD = 3.82, P < .05).

D: There was a significant difference between the mean scores of the subjects on the grammar (M = 16.72) and coherence-cohesion (15.53) (MD = 1.18, P < .05).

E: There was not any significant difference between the mean scores of the subjects on the grammar (M = 16.72) and task achievement (15.81) (MD = .90, P > .05).
G: There was not any significant difference between the mean scores of the subjects on the coherence-cohesion (M = 15.53) and task achievement (15.81) (MD = .27, P > .05).

5. Discussion

The findings of the present study revealed that planning strategy has a significant effect on the Iranian EFL learners' writing performance. The study also revealed that writing planning strategy shows significantly different effects across task types (learners' performance on narrative writing as better than that of the expository task). Thirdly, the study findings highlighted that writing planning strategy shows significantly different effects across four components of writing (task achievement, coherence-cohesion, grammar and vocabulary). Analyzing the data also represented that subjects showed the highest mean score on the grammar which was followed by task achievement, while coherence-cohesion factor was the third in ranking and vocabulary had the lowest mean score. It means that planning strategy affects various writing components differently as if some components such as grammar, task achievement, and coherence-cohesion have been affected by planning strategy almost at the same level, but vocabulary level of the learners has not been changed that much.

The research results indicated that the planning strategy group who received planning strategy techniques such as pre-planning and online planning outperformed the control group on the writing posttest as the results revealed that planning strategy techniques significantly promoted learners' performance in the writing tasks. Therefore, planning strategy techniques could prove effective in the development of writing ability of the second language learners taking part in the study.

All of these findings are in line with the findings of other researchers: In terms of the first finding of the study which asserts that planning strategy has a significant effect on the Iranian EFL learners' writing performance, Foster and Skehan (1996) studied the influence of planning on performance in task-based learning and came to know that planning strategy highly affects second language acquisition of the learners. Ahangari and Behzady (2012) also argued that explicit teaching of computer-mediated concept mapping had a positive effect on the writing skill in general. Their study also revealed that such trainings could improve the content, organization, vocabulary, and language use components except the mechanics of the learners' writing. Previous research (Chang et al., 2002; Chen, 2007; Lee & Cho, 2010; Lin, et al, 2004; Ojima, 2006; Rao, 2007; Talebinezhad & Mousapor Negari, 2001) in general, is in line with the above mentioned finding.

The present study demonstrated that the experimental group who received strategy planning and the related instruction outperformed the control group who followed traditional approach, which is in line with the findings of the study done by Chen (2007) confirming that strategy training not only leads to the improvement of language proficiency, but also engages the dynamic internal changes in the learning process. Mirlohi, Ketabi and Roustaei (2012) studied the effect of instruction on writing performance of intermediate EFL Persian students and the results indicated that writing instruction has made a difference.

The study findings also revealed that writing planning strategy shows significantly different effects across task types (learners' performance on narrative writing as better than that of the expository task). This finding is in line with that of Kawauchi (2005), who also proved that strategic planning affects the oral and written narratives of learners with low and high intermediate L2 proficiency, but this influence is higher in the more proficient learners.

Ellis and Yuan (2004) also studied the effects of planning on fluency, complexity and accuracy in second language narrative writing and came to know that planning strategy helps ESL learners in problem solving, picking up more complex structures, and well organized writing. Ellis (2009) also discussed the differential effects of types of task planning on the fluency, complexity, and accuracy in L2 oral production and mentioned that planning highly and positively affects both accuracy and complexity factors, but complexity of the production is not that much affected by planning tasks. Lienemann and Reid's (2008) study which focused on using self-regulated strategy development to improve expository writing with students with attention deficit hyperactivity disorder also proved that instruction had a

pronounced positive effect on students' writing. "Student essays were longer and more complete. Holistic quality ratings were in the normal range". (p.471)

The third finding of the study highlighted that writing planning strategy showed significantly different effects across four components of writing (task achievement, coherence-cohesion, grammar and vocabulary). It means that planning strategy affected various writing components differently as if some components such as grammar, task achievement, and coherence-cohesion were affected by planning strategy almost at the same level, but vocabulary level of the learners was not changed that much.

This is consistent with some of the previous findings such as researches conducted by Lee and Cho (2010) on the effect of collaborative planning strategy in Korean writing classes, Ojima's (2006) case study on three Japanese ESL writers in Japan regarding the effect of pre-task planning, and Lin, et al.'s (2004) research on the effect of computer-based concept mapping as a pre-writing strategy for middle school students. The results of these studies revealed that planning strategy was influential in improving learners' writing. It has particularly influenced the organization, language use, and vocabulary learning.

Moreover, the findings of the present study are in favor of the results of the research done by Rao (2007) on the effect of brainstorming in developing writing skill and its components. Rao (2007) proposed that brainstorming stimulates students' thinking and enables them to create ideas and organize raw materials in a logical order. In the present study, planning strategy served as both pre-planning and on-line planning tools affecting the learners' writings and their employed grammar, content, coherence, cohesion, and slightly vocabulary in use. Preplanning activates learners' prior knowledge, and facilitates the use of this knowledge.

There have been some other researches in Iranian EFL context regarding the effect of planning strategy on EFL learners' writing. The results of the present study are in line with the results of the study done by Talebinezhad and Mousapor Negari (2001) on the effect of explicit teaching of concept mapping as a learning strategy in expository writing on EFL learners' self-regulation. They found that the learners gained higher self-regulation in writing task as the result of the explicit instruction of the concept mapping strategy as a preplanning strategy.

Pishgadam & Ghanizadeh (2006) also investigated the impact of preplanning as a pre-writing activity on EFL learners' writing ability. The findings of their study revealed that students who received strategy instruction outperformed the other students in terms of quantity and quality of generating, organizing, and associating ideas. The findings of the present study were similar to the results of the Pishghadam and Ghanizadeh's (2006) study, in that, it also revealed that the students who received planning strategy instruction had better performance in writing.

6. Conclusion

The present study aimed at investigating the role of planning strategy as both a prewriting strategy (pre-planning) and within writing strategy (on-line planning) in EFL learners' writing ability. The findings of the study revealed that familiarity with planning strategies could improve EFL learners' writing ability in terms of grammar, coherence, cohesion, and task achievement. However, planning strategy was not beneficial in improving the vocabulary of second language learners in writing. The findings of this study reveal that planning strategy as a cognitive tool can enhance learners' thinking and problem solving skills. It can also help them improve their writing skill in terms of content, organization, vocabulary, and language use.

Planning strategies could be employed by second language teachers to make the learners more aware of what they are dealing with while writing. The assumption is that pre-planning and on-line planning strategies facilitate writing development (Ellis & Yuan, 2004); thus, English teachers and learners could employ planning strategies in their classes to facilitate learning for the learners. This way the classroom interactions could be enriched and would help subsequent L2 development of the learners.

Moreover, a replication of the present study is needed to investigate the other methods for the purpose of measuring the effect of employing planning strategy on the development of text accuracy, text complexity, lexical item development, and improvement of any language skill or sub skill. If the results of this study are supported by further research, then it can safely be argued that planning strategies are of great use and importance in the process of second language writing tasks by the EFL learners.

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THE IMPACT OF PERSIAN CHILDREN'S BRAIN DOMINANCE ON THEIR PHONETIC ACQUISITION: A STUDY BASED ON MARKEDNESS THEORY

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ABSTRACT
THIS STUDY INTENDS TO INVESTIGATE THE EFFECT OF PERSIAN CHILDREN'S BRAIN DOMINANCE ON THEIR ACQUISITION OF /V/ AND /U/ SOUNDS. IN SO DOING, SIXTY (37 LEFT BRAIN DOMINANT AND 23 RIGHT BRAIN DOMINANT) WERE PURPOSIVELY SELECTED FROM ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS IN SHIRAZ, IRAN. THEY WERE ASKED TO READ ALOUD 30 WORDS CONTAINING / و/ LETTER TO DETERMINE TO WHAT EXTENT THEY CAN DISTINGUISH /U/ FROM /V/ SOUND. THEIR VOICES WERE RECORDED WHILE READING ALOUD. THE RESULTS OF THE CHI SQUARE CONDUCTED DEPICTED THAT THERE ARE NOT SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES BETWEEN LEFT AND RIGHT BRAIN DOMINANT STUDENTS. THEY BOTH WERE SIGNIFICANTLY MORE SUCCESSFUL DISTINGUISHING /U/ SOUND. THE FINDINGS CAN BE ANALYZED IN FAVOR OF MARKEDNESS DIFFERENTIAL HYPOTHESIS.

KEW WORDS : PERSIAN CHILDREN- PHONETICS- MARKEDNESS THEORY

Introduction
The quest for finding language universals has been an important goal of modern linguistics. Universal laws, of which markedness is assumed to be one, are assumed to underlie language acquisition. An influential view among linguists is that children are born with prior knowledge of the type of categories and rules that are found in the grammar of any human language. This innate knowledge, frequently called Universal Grammar, equips the mind to acquire any human language. This nativist view, advocated by Chomsky (1965; 1975; 1986), suggests that the grammars of all the world's languages share a basic design. According to Chomsky, although specific grammatical principles vary from one language to another, they are all based on certain fundamental principles that correspond to innate properties of the human mind.

Although markedness as an innate property of human language was considered a relatively poor idea, with the advent of generative linguistics markedness was reconceptualized as a property of languages determined by Universal Grammar rather than as a property of individual languages, as asserted by Trubetzkoy (1939). He declared that markedness values are assumed to be predetermined universally.

Markedness Differential Hypothesis

As cited in Dehghayedi and Sadighi (2015), there are two different approaches to the markedness theory, (a) the 'typological' and (b) the 'transformational' approach. The typological approach was developed by J. Greenberg and is aimed at discovering implicational universals. In a very general sense, implicational universals consist of a generalization concerning the correlation of various properties of language according to certain principles. The Transformational Approach, has been developed by Chomsky who remarks that the process of language acquisition proceeds over a relatively short period of time (compared for instance to second language acquisition). He argues in favor of an innateness of language acquisition process. As a consequence, there must be a number of abstract inherent principles which can be equated with language universals. Thus, any grammar can be divided into a 'core', unmarked grammar and a more marked 'periphery'. The 'core' of language includes universal principles and only unmarked parametric options; the 'marked periphery' of language consists of whatever else lies outside of the core of language (Chomsky 1986).

Jakobson (1941) found that certain categories of a language are less marked (i.e. basic) than others. Unmarked categories are widespread, whereas marked categories arerelated to a specific language and are conditioned by different factors. Unmarked categories are more 'natural' than marked categories, and that less marked language structures are more easily learned and processed than marked ones. Thus, according to Greenberg (1991, p. 38), 'if a marked category A always implies the presence of the unmarked B, a child must acquire B before or simultaneously with A'. In acquiring the first language, children seem to follow the same general developmental route. More general rules imply less general rules, which are acquired at a later stage of development. In the transformational approach, core grammar rules are acquired in a relatively short time in comparison with peripheral rules. Core grammar rules and structures are unmarked as opposed to peripheral rules which are marked" (Dehghayedi and Sadighi, 2015; p.2).

Markedness is claimed to play a crucial role in the development of phonological theories; however, there are different approaches for markedness. One advocated by Chomsky and Halle (1968) assumes a theory of markedness and a formal theory of phonology (or grammar) for language patterns. They believe that the goal of markedness theory is to distinguish between more and less natural segments and rules. However, a theory of grammar determines the well-formedness of linguistic structures.

This model treats markedness as a universal principle which guides language acquisition and the formation of phoneme inventories. In addition, it serves as an evaluation metric on the selection of analytic options in the formulation of phonological rules and underlying representations: "children construct grammars to account for the data they are exposed to within the constraints imposed by the formalism, and an evaluation metric selects the simplest possible grammar for the given data" (Mohanan 1992, p.639). A second approach assumes a single theory. In this view, the goal of a grammar theory is to be able to predict possible grammars and markedness observations as well.

Generally, in phonology, the structures that violate markedness constraints are those that are articulatorily or perceptually more difficult. A structure that violates a markedness constraint is said to be marked otherwise it is unmarked. Because an unmarked structure satisfies a universal constraint, it will tend to occur in optimal forms and thus appear in the languages of the world. Marked structures, by contrast, tend to be suboptimal and thus avoided.

Hemispheric Lateralization

There is evidence in neurological research that as the human brain matures, certain function are assigned ,or latrralized to the left hemisphere of the brain and certain other functions to the right hemisphere. Intellectual, logical, and analytic functions appear to be largely located in the left hemisphere, while the right hemisphere controls functions related to emotional and social needs. Lenneberg (1967) suggested that lateralization is a slow process that begins around the age of two and is completed around puberty . Geschwind (1970) posited a much earlier age of completion, while

Krashen(1973) cited research to support the completion of lateralization around age five. But Scovel (1984) cautioned against assuming with Krashen, that lateralization is complete by age five. Adams (1997) found that children up to the age of puberty who suffer injury to the left hemisphere are able to realize linguistic functions to the hemisphere, to relearn their first language with relatively little impairment.

According to the theory of left-brain or right-brain dominance, each side of the brain controls different types of thinking. Additionally, people are said to prefer one type of thinking over the other. For example, a person who is "left-brained" is often said to be more logical, analytical, and objective, while a person who is "right-brained" is said to be more intuitive, thoughtful, and subjective. In psychology, the theory is based on what is known as the lateralization of brain function. So does one side of the brain really control specific functions? Are people either left-brained or right-brained? Like many popular psychology myths, this one grew out of observations about the human brain that were then dramatically distorted and exaggerated.

The right brain-left brain theory originated in the work of Roger W. Sperry, who was awarded the Nobel Prize in 1981. While studying the effects of epilepsy, Sperry discovered that cutting the corpus collosum (the structure that connects the two hemispheres of the brain) could reduce or eliminate seizures. In one study by researchers at the University of Utah, more than 1,000 participants had their brains analyzed in order to determine if they preferred using one side over the other. The study revealed that while activity was sometimes higher in certain important regions, both sides of the brain were essentially equal in their activity on average.

"It's absolutely true that some brain functions occur in one or the other side of the brain. Language tends to be on the left, attention more on the right. But people don't tend to have a stronger left- or right-sided brain network. It seems to be determined more connection by connection," explained the study's lead author Dr. Jeff Anderson. (p. 78)

Research question

Do right and left brain dominant Persian children's acquisition of /v/ and /u/ sounds significantly differ based on markedness theory?

Research design

This study enjoys from a mixed methods approach as the data gathered qualitatively were classified and analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics. This study is in fact an expansion of what Dehghayedi and Sadighi (2015) did.

Participants

73 male and female students of elementary schools in Shiraz who have just entered the second grade (8 years old) were purposively selected to participate in this study. They were all Persian speakers, learning Farsi as their first language. The students were expected to be able to read and write in their L1 at this level. 60 out 73 were finally included in the study due to distorted voice recordings. 37 and 23 were left and right brain dominant respectively.

Instruments

The word list developed by Dehghayedi and Sadighi (2015) were used in this study as the research instrument. This word list consists of 30 words with /v/ and /u/ sounds that the students were most probably not exposed to in their first grade materials. The number words in which / و/ letter is expected to be pronounced as v/ and /u/ sounds are 20 and 10 respectively. The participants were categorized as left and right brain dominant based on their left or right handedness. Left handed students are mostly right brain dominant and vice versa. Because of children's low literacy skills it was not really possible for the researcher to make use of brain dominance inventories.

Administration procedure

The students were required to read aloud the words on the list while their voice was being recorded by the researchers. They were asked to read the words immediately and were not given time to ponder over them. As mentioned above, we are mainly after examining the participants' capacity in categorizing the written form / و/ as /v/ or /u/ sounds. The recordings were then transcribed based on IPA phonetic features for further analysis.

Data analysis plan

The following statistical procedures were employed to answer the research question:

A) Descriptive statistics for determining the raw frequency of /v/ or /u/ sounds as pronounced by children when they were asked to read aloud the words containing / و/ letter.
B) Chi square was conducted to decide on the significance of the differences between the observed frequencies.
C) The significance values obtained for left and right brain dominant groups were then compared to determine if the findings violate markedness hypothesis.

Results

The raw frequencies extracted are summarized as follows:

Left brain dominant students:

a) / و/ letter correctly pronounced as /u/ : 325
b) / و/ letter wrongly pronounced as /u/ : 45
c) / و/ letter correctly pronounced as /v/ : 251
d) / و/ letter wrongly pronounced as /v/ : 489

Right brain dominant students:

e) / و/ letter correctly pronounced as /u/ : 205
f) / و/ letter wrongly pronounced as /u/ : 25
g) / و/ letter correctly pronounced as /v/ : 156
h) / و/ letter wrongly pronounced as /v/ : 304

These descriptive statistics clearly show that both left and right brain dominant students were successful in correctly pronouncing / و/ letter as /u/ (325 out of 370 and 205 out of 230 for left and right brain dominance respectively).they were not, however, that successful in correctly pronouncing / و/ letter as /v/ (251 out of 760 and 156 out of 460 for left and right brain dominance respectively).Chi square was used to decide on the significance of such differences. Tables 1 and 2 show the results.

Table 1. Chi square for left brain dominant children

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	659.025	29	.000
Likelihood Ratio	836.210	29	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	18.590	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	1110		

Table 2. Chi square for right brain dominant children

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	513.010	29	.015
Likelihood Ratio	716.155	29	.015
Linear-by-Linear Association	15.511	1	.015
N of Valid Cases	690		

The results in both tables show that there are significant differences expected and observed frequencies as the significance levels both groups are below .o5.Therefore, it can be inferred that brain dominance does not affect the ease with which Persian children pronounce /v/ and /u/ sounds.

Conclusion

The results of this study confirmed Dehghayedi and Sadighi's (2015) assertion that "between the two allophones of Persian letter / و/, /u/ is unmarked and /v/ is marked" (p. 8). One can infer such a conclusion from at least two standpoints:

a) Both descriptive and inferential statistics reveal that /u/ sound is articulatory less difficult and more predictable both left and right brain dominant children as the rate of success in correct pronunciation /u/ sound is considerably higher than the correct pronunciation of /v/ sound.
b) The findings of this study depict that brain dominance is not a significant factor determining the predictability and difficulty of /u/ and / v/ sounds which could be regarded as an evidence in favor of the validity of predictions made based on markedness differential hypothesis.

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MJLTM

A CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS OF PERSIAN AND ENGLISH WORD ORDER

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ABSTRACT
PERSIAN EXHIBITS HYBRID FEATURES REGARDING WORD ORDER CORRELATIONS. IN SOME RESPECTS, IT PATTERNS LIKE VO LANGUAGES, IN OTHERS AS OV ONES. IT IS ARGUED THAT THIS LANGUAGE IS MOVING FROM AN OV TYPE LANGUAGE TO A VO TYPE ONE (DABIR-MOGHADDAM 2001, 2006). THIS STUDY TRIES TO DEMONSTRATE THAT THESE HYBRID FEATURES OF PERSIAN ARE IN LINE WITH PROCESSING-BASED EXPLANATIONS OF WORD ORDER INTRODUCED BY HAWKINS (1994 AND 2004). IN SIMPLE TERMS, PERSIAN ACTS AS A VO LANGUAGE, TO CUT THE PROCESSING PRICE SHORT, IN OTHER SITUATIONS, IN WHICH THE PROCESSING PRICE DOES NOT ALTER GREATLY, IT CAN CHOOSE BETWEEN VO OR OV ORDERS. THE EVIDENCE FOR THIS CLAIM COMES FROM THE STUDY OF FOUR DIFFERENT STRUCTURES: RELATIVE CLAUSE EXTRAPOSITION, SENTENTIAL SUBJECTS POSTPOSING, PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES EXTRAPOSITION AND POST-VERBAL PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES.

KEY WORDS: WORD ORDER, PERSIAN LANGUAGE, ENGLISH LANGUAGE, CONTRASTIVE STUDY

1. Introduction

Persian is a NRel language, a feature present in both VO and OV languages (Dryer 1992). But it can also extrapose some relative clauses to sentence final position, similar to VO languages, like English (Francis 2010), and opposed to OV languages, like Japanese which move the relative clauses to sentence initial position (Yamashita and Chang 2001).

Regarding relative clause extraposition (RCE), the main question is why some relative clauses are extraposed or even preferred to be extraposed. Different motivations are proposed to influence the RCE over canonical structure; e.g. discourse focus, grammatical weight and verb class. I have managed to do a corpus-based study to test the prediction of these different speculations in Persian. Hawkins' (1994, 2004) performance-based theory of constituent order deals with the effects of different factors, among them grammatical weight, in sentence processing and predicts that in relative clauses, processing efficiency increases by putting the heavier constituent at the end. One of the major claims of his theory is the principle of Minimize Domain: "The human processor prefers to minimize the connected sequences of linguistic forms and their conventionally associated syntactic and semantic properties in which relations of combination and/or dependency are processed. The degree of this preference is proportional to the number of relations whose domains can be minimized in competing sequences or structures, and to the extent of the minimization difference in each domain" (Hawkins 2004: 104). Based on this principle, it is preferred to rearrange heavy constituents to minimize the domain and making the processing easier.

Francis (2010:42) argues that, among different domains discussed in Hawkins (2004), the most important domain for studying (RCE) is Phrasal Combination Domain (PCD), according to which; "the smallest string of elements required to construct a mother node and its immediate constituents (Hawkins 2004:107). According to PCD, "constituents can be constructed as soon as the head word is constructed" (Francis 2010:42). PCDs are calculated in terms of immediate constituents to word ratios (Hawkins 1994).

2. Results and Discussion

This work relies on a corpus analysis, based on written and spoken texts, from Persian Linguistic Database (PLDB: http://pldb.ihcs.ac.ir/). The number of relative clauses selected randomly for this study was 757, of which 167 were extraposed from their canonical position. Results of the weight analysis show that RCE helps to minimize domains, as Hawkins (2004) predicted. RCE is preferred in those sentences when the RC length is about four times longer than VP. The sentences in (1) show the effect of RCE on minimizing domains.

(1) a. '*in moškele bozorgi 'ast [ke bâ čand sad milyun riyal hazine niz qâbele jobrân naxâhad bud]*

This problem big is [that with some hundred million Rials budget also possible remedy won't be]

'This is such a big problem that will not be solved with hundred million Rials'.

b. '*in moškele bozorgi [ke bâ čand sad milyun riyal hazine niz qâbele jobrân naxâhad bud] 'ast.*

This problem big [that with some hundred million Rials budget also possible remedy won't be] is

'This is such a big problem that will not be solved with hundred million Rials'.

The study of Persian RCE shows that this language is typologically behaving like VO languages, putting heavy constituents in sentence final position, not like OV languages, which put RC in sentence initial position.

The second word order alternation which puts Persian in VO type group is the rearrangement of sentential subjects. Persian sentential subjects, normally occurring in post-verbal position are studied from the same viewpoint. It is argued that the functional explanation based on Hawkins' (1994) principle of Early Immediate Constituents (the former version of Minimize Domain), can explain the rearrangement of sentential subjects and their forcing to a postverbal position, as in (2b):

(2) a. *['in ke 'ahmad 'az 'in film ta'rif mikonad] jâleb 'ast.*

This that Ahmad from this film admire do interesting is.

That Ahmad admires this film is interesting.

b. *jâleb 'ast [ke 'ahmad 'az 'in film ta'rif mikonad].*

Interesting is [that Ahmad from this film admire do.

It is interesting that Ahmad admires this film.

The third structure which is studied to show the processing effects on Persian word order is the extraposition of PPs, as the following examples:

(3) a. '*in dânešju xeili bâhuštar ['az dânešjuyi ke*

šomâ tosiye kardid] 'ast.
This student very smarter than student that you recommend do is
This student is very smarter than the one you recommended.

b. *'in dânešju xeili bâhuštar 'ast ['az dânešjuyi ke šomâ tosiye kardid].*
This student very smarter is than student that you recommend do.
This student is very smarter than the one you recommended.

(4) a. *yeki 'az 'sâtide dânešgâh ketâbi [darbâreye zabânšenâsi] nevešte 'ast.*
One of professors university book on linguistics written is
One of the university professors has written a book on linguistics.

b. *yeki 'az 'satide dânešgâh ketâbi nevešte 'ast [darbâreye zabânšenâsi].*
One of professors university book written is on linguistics
One of the university professors has written a book on linguistics.

The last feature of Persian (and many Iranian languages, (Haig 2011)) is its ability to put PPs in a post-verbal position.

(5) a. *ketâb râ be duste xubam ke rânandete 'otubus 'st dâdam*
Book RA to friend good that driver bus is give
I gave the book to my friend who is a bus driver.

b. *ketâb râ dâdam be duste xubam ke rânandete 'otubus 'st*
Book RA give to friend good that driver bus is
I gave the book to my friend who is a bus driver.

RCE in (1b), the rearrangement of sentential subjects in (2b), the extraposition of PPs in (3b) and (4b), and the post-verbal PPs in (5b) is in line with the predictions of Minimize Domain principle, and the movements are some strategies used in Persian to minimize the processing costs. The results of this study show that grammatical weight, as a functional motivation, is responsible in Persian word order alternations. The data showed that longer RCs, compared with VPs, tend to be extraposed more frequently, in accordance with domain minimization principle (Hawkins 2004). The findings of this research support the idea that constituent ordering is influenced by heaviness (Arnold et al, 2000). They argue that heavier constituents, normally carrying newer information, are difficult to produce, so the producer postpones them as much as possible until later in the sentence. From the hearer point of view, postponing heavy elements makes processing easier and reduces memory load in parsing (Hawkins 1994).

3. Conclusion

This research tried to test the prediction of Hawkins' (2004) theory that head-initial and head-final languages behave differently in ordering the light-heavy constituents, concentrating on Persian, with specific typological features. While its surface structure is SOV, most of its other typological features correlate with VO languages (Dabir-Moghaddam 2001, 2006). The studied structures showed that Persian has created some devices to cut the processing costs short, and by implementing these devices, moves further toward VO type languages.

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ACCURACY AND FLUENCY OF EFL LEARNERS' WRITING: COMPARATIVE EFFECTS OF DYNAMIC WRITTEN AND DIRECT CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK

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ABSTRACT
THE PRESENT STUDY ATTEMPTED TO INVESTIGATE THE POSSIBLE EFFECTS OF DYNAMIC WRITTEN CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK (DWCF) AND DIRECT CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK (DCF) ON EFL LEARNERS' WRITING QUALITIES OF ACCURACY AND FLUENCY. SIXTY-ONE EFL LEARNERS WERE NON-RANDOMLY SELECTED AND ASSIGNED INTO TWO GROUPS OF PARTICIPANTS. AFTER TAKING PET AS THE PRE-TEST, DWCF GROUP RECEIVED THE INNOVATIVEERRORCORRECTIONSTRATEGY INSTRUCTIONS, WHILE DCF GROUP RECEIVED THE CONVENTIONAL FEEDBACK ON THEIR WRITING ASSIGNMENT. AFTER ENDURING THE TREATMENT SESSIONS, PARTICIPANTS TOOK PART IN WRITING POST-TEST. THE NULL HYPOTHESES 1 AND 2 IN THIS STUDY WHICH ASSUMED THAT THE DWCF HAD NO IMPACT ON EFL LEARNERS' WRITING ACCURACY AND FLUENCY WERE SUCCESSFULLY REJECTED DUE TO IMPROVEMENT OF BOTH WRITING ACCURACY AND FLUENCY. NULL HYPOTHESIS 3 WAS REJECTED SINCE DCF HAD A SIGNIFICANT EFFECT ON EFL LEARNERS' WRITING FLUENCY. HOWEVER, NULL HYPOTHESIS 4 WHICH ASSUMED THAT DCF HAD NO IMPACT ON WRITING ACCURACY WAS NOT REJECTED. NULL HYPOTHESIS 5 WAS SUSTAINED AS THERE WAS NO SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE IMPACT OF DWCF AND DCF ON WRITING ACCURACY. FINALLY NULL HYPOTHESIS 6 WAS REJECTED TO SUPPORT ANY SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE IMPACT OF DWCF AND DCF ON WRITING FLUENCY. SOME IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHING IN EFL CONTEXTS CONCLUDED THIS STUDY.

KEY WORDS: EFL, DYNAMIC WRITTEN CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK, DIRECT CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK, ACCURACY, FLUENCY, ASSESSMENT.

1. Introduction

Writing in a foreign language is a daunting skill for language learners and a more challenging task for language teachers in terms of giving the right feedback with maximum efficacy. Many teachers feel confused about the practical steps they should take to help their students improve their quality of their writing performance. Providing students with effective feedback on assigned writing tasks is of particular importance so is the type of feedback, the amount of time and the strategies teachers undertake with language learners. Therefore, different types of written corrective feedback (WCF) and their relative effectiveness on writing accuracy have interested many researchers and educators.

For those educators are involved with enhancing language learners' accuracy in English as second or foreign language (EFL/ESL) writing, there is a crucial line of research. Accuracy is generally defined as

syntactic, lexical and mechanical correctness, as opposed to other writing skills such as the organization of ideas, style, rhetoric and the like (Semke, 1984). When focusing on grammatical accuracy, one contentious aspect of pedagogy for foreign language writing is effective error correction, or corrective feedback. Accordingly, to mark or not to mark, when to mark, how to mark, and what to mark, along with something as seemingly insignificant as what color of ink to use for marking become viable issues in error correction of writing performance in a foreign or second language (Semke, 1984; Dukes & Albanesi, 2013).

Truscott (1996, 1999) opened up a debate by proclaiming that grammar correction may have harmful effects on L2 writing. Ferris (1999) assessed Truscott's original review article, *The Case against Grammar Correction in L2 Writing Classes*, and rebutted Truscott's argument, dismissing this claim as premature. She also contended that there is a need for further studies on written corrective feedback in L2 writing classes. Chandler (2003) performed a study comparing the improvement in linguistic accuracy in writing between an experimental and a control group. The experimental group received error correction and was required to self-correct the errors, while the control group received error correction with no self-correction to be followed. Accordingly, the experimental group showed a significant improvement not only inaccuracy but also in fluency. Her study indicated that the language learners are required to correct their errors that have been marked in order to increase their grammatical and lexical accuracy. However, Truscott (2004) argued Chandler's assertion against the accountability of error correction with no control group as a reference. His counterargument supported the students' writing accuracy to be improved due to such factors as "writing practice, the amount of input obtained in the class, or outside target language exposure" (p. 337)

In this constant debate, Guénette (2007) provided a useful viewpoint concerning corrective feedback. She reviewed the conflicting results on error correction to conclude that they have originated from different research designs and methodologies. Russell and Spada (2006) supported this claim through their meta-analysis of the research on error feedback stating that previous empirical studies on error feedback "address diverse questions, considering a variety types of corrective feedback, different populations, different measures, and different methodologies" (p.139). Johnson (2009) also raised this criticism regarding the issue of research designs and methodology on error correction through his meta-analysis. Guénette (2007) similarly pointed out those confusing variables which are difficult to isolate and could be the second-hand causes to different results in error correction research. In spite of the need for further studies concerning the effectiveness of error correction, Truscott (2007) reaffirmed his argument that "research has found error correction as a clear and dramatic failure," and suggested that "the question we should be asking is how harmful correction is" (p.271).

In an attempt to accommodate the need for feedback to be timely, manageable, meaningful, and constant, Norman Evans, a professor in the Department of Linguistics and English Language at Brigham Young University (BYU), designed the corrective method of dynamic written corrective feedback (DWCF). This strategy was specifically designed to help students improve their linguistic accuracy in writing contexts. It was developed and refined at BYU's intensive English programs in Hawaii and Provo over the course of 15 years. In the current study, the researchers aimed at analyzing the efficacy of this method with Iranian EFL learners.

2. Review of the Related Literature

What can English teachers do to improve the quality of their students' writing? Providing different corrective feedbacks on students' writing grammatical errors is time and energy consuming while each type has its own flaws and drawbacks. Direct corrective feedback (DCF) is perhaps the most conventional type of feedback used by many teachers as they provide the correct forms by crossing out the mistakes, inserting a missing word or writing the correct word above or near the wrong form (Ellis, 2009). DCF refers to "the provision of the correct linguistic form by the teacher to the student"(Ferris, 2006, p.83). DCF can be advantageous since it provides language learners with explicit guidance of how to correct their errors. Ferris and Roberts (2001) believed that it is probably better than indirect or implicit correction especially for writers at low levels of language proficiency. However, DCF may be disadvantageous as it requires minimal processing on the part of the learners despite it might help them

to produce the correct forms when they revise their writing. A recent study by Sheen (2007) suggested that direct written corrective feedback can be effective in promoting acquisition of specific grammatical features in low intermediate level learners.

Due to the constant shortcomings of DCF, a modified theoretical framework was developed by James Hartshorn and his colleagues at Brigham Young University in 2010. This model called for a radical change in the practicality of written corrective feedback and opened up a new gamut for researchers to study the efficacy of this model. Dynamic written corrective feedback (DWCF) is an innovative pedagogical methodology requiring a multifaceted process and interaction between the teacher and the students in order to improve their writing accuracy and fluency. The central principle of DWCF is that the provided feedback to the students' writing should be *manageable, meaningful, timely and constant* (Hartshorn, 2010). It is to mention that DWCF is not an indirect form of feedback to accuracy as it supplies additional meta-linguistic information about the type of errors from a linguistic perspective.

Writing accuracy refers to the errors related to sentence structure, such as the use of determiners, subject-verb agreement, verb tense and semantics (awkwardness, unnecessary insertion or omission, unclear meaning and word order) which are deemed as grammatical. Word choice, including prepositions, and word form errors are categorized as lexical, and mechanical errors are those associated with capitalization, indentation, punctuation and spelling. (Hartshorn et al., 2010; 2012). Wolfe-Quintero, Inagaki, and Kim (1998) define accuracy as "the ability to be free from errors while using language to communicate in either writing or speech"(p.33).

Wolfe-Quintero et al. (1998) wrote about writing fluency in terms of rapidity and ease with in text execution. A description and evaluation of different fluency measures in second language writing can be found in Wolfe-Quintero et al. (1998) who compared 39 studies in order to find the most valid analytical methods which can then be linked to language proficiency. However, their study only compared the rate and length of production units. The assumption behind such a focus was that there is a positive correlation between fluency and writing time: the more words and features the writer produces in a given unit of time, the greater the fluency. Writing fluency therefore refers to the number of words a writer is able to produce in their writing within a particular period of time (Wolfe-Quintero et al., 1998).

Dynamic written corrective feedback was designed specifically as an instructional strategy to improve the linguistic accuracy of L2writing and is based on the principles adapted from skill acquisition theory as well as from pedagogical practice and observation. Early researchers into the study and theorizing of skill acquisition include Anderson (1983), who differentiated declarative knowledge (what one knows) from procedural knowledge (what one can do), and McLaughlin, Rossman, and McLeod (1983) who described cognitive processing becoming more automatic and less of a strain on learner attention. The theory predicts that errors will decline as abundant instruction, practice, and feedback increase (Dekeyser, 2001, 2007), thus allowing the learners to move through stages of declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge toward automatization.

In other words, attempts to operationalize skill acquisition theory have led to DWCF. With this corrective model, writing tasks and feedback are intended to be meaningful, manageable, timely and constant. In addition to supporting the ideas behind skill acquisition, these principles are consistent with findings in neuroscience. For example, researchers have shown the Importance of making instruction, practice, and feedback meaningful and that meaningfulness is the most important criterion the brain uses to determine what material becomes encoded in to long-term memory (Devlin, 2010; Souse, 2010). Other research in neuroscience has supported the need for corrective feedback to be as immediate as possible in order to maximize the benefits of the chemical processes that underlie learning (Willis, 2010).

By tracking the types of errors the students make, the teachers are informed of the most challenging linguistic features to them. In aggregate, this information can also ensure that classroom instruction is focused on what is needed the most. Consequently, the teachers use DWCF to push their students to rewrite a paragraph until it is grammatically sound and error-free. Similarly, tally sheets (a list consisting of error frequencies by type for each paragraph), error lists (an ongoing record of all errors along with their surrounding context), and edit logs (a record of how many edits were needed until the writing was deemed error-free) help students to notice the language they produce (for more details, see Evans et al., 2010; 2011; Hartshorn & Evans, 2012; Hartshorn et al., 2010).

At the same time, writing practice and feedback must also be manageable in order to ensure that it continues to be meaningful. Problems with manageability and the limited attentional capacity of learner shoveled many researchers and practitioners to utilize focused or dynamic corrective rather than comprehensive feedback. However, Van Beuningen (2010) suggested that comprehensive feedback is more authentic and useful for the classroom, and Elliset al. (2008) who suggested that comprehensive feedback would be a better corrective method if we could learn to use it effectively (Bruton, 2009; 2010; Storch, 2010).

In the study, the researchers aimed at examining the relative efficacy of Dynamic Written Corrective Feedback (DWCF) on Iranian EFL learners and to Direct Corrective Feedback (DCF). The need to probe the effectiveness of both methods with Iranian learners' improvement on qualities of writing accuracy and fluency is the first assumption to verify and the possible superiority of either type of feedback is the second to examine.

3. Methodology

3.1 Participants

In this study, out of the population of Iranian EFL learners at intermediate level of language proficiency in Tehran, two samples of 63 were selected from the enrolled EFL learners at two private language institutes of Safir and Shokouh, in Fall, 2015.

The participants' range of age was between 15 to 35 years of both male and female genders. Randomly selected, the participants were later assigned unequally into two experimental groups in this study. The participants' previous experiences of language learning, their social and ethnic backgrounds were all neutralized in this study to hinder their confounding effects.

Table 1. The Sample Composition

Gender	Group1 (DWCF)	Group2 (DCF)
Female	15	14
Male	18	14
Total	33	28

3.2 Instruments and Materials

A quasi-experimental research, this study utilized the following instruments for data collection:

3.2.1 Preliminary English Test (Pre-Test)

To homogenize the participants for their initial differences in language proficiency, the reading and writing section of Preliminary English Test (PET) was administered as the pre-test in this study. It consisted of 3 sections of reading and writing, listening and speaking. A total of 70% points across the 4 skills is mandatory to pass the PET (*Cambridgeenglish.org*). The pre-test writing papers were co-rated by the researchers following the PET writing scale.

3.2.2 Corrective Feedback Treatment Materials

To Group 1, dynamic written corrective feedback (DWCF) was introduced and practiced in 12 sessions. Initially, the students were instructed for the codes, symbols, tally sheets and other requirements in DWCF. Then, students had 10 minutes writing assignment and in the sessions ahead interactive feedbacks were provided. To Group 2, direct corrective feedback (DCF) was introduced and implemented during the same 12 sessions. Some topics were selected for the students to write about as their homework assignment. The writing assignments in the next following session were collected for direct feedback and rating. For Group 2, instead of interactive feedback, the written errors were simply highlighted before the correct forms of the errors were provided.

3.2.3 Test of Written English (Post-Test)

After going through the DWCF and DCF instructions as treatments, both groups of participants performed on a test of Written English as the post-test in this study. Their writing performance was

assessed for the quality of accuracy and fluency. Following Wolfe-Quintero, Inagaki and Kim (1989), the accuracy of English writing performance was measured in terms of the Error-Free T-Unit Ratio (EFT/T) calculated as the total number of grammatically error-free T- units (EFT) in a given piece of writing divided by the total number of T-units.

Writing fluency which is simply defined as the "number of words...a writer is able to include in their writing within a particular period of time" (Wolfe-Quintero et al., 1998, p.14), was measured by the total number of words written per T-unit in this study. As the posttest, both Group 1 and Group 2 were given 5 topics. They had to choose 2 out of 5 to write about. The topics included:

(1) What do you do on atypical evening?
(2) What makes you crazy in life?
(3) Should everyone go to university?
(4) Why appearance is important for you?
(5) Describe your dream holiday.

The average length of the written papers on each topic was between 70-100 letters in 15 minutes. The allotted time for writing on 2 topics was 30 minutes. The fluency and accuracy of the participants' written product as the dependent variables in this study were going to be measured.

3.3 Procedure

The participants' performance on PET was scored by the researchers. After selecting the participants, they were assigned into DWCF (Group 1) and DCF (Group 2) with equal number of the participants in each. The two types of feedback treatments were performed for 12 sessions.

Table 2. The Treatment Schedule

Session	Procedure
1	Administering the Pretest (PET- Reading and writing sections)
2- 3	Instructing the DWCF and DCF groups to read and interpret the codes of corrective feedback on the writing assignments in this study
4-16	Implementing DWCF and DCF Treatment to the experimental for 12 sessions
17-18	Administering the writing Posttest

With Group 1, the treatment started after a brief instruction on the coding system to be followed in dynamic corrective feedbacks to their writing tasks. A wide range of topics that interested the students and for them they had sufficient background information was selected and presented to them, including: appearance, routine activity, things make us angry, importance of education, poverty, friendship, freedom and etc.

Table 3. Coding Symbols (Hartshorn, 2008)

D	= Determiner	S/PL	= Singular/Plural
SV	= Subject Verb Agreement	C/NC	= Count/Noncount
VF	= Verb Form	?	= Meaning is not clear
ro	= Run-on Sentence	AWK	= Awkward Wording
inc	= Incomplete sentence	∿	= Word Order
VT	= Verb Tense	C	= Capitalization
PP	= Preposition	P	= Punctuation
SPG	= Spelling	⌒	= Omit
WF	= Word Form	∧	= Something is missing
WC	= Word Choice	¶	= New Paragraph

Next, the teacher collected their tasks to provide 75% of his feedback on grammaticality and linguistic errors and 25% on the content and quality of writing. The participants' writing papers returned to them every other session. The participants in Group 1 were provided with the error categories which were located in every paragraph on their rated papers within a Tally Bar Sheet. The individual errors were provided with adequate language context in their Error Log. The participants had to revise and resubmit their assignment as often as their final drafts were clean and error-free. With Group 2, the teacher collected the writing tasks every session to be corrected and given direct corrective feedbacks. The errors were simply highlighted for the students' notice. The correct forms of the errors were also provided. The rated and scored papers returned to the students every other session.
On the posttest, both groups wrote on 2 separate topics in 30 minutes. The written tasks were scored for measures of accuracy and fluency. The quantification was run for the percentage of the grammatically accurate words per assignment (accuracy measure) as well as the total number of written words (fluency measure).

4. Results
In this study, both groups performed on PET as the standard test of English proficiency administered as the pretest to eliminate their initial differences in language proficiency. The descriptive statistics for the Group 1 and Group 2 on the pre-test are presented in Table 4.
Table 4. Descriptive statistics for PET

Groups	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Group 1 Pretest	33	18.00	40.00	32.69	5.77	-.860	.409	.693	.798
Group 2 Pretest	28	19.00	42.00	30.42	5.18	-.154	.441	.302	.858
Valid (listwise)	N0								

As it can be seen in Table 4, the mean scores and measures of standard deviations indicate that the participants performed more or less similarly on PET, with Group 1 obtaining slightly the higher mean score. Regarding the symmetry of distribution, both groups are negatively skewed, but due to the insignificant amount of skewness it doesn't violate the assumption of normality in either group. The measures of standard deviations also display a similar variance of scores in two groups with Group 2 holding a narrower SD=5.18. Based on the statistics, the researcher considered the two groups as more or less homogeneous.

After the treatment, both groups performed on a writing task as the posttest in this study. The participants were required to choose two out of five topics to write about. The descriptive statistics for the qualities of Accuracy and Fluency in their writing performance is presented in Table 5.

Table 5. Descriptive statistics for Posttest Accuracy and Fluency
Descriptive Statistics

	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std.	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Group1Fluency	33	93.00	219.00	157.69	30.84	-.054	.409	-.520	.798
Group1Accuracy	33	1.03	17.95	8.8914	4.248	.371	.409	-.752	.798
Group2Fluency	28	84.00	230.00	135.32	34.45	.993	.441	.967	.858
Group2Accuracy	28	2.17	18.52	9.9321	3.99	-.199	.441	.107	.858

As it can be seen in Table 5, the measures of Fluency ranged from 93 to 219 in Group 1 and from 84 to 230 in Group 2. For measures of Accuracy or the percentage of the grammatically accepted words, the range was from 1.03 to 17.95 for Group 1, and 2.17 to 18.52 for Group 2. Overall, the mean scores and measures of standard deviations indicate that while the participants' fluency in Group 1 improved more, the participants' accuracy in Group 2 showed a better record.
In order to verify the first two assumptions in this study on the effectiveness of dynamic written corrective feedback (DWCF) and directive corrective feedback (DCF), the researchers who assumed the normality of the data and the interval scale of the scores on two measures of accuracy and fluency, planned to run a Multivariate Analysis of Variances (MANOVA).

Table 6. Multivariate Analysis of Variances for Group 1 Fluency and Accuracy on Posttest
Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	DWCF Fluency	8822.136[a]	13	678.626	.596	.828	.290
	DWCF Accuracy	270.768[b]	13	20.828	1.289	.299	.469
Intercept	DWCF Fluency	630016.358	1	630016.358	553.493	.000	.967
	DWCF Accuracy	2064.105	1	2064.105	127.779	.000	.871
Group 1 Pre-test	DWCF Fluency	8822.136	13	678.626	.596	.048	.790
	DWCF Accuracy	270.768	13	20.828	1.289	.029	.669
Error	DWCF Fluency	21626.833	19	1138.254			
	DWCF Accuracy	306.921	19	16.154			
Total	DWCF Fluency	851104.000	33				
	DWCF Accuracy	3186.548	33				
Corrected Total	DWCF Fluency	30448.970	32				
	DWCF Accuracy	577.689	32				

a. R Squared = .290 (Adjusted R Squared = -.196)
b. R Squared = .469 (Adjusted R Squared = .105)

As it can be seen in Table 6, the index of F for Fluency in Group 1 is F(13) =0.596, significant at p-value=0.048, and for Accuracy is F(13)=1.289, significant at p-value=0.028. In other words, considering Group 1's performance on Pre-test and Posttest, they showed a significant improvement on both qualities of Fluency and Accuracy in their writing performance. Interpreting the measures of $Eta^2_{Fluency}$= 0.790 and $Eta^2_{Accuracy}$=0.669, a reference was made to Pierce et al (2004). Accordingly, both measures of Eta^2 were

large enough to conclude that the dynamic writing corrective feedback had meaningful impact on the participants' writing achievement. Similarly, a Multivariate Analysis of Variances (MANOVA) was run with the fluency and accuracy measures for Group 2.

Table 7. Multivariate Analysis of Variances for Group 2 Fluency and Accuracy on Posttest

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	DCF Fluency	20120.424[a]	9	2235.603	3.372	.014	.628
	DCF Accuracy	171.830[b]	9	19.092	1.328	.290	.399
Intercept	DCF Fluency	331604.160	1	331604.160	500.170	.000	.965
	DCF Accuracy	1706.144	1	1706.144	118.646	.000	.868
Group 2 Pretest	DCF Fluency	20120.424	9	2235.603	3.372	.014	.628
	DCF Accuracy	171.830	9	19.092	1.328	.090	.399
Error	DCF Fluency	11933.683	18	662.982			
	DCF Accuracy	258.842	18	14.380			
Total	DCF Fluency	544787.000	28				
	DCF Accuracy	3192.801	28				
Corrected Total	DCF Fluency	32054.107	27				
	DCF Accuracy	430.672	27				

a. R Squared = .628 (Adjusted R Squared = .442)

b. R Squared = .399 (Adjusted R Squared = .098)

It can be seen in Table 7 that the index of F for Fluency in Group 2 is F(9) =3.372, significant at p-value=0.014, and the index of F for Accuracy is F (9)=1.328, insignificant at p-value=0.090. In other words, considering the Group 2's performance on Pre-test and Posttest, they showed a significant improvement on the quality of fluency but the quality of accuracy did not show any significant improvement in their writing performance.

Accordingly, the researchers concluded that the direct corrective feedback had meaningful impact on the participants' writing achievement when it came to fluency improvement. To measure the size of this effect, the measures of Eta^2 were read in Table 7. Measures of $Eta^2_{Fluency}$=0.628 and $Eta^2_{Accuracy}$=0.399 reported, respectively. According to Pierce et al (2004), the measures of Eta^2 were large enough for fluency and at moderate size for accuracy. Therefore, the researchers concluded that direct corrective feedback had significant effect on Iranian EFL learners' writing fluency but no considerable influence on improving their accuracy in writing performance.

Finally, to verify the last assumption in this study on the possible difference that dynamic written corrective feedback (DWCF) and direct corrective feedback (DCF) would make on EFL learners' writing performance, an independent-samples t-test was run for the quality of accuracy and fluency separately between two groups' writing performance.

Table 8. Independent-Sample T-test for the Quality of Accuracy

		Levene's Test		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
Accuracy	Equal variances assumed	.731	.396	-.980	59	.331	-1.040	1.06221	-3.16626	1.08470

Equal variances not assumed			-.985	58.352	.329	-1.040	1.05675	-3.15583	1.07427

As it can be seen in Table 8, the insignificant measure of F (F=.731) in Levene's Test for Equality of Variances at p-value=.396, enabled the researchers to assume the homogeneity of variances between the performance of both groups on Post-test. The measure of t (2, 59)=-.980 was insignificant at the p-value=.331. It shows that there was no meaningful difference between the dynamic written corrective feedback and direct corrective feedback when it comes to the quality of Accuracy.

Table 9. Independent-Sample T-test for the Quality of Fluency

		Levene's Test		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
Fluency	Equal variances assumed	.007	.936	2.676	59	.010	22.37554	8.36284	5.64154	39.1095
	Equal variances not assumed			2.651	54.819	.010	22.37554	8.44002	5.46012	39.2909

Similarly as Table 9 shows, the insignificant measure of F (F=.007) in Levene's Test for Equality of Variances at p-value=.936, enabled the researchers to assume the homogeneity of variances between the performance of both groups on Post-test. The measure of t (2, 59)=2.676 was significant at the p-value=.010, which enabled the researchers to support the different effects of dynamic written corrective feedback and direct corrective feedback on EFL learners' writing performance.

5. Discussion

This study was a quasi-experimental research on the possible differentiating effects of conducting dynamic written corrective feedback and direct corrective feedback on the qualities of accuracy and fluency in Iranian EFL learners' writing performance. The statistical results supported the positive effects of DWCF in terms of improvement on the quality of fluency. One possible explanation might be the application of DWCF strategy as an interactive method of swapping feedback and setting certain time limit for writing fluently to coach the EFL learners to have organized, well-structured and more importantly rapidity in writing. This is because in DWCF, learners write a paragraph in 10 minutes on almost a daily basis and receive detailed feedback in the form of coded symbols on all linguistic errors the following class session to increase their pace and rate of writing. Similarly, the positive impact of DWCF on the writing accuracy was statistically supported too. Since DWCF provides feedback to the students in an interactive way and does not overload them with all types of errors at once, they can have a better grasp of their own errors and can learn from their mistakes.

DWCF benefits from four major principles as the written feedbacks are manageable, meaningful, timely, and constant. These qualities would result in maximizing L2 writing accuracy (Evans et al., 2010). In other words, students are go through an organized procedure that starts with an awareness of the grammatical errors, mechanical errors and lexical errors. Furthermore, feedbacks are given indirectly through codes so that students have to discover their errors by themselves.

Similarly, on the other side, direct corrective feedback (DCF) is well-known as the traditional method of providing feedbacks to the EFL learners' writing tasks. Several studies suggest that DCF is particularly beneficial in particular contexts (e.g., Bitchener & Knoch, 2010; Chandler, 2003; Farrokhi & Sattarpour, 2012; Hashemnezhad & Mohammadnejad, 2012; Van Beuningen, DeJong & Kuikin, 2012). In this study, since the researchers tried to present and practice a wide range of writing skills, the participants could

experience challenging writing tasks with different topics within certain time limits which eventually led to the improvement in writing fluency.

Several recent studies have examined the relative effectiveness of different types of direct Corrective Feedback on improving accuracy, too (Bitchener et al., 2005; Ashwell, 2000; Bitchener, 2008; Bitchener & Knoch, 2008; Bitchener, Young & Cameron, 2005; Chandler, 2003; Ellis, Sheen, Murakami, & Takashima, 2008; Fathman & Whalley, 1990; Ferris, 1997, 1999; 2004; 2006; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Hartshorn, 2008; Lalande, 1982; Russell & Spada, 2006; Sheen, 2007), however, firm conclusions are still somewhat elusive. Accordingly, in this study, direct corrective feedback could not have any significant and immediate influence on writing accuracy. One possible reason was that the learners received instructive corrections to their mistakes which provided less motivation and more discouragement on their part. Finally, the researchers in the current study proved that DWCF and DCF had different effect sizes on writing fluency. Based on the researchers' long years of teaching experience, the positive effects of DWCF on writing fluency were more considerable as students were more willing to cooperate in writing classes.

6. Conclusion

Perhaps the most salient outcome of this study is finding a proof for a more systematic approach to providing corrective feedback in EFL writing classrooms for both qualities of accuracy and fluency. Dynamic written corrective feedback has improved writing accuracy and fluency as an important pursuit that stands in a sharp contradictory position to more traditional approaches to process writing that maybe inadequate for helping students maximize their linguistic accuracy. Perhaps this is because traditional approaches such as direct corrective feedback lack the required frequency and coverage of practice and feedback needed for writing improvement. Thus, efforts to improve accuracy may be more successful if separated from attempts to develop other aspects of EFL/ESL writing.

Despite it was recognized that linguistic accuracy may not be a priority in every L2 learning context and that DWCF may not be well suited for all ESL writers, these findings seem promising for EFL teachers who are striving for motivating the students to improve the accuracy of their L2 writing. Care should be exercised in generalizing beyond the context of this study, if these findings represent an appropriate description of what might be observed in similar settings, then ESL/EFL writing teachers and administrators may want to weigh the possible benefits and trade-offs of such an approach to improving writing accuracy within their specific teaching and learning contexts.

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AN ANALYTIC OBSERVATION OF AN IRANIAN EFL TEACHING CLASS

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ABSTRACT
MOST OF THE TIMES TEACHERS COVER A GREAT DEAL OF MATERIALS IN THEIR SYLLABUS. LATER, THEY FIND THEIR STUDENTS UNABLE TO TAKE IN AND RECITE EVEN A BIT OF PRESENTED LESSONS. IT MAY NOT BE UNREALISTIC TO SAY THAT NEITHER THE TEACHER KNOWS WHY TO TEACH NOR STUDENTS KNOW THE REASON BEHIND SELECTION OF LESSON CONTENTS. NEITHER DOES THE TEACHER KNOW THE BEST METHOD TO TEACH NOR THE STUDENTS ARE TAUGHT HOW TO LEARN. THEY MEMORIZE AND REPEAT THE MATERIALS PARROT-LIKE WITHOUT QUESTIONING. STUDENTS NEED TO BE TAUGHT HOW TO LEARN THROUGH MOST EFFICIENT METHODS INCLUDING EXPERIENCING COMMUNICATIVE ACTIVITIES IN REAL-LIFE SITUATIONS. THE PRESENT REPORT AIMS AT PROVIDING INSIGHTS INTO THE WAYS OF TEACHING EFL AND THEIR SHORTCOMINGS IN AN IRANIAN CONTEXT. THE DATA WERE GATHERED THROUGH JOURNAL WRITING, AUDIO AND VIDEO RECORDING, AND INTERVIEW. NON-PARTICIPANT OBSERVATION WAS USED TO COLLECT REQUIRED INFORMATION. CONSEQUENTLY, THE STUDY SHEDS LIGHT ON SOME OF THE PROMINENT FEATURES ASSOCIATED WITH IRANIAN ENGLISH TEACHING CONTEXT.

KEY WORDS: JOURNAL WRITING; SCHOOL EDUCATION; INTERVIEW

Introduction

Iranian education favors three consecutive levels: Ebtedaee or primary school, Dabirestan or high school level one, and Dabirestan level two. English is introduced in the first year of high school as a compulsory subject. Students learn English in a foreign context devoid of direct contact with English natives, and learning is shaped by textbooks designed and written by Iranian experts assumed to be localized for Iranian contexts. After completing second level, students are qualified for nationwide university entrance examination, a section of which includes questions to test their knowledge of English they have acquired during previous years.

Procedure

To collect data, research journal was applied since according to Hatch and Lazaraton (1991) one of the best ways to begin to define what interests you and your thoughts about what you already know is with a research journal(Hatch& Lazaraton.1991,10). Research journals were written over a period of four months by the researcher himself rather than by the participants of the study concerning the topic of the investigation. The project was carried out in three high schools in Kermanshah. Personal agency was an important quality of this project with the researcher writing journals from the very beginning. To facilitate writing and keeping pace with classroom, the notes, memos, and annotations were all in Persian. To triangulate data and To capture the particular experiences of individuals in a more systematic and controlled way the researcher asked learners to keep record of certain aspects of their learning experience through "solicited diaries' as they are called by Bell (1999). Due to effects that stress might have in the quality and quantity of their writing, they were told that diary keeping was part of their homework. To be in line with discovery-oriented nature of qualitative projects, most data collection was fluid and open ended and the researcher did not specify anything in advance as it is recommended by Glaser and Strauss (1967) who were explicit about emergent nature of qualitative data. The research was narrowed down only gradually to the end of the term when the already collected data was analyzed to find any possible patterns. Then to provide evidence for the validity of outcomes, data was triangulated by interviews with teachers and students. Once the emerging patters were identified, attempts were made to validate findings through triangulation.

Research journal

Research journals are diaries kept by the researchers themselves while conducting the project. It is a common recommendation in social science to keep a journal by researchers (Altrichter and Holly, 2005; Hammersley and Atkinson, 1995). Zoltan Dornnyi (2001) believes if novice researchers keep journals by some standardizes format, it can be a valuable source of data. Considering the importance of recording details in qualitative research, Richards (2005) argues that researchers need to account for every step throughout the research and document where the data come from. Therefore, research journal was used by in this study to gain insight into educational system in Iranian context.

An extract of the researcher's journal in a seventh grade class is presented to find out how it leads to understanding of teaching process in Iranian context:

It is 8:05 in the morning and I had arrived in the classroom waiting for the teacher to come. Some of the students are talking about the content of the book. One of them speaks of the lucid picture in the book. Another one is reading over the alphabets silently. A student from the back of the class is talking about his yesterdays' experience of having his English class held in English laboratory enthusiastically. Mostly, students have a blurred vision of what might happen in upcoming moments. Finally a young teacher with a smile on his face enters the classroom. It took him five minutes to do the roll. Immediately after he is over with the names, he talks about the importance of learning English language in Persian. He tells them to listen carefully while looking at the book to keep track of teacher's pronunciation. He pronounced the alphabets carefully two times before he asks them to repeat after him. He writes each letter exemplified with a word on the board. He translates each word into Farsi to make them understand. Afterwards, he tells them to memorize the words. His method of teaching makes me think about the way children learn to speak their native language. They learn their mother tongue direct contact with people around them.

Results

In recent years an increasing number of people are attending English institutes beside formal education. A number of reasons play important role to lead learners toward studying English. High pressure of mass media, popularity of internet, vocational needs, and being as a prerequisite in higher education are factors most prominently motivate people to learn English. However, in spite of the pressing needs of Iranian people to master English to meet the current requirements of their social life, formal education system has been unable to provide a satisfying condition.

While many Iranian learners have enough motivation and English is welcome by their parents, the outcome is not satisfactory. "Contents of the books need great revision. Although students books have undergone some changes, it is not enough" Says Mr. Sharifi, one of the experienced teachers. He continues that in addition to the content, English class time needs to be lengthened. He believes that children must start with words and statements. After enough exposure to English input, they should be provided with chances to speak. He recites Postovsky(1982) who believes that second language learners can learn language basically the same fashion by stressing listening comprehension prior to speaking. Only after they that they must be taught alphabet following by writing instruction as they are doing in their native language.

An important issue in majority of the classes observed by researchers was that they were devoid of English labs. Even in schools that were equipped great size of book contents and limited time made it actually impossible to benefit. Rezaee, an English teacher, believes that national entrance examination to university emphasizes some parts of the book, for example grammar, while vocabulary and listening remain in the margin. In other words, most students teach to test. Majority of students aim to get high marks irrespective of acquiring English proficiency. That is way they enter higher levels with varying degrees of competence. Moreover, students needs and interests have been left unnoticed in planning teaching and learning methods and book content. Obviously teachers cannot possibly structure classes to deal specifically with the interest of each student. However connecting interests, schema theory, and motivation may lead to some assumption for second language learning. Ansari who is approaching retirement, speaks of inadequacy of reliance on translating texts in both schools and universities. He claims that even in university students memorize long lists of words out of actual related context. Most teachers are transmitters of knowledge and students remain inactive for most of the class time. Most of the classes are overcrowded and little chance is provided to interact with teachers let alone classmates.

One of the reasons that accounts for low efficiency of teaching methods and subsequently low proficiency of learners is that textbooks include a small number of dialogues, and too much attention paid to grammar to the point that most of the final exam consists of grammar points with comprehension questions and dialogue serving a minor role. Many teachers point the importance of expectation and goals of English teachers. Even though it is claimed that reading skills and translation are the focus of schools, only an amalgam of unnecessary and unfunctional grammar and vocabulary has been included. It causes motivation and perseverance decline among Iranian learners as they find out that their needs and goals are not compatible. Learners are not classified into separate levels. It is due to the fact that the only criterion is students' score, and they automatically move to next level without any realistic discrimination in functional ability. They may range from too weak to too strong. In fact most of the class time becomes too difficult for some learners and boring for others. Subsequently, teaching becomes a frustrating and demanding task for teachers. The results of this study demonstrated some dominant features: First, a lack of understandable spoken input was felt. This is due to the fact that majority of teachers were themselves do not speak in the second language. Most teachers lay emphasis on grammar and reading and even if a teacher speaks English in the classroom it does not favors students since students are less familiar with spoken form of language than written form. Secondly, there is great interest to cover the full range of book contents which are beyond language proficiency of most learners. As a result, English teachers are often compelled to employ Grammar Translation Method in their classes, students, irrespective of their ability and motivation levels, do not have much freedom to choose from among learning strategies. Therefore, there does not seem to be a strong relationship between students' needs, motivation and foreign language learning strategies. It is because of lack of communicative method and variation of techniques in the classroom. In a class where the dominant teaching method is Grammar Translation in which, for each lesson of high school English books, reading passages are read a few times, they are translated into Persian, the Persian equivalents of the new words and expressions are given, and grammatical structures are explained in Persian majority of high school students follow a similar procedure to get prepared for the exams: They memorize the first language equivalents of the new words and expressions out of context, they use the equivalents to understand the reading passages, and they study the Persian explanations of the grammatical structures along with few foreign language exemplifications of the structures. Learners who believed that knowing a foreign language will be

beneficial to them in the future expended more energy and time to develop language skills. Finally, it was obvious that both teachers and students consider translation and grammar as most important strategies employed in both class and examination.

Conclusion

Although Iranian students study English as a foreign language for six years, they do not develop high proficiency to deal with real world situations. They may develop grammatical competence to get prepared for school and national entrance exam. Several reasons account for inadequacy of English teaching in Iranian context including:

1. Inappropriate or unrelated English textbooks
2. Unqualified teachers
3. Insufficient class time
4. Improper learning starting point
5. Shortage of facilities

These shortcomings may be tackled by changing our own view as well as planning programs in line with latest innovation in teaching and learning EFL sponsored by government.

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MJLTM

BURNOUT AMONG PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS OF ENGLISH SUBJECT IN MALAYSIA

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ABSTRACT
TEACHING CAN BE STRESSFUL AND, IT MAY RESULT IN TEACHERS' BURNOUT, IF ONE FAILS TO MANAGE IT. HIGH LEVEL OF EMOTIONAL EXHAUSTION AND DEPERSONALIZATION, AND LOW LEVELS OF PERSONAL ACCOMPLISHMENT ARE THE MAJOR FACTORS OF BURNOUT (MASLACH, 1999). THERE IS A PLETHORA OF RESEARCH IN DIFFERENT CONTEXT WITH INCONSISTENT FINDINGS BUT THE PRESENT STUDY TRIED TO ASCERTAIN THE LEVEL OF BURNOUT AMONG PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS IN MALAYSIA. BESIDES, THE STUDY TRIED TO DETERMINE IF THERE WAS ANY SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE BETWEEN PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS IN THEIR BURNOUT LEVEL. 1136 MALAYSIAN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHERS WERE RANDOMLY SELECTED AND PARTICIPATED IN THE STUDY. THE MASLACH BURNOUT INVENTORY-EDUCATORS SURVEY (MBI-ES) (MASLACH, JACKSON, & SCHWAB, 1986) WAS USED TO COLLECT THE DATA ON THE TEACHERS' BURNOUT. DESCRIPTIVE AND INFERENTIAL STATISTICAL ANALYSES WERE USED TO ANALYZE THE DATA. THE FINDINGS SHOWED THAT THE TEACHERS EXPERIENCED AVERAGE LEVEL OF BURNOUT. IN ADDITION, IT WAS FOUND THAT THE SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS EXPERIENCED SIGNIFICANTLY HIGHER LEVEL OF EMOTIONAL EXHAUSTION AND DEPERSONALIZATION. THE STUDY IS EXPECTED TO HAVE USEFUL IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHERS, ADMINISTRATORS, AND RESEARCHERS.

KEYWORDS:BURNOUT, MALAYSIA, PRIMARY SCHOOL, SECONDARY SCHOOL, MBI-ES

1. Background of the study

In recent years, there has been an increasing interest in job burnout among teachers around the globe. It involves loss of motivation that lingers physical, mental and emotional exhaustion and a long period of frustration with work. Freudenthal (1973, p.65) was one of the pioneers to study burnout and he pointed out that job burnout is a "state of fatigue or frustration brought about by devotion to cause, way of life, or relationship that failed to produce the expected reward". Maslach and Pines (1984) identified three dimensions of burnout, namely, emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment.

There is abundant research which focused on three dimensions of burnout among teachers through using Maslach's inventory. Johnson et al. (2005) and Kyriacou and Sutcliffe(1977) opined that teaching is one of the most stressful occupations but the literature review indicated that there might be reasons that cause burnout among teachers. Some researchers (Turk et al., 1982; Litt and Turk, 1985; Carlson and Thompson, 1995; Kyriacou and Sutcliffe, 1978; Dunham, 1992; Burke &Greenglass, 1994; Chan, 1998; Brotheridge&Grandey, 2002; Thuraisamy, 2002; Mukundan&khandehroo, 2009; Mukundan&khandehroo, 2010; Mukundan&Ahour, 2011; Jamshidirad, Mukundan and Nimehchisalem, 2012; Mousavy, Thomas &Mukundan, 2012; and Thomas, Mousavy and Mukundan, 2012) diagnosed the major causes behind burnout which include, but not limited to,inadequate salary and perceived low status of the profession, role conflict and ambiguity, time pressure, student misbehavior, relationships with supervisors, and large class size, a great number of emotional demands compared to most other

professionals. Another group of researchers (Guglielmi and Tatrow, 1998; Shan, 1998; Vandenberghe and Huberman, 1999) argued that stress and emotional demands can result in emotional and physical exhaustion, cynical attitudes about teaching, reduced feelings of personal accomplishment, and lower job satisfaction in teaching profession. However, Taylore (2001) found that emotionally intelligent individuals can deal better with life's challenges and control their emotions more efficiently. Harrod and Scheer (2005) also noted that personal success and everyday interactions with others can be influenced by emotional intelligence which is the driving force behind the factors.

Burnout is a serious psychological syndrome that can affect not only an individual's well-being, but also the functioning of whole organizations, such as schools. It is characterized by emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and decreased personal accomplishment. The level of burnout among teachers in the field of education has a negative impact on student success. Burnout produces critical consequences for teachers' performance, their teaching profession, and students' learning process. As a result, conducting research on teacher burnout would be beneficial (Chan, 2006).

The phenomenon of job burnout among Language teachers in Malaysia has become an issue in both primary and secondary level. Numerous studies have been also carried out in Malaysia to explore teacher burnout with relatively small sample size. Considering the limitations of previous studies, the purpose of the present study, though, was to examine whether English language teachers who work at primary and secondary schools experience the same level of burnout. Therefore, this study aimed to investigate the following research questions:

1. What is the level of burnout among primary and secondary English language teachers in Malaysia?
2. Is there a significant difference between Malaysian primary and secondary school English language teachers' level of burnout?

2. Literature Review

The term burnout was first utilized by Freudenberger (1974) to explain the emotional and mental exhaustion that individuals experience besides the lack of job satisfaction. Burnout is a complicated psychological reaction of individuals who have demanding one-to-one associations as their usual working life (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Espeland (2006) described burnout as a circumstance in which a person confronts a low level of energy associating with a reduction in self-confidence and feelings of enthusiasm in his job. It is a process that commences when the feelings and attitudes of individuals become negative because of the pressure from extreme work. According to Patterson, Collins, and Abbott (2004), individuals who experience burnout believe that tensions from their work are not endurable any longer. Maslach (1982) as a pioneer of burnout research mentioned some sources of burnout such as inadequate reward associating with the feeling of working more for less, extreme workload, paucity of control over the work environment, absence of fairness, and lack of a sense of community. Burnout occurs for professionals such as lecturers, teachers, managers, nurses, doctors, lawyers, administrators, and others who are dealing with pubic (Lawrenson & Mcklinnon, 1982). However, in educational settings, the significance of burnout is more highlighted. The reason is arisen from the fact that burnout will influence not only the mental and social health of educators but also the quality of their teaching performance which may affect the progress of students (Blandford, 2000, cited in, Tsigilis, Zournatzi & Koustelios, 2011). According to Haberman (2005), teachers' burnout not only intensifies their attrition, but also produces too much financial burden for school systems.

Teaching has been recognized as a stressful job. Elementary, middle, and high school teachers have continuous interactions with parents, students, administrators, and stakeholder which require their attention to cope with a large amount of requests and obligations (Mclauchlan, 2010). In today's society, the work-related stress can lead to teacher burnout which may influence the happiness and health of teachers. Farber (1984) stated that beside stress alone, a stressful circumstance where a person knows that there will be no support or no rewards may result in burnout. Other researchers pointed out that lack of equipment, deficiency of support, lots of paperwork, large class size, and student behavioral problems are important factors that cause burnout in teachers (Friedman, 1995; Kyriacou & Sutcliffe, 1978).

According to Byrne (1999), background variables, organizational factors, and personality/individual differences are the three contributing elements to teacher burnout. Background variables may include gender, age, marital status, and years of experience. Organizational factors are work overload, classroom climate, role conflict, and social support. Personality/individual differences are teachers' self-esteem and their sense of control (Comerchero, 2008). Schonfeld (2001) and Grayson and Alvarez (2008) claimed that teachers' burnout has consequences such as low self-esteem, paucity of self-confidence, and extreme depression for themselves. In addition, it can influence students' behavior whether inside or outside of the school.

2.1 Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educator's Survey (MBI-ES)

In order to measure individuals' burnout, Maslach, Jackson and Schwab (1986) developed an instrument called Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey (MBI-ES) including the three dimensions of burnout. Maslach (1996, cited in, Goetzinger, 2006) identified three degrees for burnout as follows: a) low degree: having low scores on Emotional Exhaustion and Depersonalization and high scores on Personal Accomplishment; b) an average degree: having average degree on all three dimensions, and c) high degree: having high scores on Emotional Exhaustion and Depersonalization and low scores on Personal Accomplishment.

Emotional Exhaustion as the first and the most common aspect of burnout refers to the feelings of being emotionally depleted by teachers' contact with other individuals. Teachers who are dealing with Emotional Exhaustion explain it as a tired feeling which increases over time while the emotional resources are consumed. Depersonalization refers to the negative feelings and attitudes of teachers toward students, colleagues, and workplace. The third aspect of burnout, reduced Personal Accomplishment, refers to the feeling of teachers when assuming that they are not capable of contributing to the development of students any longer. Maslach (1982) stated that it is not necessary that individuals suffer from all three aspects of burnout; they may experience whether Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization, and/or reduced Personal Accomplishment separately. According to Schaufeli and Salanova (2007), Emotional Exhaustion and Depersonalization are the fundamental aspects of burnout. Freidman (2003) mentioned that teachers who demonstrate high levels of burnout, particularly Emotional Exhaustion, may assume that they don't have enough emotional capability to work with problematic students and then leaving their teaching responsibilities.

According to Sedgwick (1998), burnout is formally clarified and subjectively experienced as a state of physical, emotional, and personal causes. Emotional Exhaustion (EE) indicates the feelings of over extension and exhaustion which is caused by daily work pressures and conflicts with the colleagues. Depersonalization (DP) illustrates the development of negative attitude and impersonal responses towards the people with whom one works. Meanwhile, Personal accomplishment (PA) points to the sense of personal achievement that is accompanied by self-esteem. It is inversely related with burnout.

2.2 Past Studies

Although many studies have been implemented in relation to teachers' burnout, the results achieved from studies are not conclusive. McKenzie (2009) conducted a study on 400 school teachers in the suburb of Chicago, Illinois. The results indicated that teachers had high level of Emotional Exhaustion, very high level of Depersonalization, and low level of Personal Accomplishment.

Ghonsooly and Raeesi (2012) conducted a study on 100 English language school teachers in Iran, and they found a low level of burnout among participants. Some researchers claimed that secondary school teachers experience higher level of burnout than the primary school teachers (Anderson & Iwanicki, 1984; Schwab, Jackson, & Schuler, 1986). However, others such as Byrne (1991) and van Horn, Schaufeli, Greenglass, and Burke (1997) found that both primary and secondary school teachers experience the most important dimension of burnout which is Emotional Exhaustion. Researchers such as Kokkinos (2006) found that primary school teachers demonstrated higher level of burnout than their secondary counterparts.

In a study by Thuraisamy (2002) on 136 secondary school teachers at Klang District, she found that Malaysian teachers had a moderate level of burnout in which their level of Emotional Exhaustion was higher than their level of Depersonalization and reduced Personal Accomplishment.

Mukundan and Khandehroo (2010) pointed out that very few studies have been conducted regarding to the scope of subject specific teachers' burnout. In their study they uncovered a high level of burnout among the public school teachers of English subject. They mentioned that all participants demonstrated high level of Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization, and reduced Personal Accomplishment.

Thomas, Mousavy, Mukundan, and Nimehchisalem (2012) investigated the relationship between burnout and Trait Emotional Intelligence (TEI) among 30 secondary school teachers in Malaysia through administering the Maslach Burnout Inventory. Their study results showed significant correlation only between Depersonalization (DP) and TEI.

In another study by Mousavy, Thomas, Mukundan, and Nimehchisalem (2012) on burnout, they examined the level of burn out among high and low experienced teachers. They focused on 30 English teachers from different nationalities: Iranian, and Malaysian at UPM to evaluate if there is any relation between burnout and experience level. The outcome of the analysis revealed that there is no significant difference in depersonalization and personal accomplishment scores between low and high experienced teachers. But the result of this study revealed that there is a significant difference in Emotional Exhaustion scores between low and high experienced teachers.

A small scale study also by Jamshidirad, Mukundan, and Nimehchisalem (2012) investigated the effect of gender on the three dimensions of burnout among 28 English language teachers in Malaysia. The results showed that gender was not a predictor of burnout in this sample.

In another major study, Soltanabadi Farshi and Omranzadeh (2014) surveyed the effect of gender, education level, and marital status of the EFL teachers on their burnout level in three syndromes of Emotional Exhaustion (EE), Depersonalization (DP), and Personal Accomplishment (PA) on 250 English teachers of primary, secondary, high school, and university level. The findings showed that there is no significant difference between male and female teachers and their burnout level as well as married and single teachers. Moreover, the findings showed that education level of teachers significantly influenced their burnout level in all three syndromes.

A recent study by Mousavy and Nimehchisalem (2014) reported the level of burnout among a randomly selected 315 English language teachers in Malaysia. They also investigated whether these teachers' gender, age and marital status could significantly contribute to their burnout levels. The study found that the teachers suffered from significantly high levels of burnout in reference to their PA scores. In comparison with the male teachers, female teachers reported significantly higher levels of burnout considering their emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and personal accomplishment. Additionally, older teachers (40) were significantly more burned out than their younger colleagues (30), regarding their depersonalization and personal achievement mean scores. Eventually, married teachers indicated significantly higher levels of burnout compared with those who were not married.

Several studies have also been done to identify the caused linked to burnout among teachers in developed countries (Australia, Canada, Israel, New Zealand, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom, and the United States). In Coulter and Abney's study (2009), they reported that they found similar causes of burnout in professional educators. Age, gender, marital status, as well as level of education, teaching level, teaching experience, and job satisfaction are the variables that were taken into consideration while studying the level of burnout among teachers. The most common ones were gender, marital status, teaching experiences, as well as professional and religious backgrounds.

Researchers (Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter's study, 1996; Greenglass, Pantony, and Burke, 1988; Lau, Yuen, and Chan, 2005, Salami, 2011, & Toker, 2011) uncovered that female staff had higher emotional exhaustion than their male colleagues. They explored the relationship between teachers' demographic variables and burnout and discovered gender differences in all three burnout syndromes. However, Jordan, Al-Qaryoti and Al-Khateeb (2006) conducted a study among 447 teachers and found no significant association between the teachers' burnout level and their gender. In terms of the connection between marital status and burnout level of teachers, studies conducted by Jackson, Schwab, and Schuler (1986) found that bachelor teachers are in higher levels of burnout than married ones. However, Bayram, Gursakal, and Bilgel (2010) revealed that marital status has no significant effect on burnout level of teachers. Few studies have been done to determine the connection between the level education of

teachers and their level of burnout. Moreover, it has been reported (Sezer, 2012) that burnout level is high among teachers with higher levels of education.

Thuraisamy (2002) argues that Malaysian teachers' burnout plays an influential factor in students' future which has become a crucial issue for the various sections of the society. However, Zubiadah (1999, cited inThuraisamy, 2002) pointed out that generally teachers in Malaysia have other roles such as curricular administrators, co-curricular advisors, and other responsibilities besides their official teaching which cause pressure from the extreme workload and finally lead to burnout among them. One question that needs to be asked, however, is whether burnout emerges as teachers become experienced and whether there is a substantial difference between primary and secondary teachers when a large number of participants involve. The sample size of the previous studies has been relatively small and the generalisibility of much published research on this issue is problematic. Hence, a better study would examine a large, randomly selected sample of teachers in Malaysia.

3. Method

3.1 Design

This study adopted quantitative approach, descriptive in nature, to carry out the study. The mode of enquiry was through a survey as this approach was economical and timesaving and accurate in terms of results that portrays the exact linkage between the independent variables and dependent one.

3.2 Location and Participants

This research was conducted in Universiti Putra Malaysia and 1136 male and female Malaysian English language teachers from primary and secondary schools were randomly selected and participated in the study. Table 1 presents demographic information of the participants. As can be seen, 75.5% of the participants were Female, and also 46% of the entire respondents were Malay. Other background information of the respondents are illustrated in detail in the table below

Table 1. Background Information of the respondents

Gender	Male	280	24.6
	Female	856	75.4
Ethnicity	Malay	523	46.0
	Chinese	345	30.4
	Indian	256	22.5
	Others	12	1.1
Number of Children	none	285	25.1
	1-3	612	53.9
	4-5	188	16.5
	6 and above	51	4.5
Education	Diploma	309	27.2
	Degree	766	67.4
	Masters	60	5.3
	PhD	1	.1
Specialization	TESL/TEFL	599	52.7
	English Studies	163	14.3
	Applied Linguistics	11	1.0
	Literature	27	2.4
	Other	336	29.6
Service Length	Less than 1 year	26	2.3
	1-4 y	127	11.2
	5-8 y	272	23.9
	9-12 y	129	11.4
	13-16 y	104	9.2
	17+	478	42.1

3.3 Instruments

Two different questionnaires were administered to collect the required data. The first one was used to gather information about the demographic variables of the research participants. The Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educator's Survey (MBI-ES) was the second instrument utilized in this study. It was developed by Maslach, Jackson, and Leiter (1996) to measure the level of burnout among educators. This questionnaire is a 7- point Likert scale ranging from 0-6 (0 = never and 6 = every day) and comprises three dimensions which are Emotional Exhaustion (EE) with nine items, Depersonalization (DP) with five items, and reduced Personal Accomplishment (PA) with eight items. Low, high, and moderate are the three common levels of burnout. According to Maslach et al., (1996), burnout level is considered high if EE and DP scores are higher than 27 and 13 respectively. Likewise, the level of burnout is considered high if PA score is lower than 31. Table 2 below illustrates the three levels of burnout (high, average, low) according to burnout scores.

Table 2. Range of Experienced Burnout

MBI Subscales	Low	Medium	High
EE	<16	17-26	>27
DP	<6	7-12	>13
PA	>39	38-32	<31

According to Mueller (1986), "Validity and reliability are the benchmark criteria for assessing the quality of all measurement devices and procedures" (p. 57). When choosing a questionnaire, considering the validity and reliability of it is an essential issue. The validity of MBI was demonstrated by Maslach and Jackson (1986). Moreover, Schwab and Iwanicki (1982) examined the validity construct of MBI. Regarding the validity of MBI, Schwab and Iwanicki (1982) reported that the Maslach Burnout Inventory measures the same crucial theory as those identified by other research in helping professionals. While the Cronbach alpha reliability score for the survey in this study was .080, the reliability scores for the three dimensions were as follows: Emotional Exhaustion = .90, Depersonalization = .76 and Personal Accomplishment = .76. According to Maslach, Jackson, and Leiter (1996), the reliability of MBI was acceptable. The Cronbach's alpha for Emotional Exhaustion was .90, for Depersonalization was .79, and for Personal Accomplishment was .71.

3.4 Data Collection Procedure

Necessary permissions were granted before administrating the survey. To collect the needed data, the researchers distributed the survey to the school headmasters and they were briefed about the scope of the projects and then they were requested to circulate the survey to English teachers. In order to ensure the accuracy of the responses reported by the teachers, they were asked to fill in their free time and return it within a week. Out of 3000 distributed surveys, the researchers received 2500 of them and eventually1136 participants were randomly selected for the scope of this research.

3.5 Data Analysis Method

Data analysis was conducted by the use of SPSS version 17. Descriptive and inferential statistics, including frequency, percentage, means, standard deviations, and independent sample t-test were used in the analysis.

4. Results and Discussion

The school (primary/secondary) was the independent variable and the three burnout dimensions (EE, DP, PA) were the dependent variables of the study. The sum of related items of each burnout dimension was computed. Descriptive and inferential statistics including means, standard deviation, frequencies, and confidence interval for mean and independent sample t-test were used to analyze the data. Table 3 shows the level of burnout of the teachers in primary (N=821) and secondary (N=315) schools as well as the burnout level of the whole respondents (N=1136) pertaining to the three dimensions of Emotional Exhaustion (EE), Depersonalization (DP), and reduced Personal Accomplishment (PA).

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics of Burnout

	School Type	N	Mean	SD
EE	Primary	821	20.82	10.60
	Secondary	315	23.67	12.26
	Total	1136	21.61	11.16
DP	Primary	821	6.43	5.07
	Secondary	315	6.70	5.58
	Total	1136	6.51	5.22
PA	Primary	821	34.00	7.50
	Secondary	315	34.30	7.58
	Total	1136	34.15	7.52

The results, in table 3, indicate that primary school teachers in Malaysia experience moderate level of burnout. The primary school teachers who participated in this study experience moderate level of burnout pertaining to Emotional Exhaustion (m=20.82), Depersonalization (m=6.43), and reduced Personal Accomplishment (m=34.00). It was found that the secondary school teachers also experience moderate level of burnout in Emotional Exhaustion (m=23.67), Depersonalization (m=6.70), and reduced Personal Accomplishment (m=34.15).

The study also made an attempt to determine if there was any significant difference between primary and secondary school teachers in their level of burnout (i.e., do the teachers working at primary and secondary school experience the same level of EE, DP, and/or PA?). Independent sample t-test was used to analyze the data to get the results. The results of the t-test are presented below in table four.

Table 4. Independent Sample t-test

		Mean	Mean Dif.	Df	t	P
EE	Primary	20.82	-2.85	1134	-3.87	.000
	Secondary	23.67				
DP	Primary	6.43	-.27	1134	-.762	.026
	Secondary	6.70				
PA	Primary	34.00	-.30	1134	-.59	.937
	Secondary	34.30				

As demonstrated in table 4, the t-test results show that there is a significant difference between primary and secondary school teachers ($p<.05$) in their level of burnout pertaining to the reduced Emotional Exhaustion (EE) and Depersonalization (DP). The results show that the secondary school teachers experienced higher levels of burnout pertaining to EE and DP. There is, however, no significant difference ($P>.05$) in the level of teachers' burnout in reduced Personal Accomplishment (PA). In other words, the teachers in both primary and secondary schools were found to experience the same level of reduced Personal Accomplishment (PA).

The results of this study show that the teachers experienced average level of burnout. In addition, it was found that the secondary school teachers experienced significantly higher level of Emotional Exhaustion and Depersonalization. Although this study used a larger sample size, it corroborates the findings of Thuraisamy (2002),Thomas, Mousavy, Mukundan, and Nimehchisalem, (2012), Jamshidi, Mukundan and Nimehchisalem (2012), SoltanabadiFarshi and Omranzadeh (2014), Anderson and Iwanicki (1984), Schwab, Jackson, and Schuler (1986) who found that secondary school teachers experience higher level of burnout than the primary school teachers.

However, the findings of the current study do not support the previous researches conducted by McKenzie (2009),Ghonsooly and Raeesi (2012), Kokkinos (2006), van Horn, Schaufeli, Greenglass, and Burke (1997), and Byrne (1991) who found almost high level of burnout among their participants. In contrast, Ghonsooly and Raeesi (2012) found a low level of burnout among Iranian participants.

Contrary to expectations, this study did not find a significant difference between the previous studies which were carried out in the context of Malaysia. Overall, the findings imply that the level of burnout among Malaysian teacher has been relatively moderate for the past two decades. The reason for this is not clear but it may have something to do with service length of the teachers as almost 58% had less than 16 years of teaching experiences. It is anticipated that teachers with less years of service may not show high level of burnout.

5. Conclusion

This research survey was an effort to find out the level of burnout among primary and secondary school teachers of the English language in Malaysia. Besides, the study tried to determine if there is any significant difference between primary and secondary school teachers in terms of their level of burnout. Based on the results, it was found that the participants of this study experienced moderate levels of burnout in the three dimensions (EE, DP, and PA). The findings also revealed that there was a statistically significant difference between the primary and secondary school teachers in their levels of burnout. In other words, the secondary school teachers experienced higher levels of burnout in Emotional Exhaustion (EE) and Depersonalization (DP). Though, no significant difference was found between the primary and secondary school teachers pertaining to their level of reduced Personal Accomplishment (PA).

Further studies is suggested to be undertaken to examine different variables such as age, gender years of teaching practice and other independent variables so that a general and vivid picture can be drawn with regards to the level of burnout, and pertinent causes can be discussed in detail. A comparative research is also recommended to investigate the burnout level of English language teachers with that of teachers who teach other subjects may lead to interesting findings. Moreover, a qualitative study can be designed to explore the probable causes that may lead to burnout among teachers.

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THE TYPE OF VOCABULARY LEARNING STRATEGIES USED BY EFL IRANIAN STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT
ONE OF THE MOST IMPORTANT CHALLENGES THAT LEARNERS WILL FACE DURING THE PROCESS OF SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING IS LEARNING VOCABULARY. VOCABULARY HAS BEEN RECOGNIZED AS CRUCIAL TO LANGUAGE USE IN WHICH INSUFFICIENT VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE OF THE LEARNERS LED TO DIFFICULTIES IN SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING. THUS, IN THE CASE OF LEARNING THE VOCABULARY IN SECOND LANGUAGE, STUDENTS NEED TO BE EDUCATED WITH VOCABULARY LEARNING STRATEGIES. THIS STUDY AIMS TO EXPLORE THE TYPE OF VOCABULARY LEARNING STRATEGIES USED BY 10 ADVANCED-LEVEL EFL IRANIAN STUDENTS IN AN INSTITUTE IN RASHT. TO BETTER UNDERSTAND THE USE OF VOCABULARY LEARNING STRATEGIES (VLSS) BY THESE PARTICULAR STUDENTS A QUALITATIVE RESEARCH WAS ADOPTED. HENCE, THE METHOD OF CONDUCTING IS AN OPEN-ENDED INTERVIEW THAT WAS CONDUCTED INDIVIDUALLY WITH TEN STUDENTS. THE CONCLUDED STRATEGIES SUCH AS THE USE OF MONOLINGUAL DICTIONARY, THE LEARNING A WORD THROUGH READING (GUESS MEANING FROM CONTEXT), STUDY NEW WORDS MANY TIMES, CONNECT THE WORD TO ITS SYNONYMS AND ANTONYMS, APPLYING NEW ENGLISH WORDS IN SENTENCES, AND THE USE OF VARIOUS ENGLISH LANGUAGE MEDIA WHICH ARE RELATED TO DETERMINATION, METACOGNITIVE, MEMORY STRATEGIES ARE POPULAR STRATEGIES AND THE LEARNERS ARE KEEN IN USING THEM. THE SURVEY WAS BASED MOSTLY ON SCHMITT'S (1997) STUDY.

KEY WORDS: VOCABULARY LEARNING STRATEGIES, LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES, VLS, LLS

1. Introduction

Acquiring vocabulary in L2 is rather a difficult and demanding process and most of the language learners wish to know which vocabulary learning method and/or activity is more beneficial or even the best one; however, the responses to this question vary and there is no clear-cut answer. Though, there are some various suggestions and conclusions from the previous studies such as keeping a notebook, regularly reviewing and using vocabulary items in context. Because there are individual differences in language learning such as gender, age, social status, motivation, attitude, aptitude, culture, etc.; what works for one learner might not work for another. Therefore, none of the methods and techniques has proved that they can work all the time, in all classes, and with all students. As a result, it might be appropriate to stick to Grenfell and Harris' (1999) statement that "Methodology alone can never be a solution to language learning. Rather it is an aid and suggestion" (p. 10).

Second language (L2) acquisition depends crucially on the development of a strong vocabulary. In the second language acquisition (SLA) sub-discipline known as second language vocabulary acquisition (SLVA), researchers have focused their attention on the need for second language learners to optimize their vocabulary knowledge (Singleton, 1999; Schmitt, 2000). Vocabulary learning strategies (VLS) are a part of language learning strategies which are receiving more attention since the late 1970s and their

investigation has advanced our understanding of the processes learners use to develop their skills in a second or foreign language. Nation (2001, p.217) has considered this conscious choice factor when defining vocabulary learning strategies. A strategy would need to a) involve choice, that is, there are several strategies to choose from; b) be complex, that is, there are several steps to learn; c) require knowledge and benefit from training; and d) increase the efficiency of vocabulary learning and vocabulary use.

2. Statement of the Problem

A great number of people from non-English speaking countries migrates to English speaking countries for various reasons. They cannot adjust socially, economically, and culturally if they cannot speak English. Delay in helping them to master vocabulary quickly can delay their ability to speak English. Ultimately, this can lead to more economic and social problems. The problem is that their inability to speak English can hinder the development of appropriate communication skills needed for gainful employment, success in schools, and adapting to the new culture. Thus, their chance of succeeding in schools and being employed cannot be assured as a result of their communication problems.

Researchers (Harley, 1996; Kolich, 1985; O'Rourke, 1974) point to vocabulary learning as a vital part of each student's life. According to O'Rourke (1974), it affects students' thoughts, actions, aspirations, and success, especially in academic achievement.

Studies noted that without an adequate knowledge of relevant vocabulary, students have difficulty performing the tasks required of them both in school and on the job (Harley, 1996; Kolich, 1985). Harley's study revealed a close connection between reading comprehension and vocabulary knowledge. According to Kolich, students who use a wide variety of words have little or no difficulty reading fluently, understanding the author's intent, and expressing themselves correctly and concisely in both oral and written forms. Harley (1996) noted that vocabulary knowledge is fundamental to the development of second language proficiency. While many researchers accept the importance of vocabulary acquisition in language proficiency and academic achievement, their ideas about how vocabulary should be learned have varied widely. Mckeown and Curtis (1987) recognized two ways of learning vocabulary: word recognition and word meaning. According to their study, word recognition is mainly acquired through context.

According to Fan (2003), many researchers and lecturers reported insufficient vocabulary knowledge as a major factor in low performance of the learners in exams. Furthermore, inadequacy in vocabulary knowledge may disable learners to develop their proficiency. Vocabulary is generally given little emphasis in the university curriculum in Asian countries (Fan, 2003). Studying vocabulary learning strategies is a study which focuses more on students themselves. In most Asian countries, curriculum designers and EFL instructors try to emphasize on holistic or integrative approach but in most cases they cannot change teacher-centered classrooms to student-centered ones. It's possible to make a student-centered environment where the curriculum designers often use methods and materials according to the learning needs of native speakers of English.

Kafipour, Yazdi, and Shokrpour (2011) found that Vocabulary is generally given little emphasis in the university curriculum in Iran. Generally, the emphasis on English teaching in universities in Iran is on the four language skills. Teaching vocabulary in many classrooms is largely incidental, that is, when a particular word or phrase appears difficult for the students, they are told the definitions. Occasionally, the collocations of the target words or information about how the words are used may be added to their homework, for example, whether they are used to express negative emotions or whether the word is used in formal situations. As Catalan (2003) states finding out about new vocabulary items is left to the discretion of the students, and they are encouraged to turn to dictionaries to look up meanings of words. It is high time for teachers to look into ways to enhance vocabulary knowledge in students.

3. Significance of the study

This study aims to survey students' vocabulary learning strategies. An awareness of individual differences in learning makes EFL educators and curriculum designers more sensitive to their roles in teaching and learning. It also helps the students to develop strategies and ways to become more motivated and independent learners. The understanding of the students' beliefs of vocabulary learning and their vocabulary learning strategies use enables teachers and researchers to design appropriate

materials and activities to help them improve their vocabulary learning so as to enhance their lexical competence.

4. Objectives of the study

However, far too little attention has been paid to vocabulary learning strategies used by EFL Iranian students; the purpose of this study was to determine what type of vocabulary learning strategies used by Iranian EFL students. It possibly contributes to identify implications for teaching. As Johnson and Johnson (1998, p. 280) state, it seems "increasingly unlikely that we are going to understand very much about teaching if we fail to try to understand learning at the same time". Because of a small sample size and the nature of the study (qualitative study) the results of this research might not be transferable to other EFL students.

5. Research Question

This study aims to answer the following question:

What are the vocabulary learning strategies actively employed by Advanced-level EFL students in learning English?

6. Review of Literature

Vocabulary learning strategies can be considered a subset of general learning strategies in second language acquisition. Interest in learning strategies first developed in the 1970s with research to identify the characteristics of good language learners (Naiman et al., 1978; Rubin, 1975). O'Malley and Chamot define learning strategies as "the special thoughts or behaviors that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn or retain new information" (1990, p. 1). This very broad definition is echoed by Schmitt in defining vocabulary learning strategies. Schmitt says learning is "the process by which information is obtained, stored, retrieved and used... therefore vocabulary learning strategies could be any which affect this broadly defined process" (1997, p. 203). This definition leaves open to question whether vocabulary learning is incidental or deliberate, a factor which has been much debated in the literature. In his definition Nation makes clear the intentional character of vocabulary learning.

Learners need help in order to improve the way they go about learning vocabulary. Sokmen (1997, p. 225) argues for helping learners learn how to acquire vocabulary on their own, noting that it is "not possible for students to learn all the vocabulary they need in the classroom". Cunningsworth (1995, p. 38) regards helping learners develop their own vocabulary learning strategies as "a powerful approach", which can be based on sensitization to the systems of vocabulary, encouragement of sound dictionary skills and reflection on effective learning techniques. In view of the importance of these strategies, it is useful to find out what vocabulary learning strategies are and examine how they help to build up one's vocabulary, and what strategies the textbooks should introduce to learners.

Cook and Mayer (1983) suggested a basic distinction between vocabulary activities. It is between vocabulary activities which are useful for (a) the initial discovery of a word's meaning and (b) remembering that word once it has been introduced. When learners encounter a word for the first time, they can use Determination Strategies, such as their knowledge of the language, contextual clues or reference materials, to figure out the new meaning. They can also use Social Strategies, such as obtaining initial information about a new word by asking someone else. These strategies are labeled Discovery Strategies. Once learners have been introduced to a new word, it is worthwhile to remember it using Consolidation Strategies, which can come from the Social, Memory, Cognitive, or Metacognitive Strategy groups.

According to Gu (1994) particular strategies are used by second language learners for the acquisition of new words in the second language are called 'vocabulary learning strategies'. Whereas, language learning strategies (LLSs) are sub category of general learning strategies and vocabulary learning strategies (VLSs) are considered as a part of language learning strategies Nation (2001).

Brown and Payne (1994) identify five steps in the process of learning vocabulary in a foreign language: (a) having sources for encountering new words, (b) getting a clear image, either visual or auditory or both, of the forms of the new words, (c) learning the meaning of the words, (d) making a strong memory connection between the forms and the meanings of the words, and (e) using the words. Consequently, all vocabulary learning strategies, to a greater or lesser extent, should be related to these five steps (Fan, 2003, p. 223).

Schmitt and McCarthy (1997) indicated that the empirical research done on vocabulary learning strategies has tended to deal with individual or small numbers of strategies, with very few studies looking at the group as a whole. Some researchers have attempted to develop a framework of category of vocabulary learning strategies. O'Malley and Chamot (1990) divided language learning strategies into three types: metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies, and social/affective strategies. The learning strategy system developed by Oxford (1990) contains six groups: Social, memory, cognitive, metacognitive, affective and compensation. Social strategies (SOC) use interaction with other people to improve language learning. Memory strategies (MEM) relate new material to existing knowledge. Cognitive strategies (COG) exhibit the common function of manipulation or transformation of the target language by the learner. Metacognitive (MET) strategies involve a conscious overview of the learning process and making decisions about planning, monitoring, or evaluating the best ways to study. Affective strategies exhibit how to manage one's emotions in language learning. Compensation strategies involve different ways of compensating for missing knowledge. These were different proposals of classification of vocabulary learning strategies, but none of them was satisfactory. However, Schmitt (1997) only adopted four strategy groups: Social, Memory, Cognitive, and Metacognitive. Schmitt stated there was no category in Oxford's system which adequately describes the kind of strategies used by an individual when faced with discovering a new word's meaning without recourse to another person's expertise. He added another new category –Determination Strategies (DET) to the taxonomy.

Schmitt (1997) claimed that the lack of attention on vocabulary learning strategies is due to the lack of a comprehensive list or taxonomy of vocabulary learning strategies. He compiled a list of vocabulary learning strategies based on the following sources. First, vocabulary reference books and textbooks were examined to provide the majority of the initial strategies. Second, Japanese intermediate level students were asked to write a report on how they studied English vocabulary words. Third, several teachers were asked to review the list and add any strategies they were aware of from their own experience. He moved on to organize a new list of vocabulary learning strategies based on Rebecca Oxford's (1990) classification system of learning strategies and Cook and Mayer's (1983) Discovery/ Consolidation strategies.

Schmitt (1997) final taxonomy of vocabulary learning strategies is organized according to both the Oxford (1990) system and the Discovery/Consolidation distinction. The taxonomy of vocabulary learning strategies contains five strategy groups with 58 individual strategies. Schmitt (1997) claimed that culture is another learner characteristic which has been shown to be important for vocabulary. He stated that learners from different culture groups sometimes have quite different opinions about the usefulness of various vocabulary learning strategies.

The research has tended to focus on vocabulary learning strategies rather than language learning strategies. Several studies have produced taxonomies of vocabulary learning strategies (Schmitt & Schmitt 1993; Schmitt, 1997; Nation, 2001; Fan, 2003; & Gu, 2003). First, Schmitt and Schmitt (1993) divided learning vocabulary in to remembering a word and learning a new word. Secondly, GU (2003) classified second language (L2) vocabulary learning strategies as cognitive, metacognitive, memory and activation strategies. Thirdly, Schmitt (1997) improved vocabulary learning strategies based on Oxford (1990) into determination (not seeking another person's expertise) strategies, social (seeking another person's expertise) and though the remembering category comprises social, memorization, cognitive and metacognitive strategies. Finally, Fan (2003) who refined Gu (2003)'s classification, categorized vocabulary learning strategies into a "primary category" which contains dictionary strategies and guessing strategies as well as, "remembering category" which integrates repetition, association, grouping, analysis and known words strategies.

Ideally, learners should be made aware of 'good', efficient strategies, so that they could freely and consciously choose the one(s) suitable for them. It should be borne in mind, though, that a strategy that works well for one student may completely fail with another and that for a concrete learning situation one strategy may work better than another.

7. Vocabulary Learning Strategies (VLSs)

Vocabulary learning strategies (VLSs) are steps taken by the language learners to acquire new English words. There are a wide range of different vocabulary learning strategies as demonstrated by the classifications of vocabulary learning strategies are proposed by different researchers (Stoffer, 1995;

Nation, 2001; & Gu, 2003). In addition, there is a wide-ranging inventory of vocabulary learning strategies developed by Schmitt in 1997. While a variety of definitions of the vocabulary learning strategies have been suggested, this study has applied the definition that is suggested by Schmitt (1997) who saw it as two main groups of strategies:

1).Discovery strategies: Strategies that are used by learners to discover learning of words;

2).Consolidation strategies: a word is consolidated once it has been encountered.

He categorized vocabulary learning strategies into five sub-categories:

1).Determination strategies: they are individual learning strategies (Schmitt, 1997).

2).Social strategies: they are learners learn new words through interaction with others (Schmitt, 1997).

3).Memory strategies: they are strategies, whereby learners link their learning of new words to mental processing by associating their existing or background knowledge with the new words (Schmitt, 1997).

4).Cognitive strategies: they are strategies that do not engage learners in mental processing but is more mechanical means (Schmitt, 1997) and

5).Metacognitive strategies: they are strategies related to processes involved in monitoring, decision-making, and evaluation of one's progress (Schmitt, 1997).

After viewing these different classifications the present study used Schmitt's taxonomy as a basis of the study. It was developed based on Oxford (2003)'s classification of language learning strategies.

8. Classifications of Language Learning Strategies

There are many and various classifications of language learning strategies. O'Malley et al. (1985) declared the use of 24 strategies employed by learners of English as a second language in the United States. They divided these strategies into three main categories: "Metacognitive", "Cognitive", and "Socio-affective" strategies. In fact, there is another accepted classification as suggested by (Oxford, 1990). She distinguished between the direct and indirect strategies. She added that direct strategies contain "Memory", "Cognitive", and "Compensation" strategies while indirect strategies include "Metacognitive", "Affective", and 'Social" strategies. Each of these is divided into a number of subscales. Oxford (1990) distinguished several aspects of learning strategies; 1) Relate to communicative competence, 2) Let learners become self-directed, 3) Increase the role of teachers, 4) Are problem-oriented, 5) Special behaviors by the learners, 6) Include many aspects of the learners as well as the cognitive approach, 7) Support learning both directly and indirectly, 8) Are not always observable, 9) Are teachable, 10) Are flexible, and 11) May be influenced by a variety of factors.

Oxford and Crookall (1989) described language learning strategies as "learning techniques, actions, learning to learn, problem-solving, or learning skills" (p.37). They come to an end that no matter what learning strategies are called, strategies can make learning more efficient and effective and the strategies used by learners could lead towards more proficiency or competence in a second language. Oxford classified an extensive category of language learning strategies under two super ordinate categories as the Direct and Indirect strategies. Figure 1 presents Oxford (1990)'s classification.

With regards the direct strategies (which are more directly associated with the learning and the use of the target language in making good judgment that they require the mental processing of the language), these are the Memory strategies which "[...] store and retrieve new information"; Cognitive strategies which "[...] enable learners to understand and produce new language by many different means", ranging from repeating to analyzing expressions to summarizing and Compensation strategies which "[...] allow learners to use the language despite their often large gaps in knowledge" (Oxford,1990, p. 37). As for the Indirect strategies (which help the learning process internally, i.e. which support and manage language learning without directly involving the target language), there are the metacognitive strategies which "allow learners to control their own cognition"; Affective strategies which "help to regulate emotions, motivations, and attitudes"; and Social strategies "help students learn through interaction with others" (Oxford 1990, p. 135). However, Schmitt (1997) classified vocabulary learning strategies based on Oxford's taxonomy.

9. Inter-relationships Between VSL and LLS

'Language learning strategies' form a sub class of 'learning strategies' in general whereas 'vocabulary learning strategies' constitute a sub class of language learning strategies. There are researchers (Oxford &

Scarcellat, 1994; & Schmitt, 1997) who have acknowledged that there is a correlation between vocabulary learning strategies and language learning strategies.

A considerable number of researchers (Wenden & Rubin 1987; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990 & Schmitt, 1997) asserted that VLS form a sub-class of framework for language learning strategies and for this reason are applicable to a wide variety of language learning (LL) tasks, sighting from the more remote ones, such as vocabulary, pronunciation and grammar to integrative tasks such as reading comprehension and oral communication.

A few studies which include a study by Schmitt (1997) have manifested that LLS are not inherently 'good' for various factors, for example the contexts in which the strategies are used, frequency of use, the combination with other strategies, language portability, background knowledge, the texts, target language, LL proficiency level, and language characteristics.

The importance and popularity of vocabulary learning strategies in the group of language learning strategies in terms of their actual use is reflected by the fact that the vast majority of language learning strategies listed in taxonomies such as in Oxford (1990)'s, are either vocabulary learning strategies (all strategies in the memory category), or can be used for vocabulary learning tasks. In spite of this, research into language learning strategies has tended to neglect vocabulary learning strategies, preferring to focus on language learning as a whole.

In learning any language, vocabulary is the center focal point of acquisition. As put forward by McCarthy (1992) "without words to express a wider range of meanings, communication in L2 just cannot happen in any meaningful way (p.50)". Vocabulary has been gradually recognized as crucial to language use in which insufficient vocabulary knowledge of the learners led to difficulties in second language learning.

Nation (2000) describes 'learning burden' of a word as the amount of effort that a learner puts in learning the word. According to him, "different words have different learning burdens for learners with different backgrounds and each of the aspects of what it means to know a word can contribute to its learning burden" (p. 23). Thus, in the case of learning the vocabulary in second language, students need to be educated with vocabulary learning strategies. They are mostly persuaded to use basic vocabulary learning strategies (Schmitt, 2000). However, teachers may help to decrease students' learning burdens by providing some organized vocabulary learning strategies for them.

10. Method & Materials

The purpose of the present study is to examine the use of vocabulary learning strategies (VLS) by Iranian EFL students at Advanced-level to better understand the ways that they applied to learn new words in English. It was decided that the best method for this investigation to better understand the use of VLSs by these particular students is to adopt the qualitative research design. Cresswell (2008) identified qualitative research as an investigative method for understanding a phenomenon based on separate methodological traditions of inquiry that elicit human conditions or social problem. In addition, the researcher is the main instrument of analyzing the data. Personally, the researcher is interested in this topic because she has been taught in an EFL (English as a foreign language) context where it was very difficult to gain access to teaching and learning materials of the English language.

As Merriam (1988) explained, interview utilization is one of the major sources to obtain qualitative data from subjects. Hence, the method of conducting an interview is one of the most popular means to investigate, research and to inquire data from the one phenomenon. The interviews were conducted individually with ten students (four males and six females) who are studying English as a foreign language in Advanced-level to gain a deep understanding of the strategies that they used to learn new words in English.

11. Results and Discussion

11.1. Use of Dictionaries

The first common strategies which have been used by participants was using a monolingual dictionary (e.g. English to English dictionary) which is under categorization of determination. The popularity of this strategy is expected simply because the use of a monolingual dictionary is a common practice among second and foreign language learners. These dictionaries give detailed guidance on pronunciation,

grammar, and usage with explanations written in a controlled, simplified vocabulary. Other than that, the dictionaries also provide examples of words used in various contexts (Carter, 1987).

An explanation for the common use of a monolingual dictionary among these students is that in Advanced-levels, most of the time, the teachers encourage the students to refer to the dictionary and the students are expected to learn new words on their own. Another reason that can be accounted for the result is related to the process of learning language as the participants become mature, the more advanced they become. An explanation by Ahmed (1989), which is also true for the subjects of the present study, is that more successful learners at the upper proficiency levels have moved on from using bilingual dictionaries to using monolingual ones, in which they make use of some of the information in such dictionaries beyond merely just the definitions.

11.2. Learning New Words through Reading

Another common strategy was guessing from textual context is under the determination category. This is determination strategy where one makes guesses from the textual context.

One possible explanation for the findings is related to the Iranian education system whereby in most of the English language classrooms, teachers have used the same teaching method to improve and assist the learning and acquiring of new vocabulary process. The findings are consistent with Haggan (1990) who has found the use of newspapers in EFL classes to be a successful method. However, the most acceptable explanation for using this strategy which is also true for the current study has been provided by Oxford and Scarcellat (1994) as "by far the most useful strategy is guessing from various given contexts" (p.237).

11.3. Study and Review Regularly

The third strategy which was mentioned by the learners was studying new words many times. This strategy is under categorization of metacognitive strategy. The importance of metacognitive strategies has been emphasized by O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Mazanares, Russo, and Kupper (1985, p. 561) by stating, "students without metacognitive approaches are essentially learners without direction or opportunity to review their progress, accomplishment, and future directions". According to Anderson (2002b, p. 1), developing metacognitive awareness in learners may also lead to the development of stronger cognitive skills and much deeper processing. It results in critical but healthy reflection and evaluation of thinking. The learners review the words regularly until they fix them in their memory. This is best done by setting aside a specific amount of time each day for vocabulary study. During that time they look up the new words and review the old ones.

11.4. Connecting the Word to its Synonyms and Antonyms

Learning synonyms and antonyms should be a part of all vocabulary building processes. So, learners in this study mentioned that they make use of it as a memory strategy. There are a number of reasons for their choice: First, it increases the number of words they retain. Second, synonyms and antonyms are items often tested on English language exams. Third, they are (generally) easier to learn and remember than other non-related words due to the relationship they have with each other. Learning words in combination or relation to other words improves one's retention.

11.5. Applying New English Word in Sentences

Hence, one of the more significant findings to emerge from this study was that the respondents applied new English words in their speaking. It can be considered as a memory strategy. For example, they practice new words to ask questions in English class and interact with native speakers while chatting on the Internet. A possible explanation for this might be that these students benefited from the receptive and productive knowledge of vocabulary learning in a foreign language, however, not as much as a second language.

Nation (2001) and Webb (2005) found the receptive and productive role of vocabulary learning in second language. However, Monderia and Wiersm (2004) explained the receptive vocabulary learning as learning the meaning of a second language word to target language, and productive vocabulary learning makes the learner able to translate a word from L1 to L2. Another possible explanation for this issue have been identified by Webb (2005) who indicated that the greater part of vocabulary is learned receptively through reading or listening and production through writing and speaking.

11.6. Use of Various English Language Media

Another important finding of this investigation showed that, using the English-language media (songs, movies, internet, computer games, TV programs, etc.) is also among the high frequency strategies are used by the students. Besides, using materials which involve authentic language use is also listed among the frequency strategies used. A possible explanation is that the popularity of this metacognitive strategy may relate to the accessibility of the materials. Moreover, authentic materials are good in terms of learning new words in their contexts. As mentioned in the literature review strategies involving authentic language use are demonstrated by Stoffer (1995). This category was the first category of Stoffer (1995) classification and later Schmitt (2000) included this strategy in his taxonomy as sub category of metacognitive strategies. This result may be explained by the fact that the highly developed technology is becoming a major part of vocabulary learning and second language learning process.

11.7. Social Strategies

It is interesting to note that in all ten subjects of this study, none of the students described studying words with the help of others in purposed of learning words. The participants only shared their problems with others when they couldn't find any other sources to learn those unknown words. Schmitt (1997) showed that using social strategies are rather popular, but this study revealed that social strategies are not frequently used by subjects.

12. Conclusions, Implications & Recommendations

The study has discovered that the Iranian EFL students are not aware of the importance of vocabulary learning strategies. According to Sahandri Gani Hamzah, Kafipour, and Kumar Abdullah (2009), Iranian undergraduate EFL learners are medium strategy users. Strategies which require cognitively deeper processing such as putting English labels on physical objects, listening to tapes of word lists and writing down the new words and their meanings on cards is not mentioned by participants of this study.

Iranian EFL learners are more interested in discovering the meaning of new words –determination strategy- rather than other categories of strategies which mostly used to retain the meaning of new words (Kafipour, Yazdi, & Shokrpour , 2011) . Their finding is consistent with the results of other studies which investigated Iranian EFL learners' learning strategies as Sarani and Kafipour (2008) and Zarafshan (2002). Sarani and Kafipour stated why memory strategy is the most frequently used strategy for the purpose of retaining new words while current training setting is communicative approach. They stated that the current communicative university training setting which depends relatively little on the requirement to memorize a lot of materials is not followed and practiced correctly by lecturers and students in Iran. Both sides have strong interest to follow the traditional approach which put a high emphasis on the role of memory in learning. They continue that teaching material are not totally consistent with communicative approach and needs to be revised. The researcher believes that the lectures should learn how to promote communicative approach in their teaching and how to motivate their students to follow it. Furthermore, curriculum designers should try to revise the books and teaching materials to be more appropriate for communicative approach.

On the other hand, Iranian EFL learners use social strategies less frequently. Zarafshan (2002) stated in his MA thesis why Iranian EFL learners don't tend to use social strategies. He stated that curriculum design doesn't promote collaborative and social learning. Opportunities for such approach have not been provided in educational institutes and universities. He continued that the formal approach is communicative approach but it is not practiced actually. Both learners and lecturers interested in traditional approach in which the teacher is the center of learning. The teacher provides all materials and students only follow the lecture's instruction. Thus, there is no room for learning through discussion and applying social strategies. It seems that curriculum designers need to pay more attention to this strategy when designing teaching material. Educational institutes should prepare any necessary facilities to conduct social learning such as discussion rooms and etc.

The results of the current study can assist language teachers to improve their teaching methods. Second, teachers who are interested in their students' performance in learn the English vocabulary can introduce the vocabulary learning strategies and techniques to their students by designing useful tasks and giving relevant assignments. Next, unfortunately based on the interviews conducted, most of the students are not aware of the existence of the numerous strategies used to learn words other than using dictionaries

and rote memorization. So, one advantage of this study is that it will increase the public awareness on the importance of vocabulary learning strategies in foreign and second language learning and teaching. As Oxford (2003) mentioned "Vocabulary is not explicitly taught in most language classes" (p. 9).

To get better understanding of the relevant vocabulary strategies, the researchers can carry out future studies on vocabulary learning from two viewpoints. Studies on the individuals' differences of language learners from primary to university level can be conducted both in qualitative and quantitative approaches. In addition, studying the effect of culture, home environment, peer groups, effective teaching methods and classroom atmosphere on vocabulary learning strategies could be very helpful.

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THE IMPACT OF CAPTIONS ON ENHANCING IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS' LISTENING COMPREHENSION THROUGH SHORT STORIES

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ABSTRACT
THIS STUDY SET OUT TO INVESTIGATE IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS' USE OF CAPTIONS WHILE LISTENING TO SHORT STORIES. SIXTY INTERMEDIATE EFL STUDENTS, WERE SELECTED BASED ON THEIR PERFORMANCE ON OXFORD PLACEMENT TEST (OPT). TO ASSESS THE PARTICIPANTS' LISTENING COMPREHENSION, A TEST WAS CONSTRUCTED. THE TEST WAS DEVELOPED BASED ON A FAIRLY PROFOUND REVIEW OF THE RELEVANT LITERATURE ON L2 LISTENING TESTS. BY PRESENTING CAPTIONED AND NON-CAPTIONED AUDIOS TO THE EXPERIMENTAL AND THE CONTROL GROUPS RESPECTIVELY, IT WAS FOUND THAT, CAPTIONED RATHER THAN NON-CAPTIONED AUDIOS AIDED THE EFL LEARNERS' LISTENING COMPREHENSION. BASED ON THE FINDINGS OF THE PRESENT STUDY RELATED TO THE BENEFITS OF CAPTIONING, IT MAY BE AN ADVANTAGEOUS IDEA FOR THE MATERIAL DEVELOPERS TO INCLUDE CAPTIONS IN THEIR PRODUCTS. MATERIAL DEVELOPERS CAN ALSO INTEGRATE SOFTWARE PROGRAMS, SUCH AS THE ONE CONSTRUCTED AND APPLIED IN THE PRESENT STUDY, IN THEIR PRODUCTS TO BRING VARIETY, CREATE MULTIPURPOSE PRODUCTIONS, AND PREPARE TEXTBOOKS WHICH DO NOT NEED INSTRUCTORS AND CAN BE USED IN STUDENTS' SELF-STUDIES.

Introduction

Although there is a general consensus among L2 researchers about the differences between hearing and listening, some dictionaries define these two terms nearly the same. For instance, *Oxford advanced learner's dictionary* (Wehmeier, 2012) defines hearing as: "listen[ing] or pay[ing] attention to somebody or something" (p. 720), and listening as: "pay[ing] attention to somebody or something that you can hear" (p. 897).

Hearing is different from listening. Even though some L2 learners use them indiscriminately. Kutlu and Aslanoglu (2009) claim that "it is not sufficient for us to hear our counterparts, but it is also necessary to understand them, to think about what they should say, and thus to be an effective listener" (p. 2014). While Linse (2005) refers to hearing as "the actual perception and processing of sound" (p. 54), Butt et al. (2010) believe that listening is more than just hearing. According to Brown (2008), people do not listen, in the sense of paying attention, to everything they hear. They hear to background noises while they listen and pay attention to what they want. Comparing hearing and listening has provided a basis for the next section, which describes the nature of L2 listening and factors which discriminate L2 listening from first language (L1) listening.

Listening in L1 and L2 seem to be similar in their basic mechanisms (Boulfelfel, 2008). There are big differences, however, in terms of verbal information. In the other words, in L1 listening, verbal information is in the listener's L1. While, in L2 listening, verbal information is in L2 of the listener.

According to Poelmans (2003), "the acquisition of the L1 listening comprehension skill happens largely at the same time that the child develops its general cognitive abilities" (p. 16). Flowerdew and Miller (2005) go more backward and claim that L1 comprehension starts before we are even born. On the other hand,

L2 listening involves active and conscious processing (e.g., Carrier, 2003; Goh, 2008); hence, it needs much more attention and comprehension effort. However, as another similarity, listeners—L1 or L2— may approach a listening activity from whole to parts or parts to whole.

Cognitive research has provided us with two models of language processing in listening comprehension: bottom-up and top-down (Rost, 2002), which are called parsing mechanisms by Ohata (2006). The terms have been borrowed from cognitive psychology, but derive originally from computer science, where they distinguish processes that are data-driven from those that are knowledge-driven (Field, 2003).

In the 1970s, according to Vandergrift (2004), listening instruction largely emphasized L2 learners' development of the bottom-up process, that is, the ability to identify words, sentence boundaries, individual sounds, and sound combination. Huang (2010, p. 5) defines bottom-up processing, which is called data-driven in computer science, as "a process of forming understanding about the complete texts from the smallest meaning units". Similarly, Kurita (2012) referred to the incoming input as the basis for understanding the message in bottom-up processing. Brown (2006) also believes that, in bottom-up processing, we use information about sounds, word meanings, and discourse markers to assemble our understanding of what we hear. Likewise, Ohata (2006) thinks that, in bottom-up processing, the listener makes sense of an utterance bit-by-bit, starting from the smallest parts.

On the contrary, because of the shifted view of L2 listening from language-based to schema-based, the teaching of listening changed its focus to the learners' development of top-down process, namely, activating their background knowledge such as topic familiarity, discourse clues, and pragmatic conventions (Vandergrift, 2004).

The contemporary view of listening (e.g., Hulstijin, 2003; Vandergrift, 2006), which is pursued in the present study, treats listening as a combination of both forms of processing. This use of the combination of top-down and bottom-up data is called interactive processing (Peterson, 2001). Listening is not only decoding the smallest meaning units to understanding the whole text, but also activating background knowledge in order to comprehension. Hoskins, Sasaki, and Johnson (2004) believe that a balanced curriculum would use a combination of both models of bottom-up and top-down processing together, where bottom-up processing fails, top-down processing comes to compensate (Rost, 2002).

Bottom-up and top-down processing may successfully compensate each other, but, as McBride (2007) states, limitation of working memory causes problem too. Hence, language processing abilities of L2 listeners can also being influenced by the matter of working memory (Montgomery, 2002).

In the last five decades, language teaching via technology has been brought into educational settings. Computers have entered the school life in the late 1950s in developed countries and are still developing day by day throughout the world (Gunduz, 2005). As Brett (1995) stated, "increase in the speed, storage capacity and memory size of computers, together with developments in the sophistication of software, now enable computers to deliver video, sound, text and graphics" (p. 77). Additionally, according to Gunduz (2005), computers are not only a tool for information processing and display but also a tool for information processing and communication.

Differently, McBride (2007) verifies two roles for computers in language learning: "either the computer can be used to take the role of a tutor, in a sense replacing a human teacher or interlocutor; or the computer might be used instead as a tool to enhance human communication" (p. 22). Meanwhile, along with Tuncok (2010), who states these categories are not mutually exclusive and it may not be right to label any kind of software or application only as tutor, tool, or tutee, the current research uses a program (i.e. software) to combine elements from all three metaphors.

According to Khoii and Aghabeig (2009), in the traditional listening classes, boring tests and teaching activities would surely make students lose their interests in the listening class. Nowadays, L2 teachers can make listening comprehension activities more challenging and even more fascinating through using different features of Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL).

According to Captioned Media Program (National Association of the Deaf), captioning is "the process of converting the audio content of a television broadcast, webcast, film, video, CD-ROM, DVD, live event, or other productions into text and displaying the text on a screen or monitor. Similarly, Zarei (2009, p. 67) defined captioning as, "the process of converting the audio portion of a video production into text which is displayed on a television screen." Captions may also serve to increase language comprehension by

facilitating additional cognitive processes, such as greater depth of spoken-word processing (Bird & Williams, 2002).

In spite of the abovementioned beneficial to captions, as Danan (2004) states, "captioning may not be suitable for all materials and viewers at all levels of language proficiency" (p. 71). Opponents of captions contend that: captions are disturbing and source of laziness (Zanon, 2006), and captions encourage learners to rely on the written text (Danon, 2004).

Nagira (2011) carried out a study to examine the degree to which, 48 Japanese university students, incidentally acquired vocabulary from viewing captioned videos. He tried to know whether captioned videos or noncaptioned videos resulted in higher vocabulary learning. The results of data analysis indicated that English captions could facilitate incidental vocabulary learning. In addition, English captions could contribute to learning word meanings when learners had failed to understand appropriate meanings.

In another study, Zarei and Rashvand (2011) investigated the effect of verbatim and nonverbatim interlingual and intralingual captiond on L2 vocabulary comprehension and production. To this end, four groups of 30 language learners studying conversational English in two language institutes in Qazvin participated in the study. Each of the groups watched the same movie with a different type of captioning: a) verbatim interlingual, b) non-verbatim interlingual, c) verbatim intralingual and d) non-verbatim intralingual captions. The participants also received a vocabulary pretest and vocabulary comprehension and production post-tests. The results revealed that non-verbatim captions resulted in more vocabulary comprehension regardless of whether they were interlingual or intralingual, whereas intralingual captions were more conductive to vocabulary production irrespective of whether they were verbatim or non-verbatim.

Consequently, the purpose of this study is to determine whether Iranian EFL learners' comprehension of short stories will be improved when they listen to a short story with captions. In line with the above mentioned objective, the present study is an attempt to provide answers to the following question:

- Do captions improve Iranian EFL learners' listening comprehension of short stories?

Method

Participants

To find the required population for the experiment, 60 intermediate EFL students, were selected based on their Oxford Placement Test (OPT). The participants included male students whose age ranged from 18 to 24, with Persian as their L1. Meanwhile, all the participants have passed at least six semesters of English language learning; therefore, it was assumed that these students were familiar with listening tasks. The selected participants were randomly divided to two groups: captioned group (henceforth CG), non-captioned group (henceforth NCG).

Instruments

To collect data, this study made use of three instruments. The first instrument used in this study was the OPT, consisting 20 multiple-choice listening, 20 multiple-choice reading, and 30 multiple-choice language use items. The time limit for answering the test was 50 minutes. The second instrument of the study was a computer software, produced by a computer technician, which could play audio texts with or without captions. This software, used on all versions of windows, was prepared by media flash player. It is worth mentioning that the stories were converted into an identifiable media format in order to be used in the software. Four audio English language texts were selected based on the following criteria: length, genre conceptual difficulty, and text readability. Audio texts were taken from the book *Steps to Understanding* (Hill, 1988). Finally, a listening comprehension test was developed and used to assess the participants' listening comprehension ability. This instrument consisted of 24 true/false and 32 multiple-choice items about the main points of the texts. Concerning the true-false questions, each item was followed by two answers of *true* and *false*. Each multiple-choice question also contained four choices.

Procedure

In order to assess the potential impact of captioning on learners' listening comprehension, the main trial was carried out. The selected participants were divided into two groups of control and experimental. Taking place in a computer lab, firstly, the participants completed the consent form and the background questionnaire, which were one part of the software. Then, the participants listened to the audio texts.The

experimental group listened to the audio texts twice, both times with captioning.The control group listened to the audio texts twice, both times without captioning. After the second listening of each audio text, all groups first took the listening comprehension test. For the listening comprehension tests, one credit (1 point) was given for each correct answer. Incorrect answers were given no credit (0 points). No partial credit was given.

Results

In order to have a general description of the data, descriptive statistics (i.e., the means, minimum and maximum scores, standard deviations, Skewness, and Kurtosis) were calculated for the two tests used in this study. Table 1 shows the results of the descriptive statistics for the participants' scores on the L2 (i.e., English) listening comprehension test.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics for the Participants' Scores on the L2 Listening Comprehension Test

Groups	*N*	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Experimental	25	50.00	53.00	51.12	1.09	.57	-.91
Control	25	42.00	47.00	44.00	1.93	.44	-1.42

In order to answer the first part of the first research question, related to the effect of captioning on listening comprehension, an independent-samples *t*-test was run. The dependent variable involved in the analysis was captioning and the independent variable was the control and experimental groups' listening comprehension scores. The results are displayed in Table 2.

Table 2

The Independent Sample Test for the Captioning Effect on the L2 Listening Comprehension

Total Score	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		*t*-test for Equality of Means				
	F	Sig.	*t*	df.	Sig (2-tailed)	M	Std
Equal Variances Assumed	2.231	.139	3.47	98	.001	2.10	.60

The *t*-test results in the table reveal that there was a statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the experimental (M = 48.84, SD = 2.77) and the control (M = 46.74, SD = 3.25); t (98) = 3.47, p = .001. That is, the experimental group outperformed the NCG on the L2 listening comprehension test. The magnitude of the differences in the means was moderate (eta squared = 0.10). These results show that captioning had a significant effect on the participants' L2 listening comprehension in this study and the research question of the study was verified.

Discussion and Conclusion

As stated earlier, this study set out to investigate the EFL learners' use of captions while listening to short stories. By presenting captioned and non-captioned audios to the experimental and the control groups respectively, it was found that, captioned rather than non-captioned audios aided the learners' listening comprehension. The benefits of captioning was also supported by previous research, such as Bird and Williams (2002) and Winke, Gass, and Sydorenko (2010), who found that a bimodal presentation resulted in better overall comprehension and vocabulary. In addition, in some situations, the language input may be so complex that it is necessary for L2 learners to have some sort of aid (in this case captioning), as was found by Markham (1993).

This is also in consistent with what Sydorenko (2010) claims about the importance of the captioning in facilitating L2 vocabulary learning. However, he found that non-captioned materials tended to improve listening comprehension. The result can also be a support of the studies conducted in education (Stewart & Pertusa, 2004; Schilperoord, Groot, & Son, 2005) and in L2 studies particularly in EFL context (Zarei,

2009; Zarei & Rashvand, 2011). For instance, examining beginning level L2 learners, Markham (2001) found that captioning was significantly more effective than noncaptioning.

The general results, confirming the previous research (Bird & Williams, 2002; Sydorenko, 2010; Winke, Gass, & Sydorenko, 2010), indicated that captions were beneficial to both L2 listening comprehension. The overall results also revealed that the captioning order played no role in the L2 listening comprehension. In other words, listening twice to a short story, first with captions and then without, did not significantly affect the L2 learners' listening comprehension. The present study aimed to help fill this gap by conducting research to investigate the impact of captioning on EFL learners' listening comprehension.

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MJLTM

A MICROANALYSIS OF HINDRANCES IN WRITING AT HIGH SCHOOLS: LOOKING THROUGH THE LENS EFL TEACHERS AND LEARNERS

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ABSTRACT
THE PRESENT STUDY AIMS TO EXPLORE THE HINDRANCES TO THE DEVELOPMENT OF WRITING SKILLS IN ENGLISH AT HIGH SCHOOLS THROUGH A QUALITATIVE INVESTIGATION OF EFL TEACHERS AND LEARNERS' PERSPECTIVES. A COLLECTIVE CASE STUDY WAS APPLIED ON 6 ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHERS AND 60 EFL LEARNERS. TO COLLECT THE DATA A RESEARCHER-MADE DIAGNOSTIC CHECKLIST AND TWO SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEWS, TEACHER-SPECIFIC AND STUDENT-SPECIFIC INTERVIEWS, WERE CONDUCTED. THE THEMATIC ANALYSIS TOGETHER WITH THE DIAGNOSTIC ANALYSIS REVEALED A NUMBER OF OBSTACLES SUCH AS PAUCITY OF WRITING PRACTICE, INSUFFICIENCY OF CONTEXTUAL TEACHING, WORD-FOR-WORD TRANSLATION, LACK OF CONTENT KNOWLEDGE, INADEQUATE FEEDBACK FOR ENHANCING WRITING PERFORMANCE, WRITING APPREHENSION AND LACK OF CONSCIOUS READING PRACTICES, TO NAME A FEW.

KEYWORDS: HINDRANCE, EFL WRITING, HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS, PERSPECTIVE

2. Introduction

Writing is an important act of communication and a purposeful means of addressing an audience that represents language through the inscription of signs and symbols (Harmer, 2004). According to Lee (2003) writing is among the important skills that all EFL learners should improve since it is more than a device for creating a document; it can be a method to discover topics and explore ideas. In most languages, writing is a complement to spoken language (Harmer, 2004). In fact, writing is an area, which affects the language learning process of many people around the world. Lee (2003) cites that " most business and technical writing in the world is done in a second language" (p.112). He maintains that good EFL writing is among the major concerns of many language learning stakeholders. Nevertheless, writing an acceptable text for most EFL learners is challenging, as the writing process requires multitudes of linguistic and cognitive strategies, which may not be within the knowledge area of most EFL students (Luchini, 2010). Additionally, they do not know what writing strategies they with different writing ability should employ while composing.

Language teachers, on the other hand, play a significant role in the improvement of this skill. Many language teachers believe that teaching writing skills to EFL students in comparison with other skills is more complex because writing includes the communication of language, feelings, individual experience, and personal thought (Alavi & SaminNia, 2014). Concerning EFL writing criteria, there exist several different approaches for teaching writing such as "modeling, shared, guided, independent and

interactive writing" (Farr, 2010, p. 125). Despite different changes in the field of teaching in many other countries, the focus of EFL teachers in Iran remains the traditional issues of classroom management, input enhancement, development of linguistic knowledge, skills, and techniques including the use of interactive activities such as pair and group work in language classrooms (Safari & Rashidi, 2015). An active writing teacher should be mindful of the experimental and historical approaches to EFL writing and be able to apply them at the appropriate times (Deng, 2007). According to Martin (2008), teachers should be facilitators of the learning process in writing classes. In addition, Murray (1985, p. 13) maintains "the teacher has to restrain himself or herself from providing the content, taking care not to inhibit the students from finding their own meaning, their own subjects, their own forms and their own language". According to Lamie (2004), awareness rising in terms of the requirement for change and training include two serious features that play an essential role in teacher change.

Like other EFL contexts, it seems that many of Iranian students seriously reflect a deficiency in writing skills. In EFL contexts such as Iran, where students have limited access to real contexts, writing classes play an important role in the development of the EFL students' writing skills. Therefore, EFL students' satisfaction with such classes should be of importance (Asakerh, & Dehghannezhad, 2015). Barjesteh, Vaseghi and Golami (2011) believe that many Iranian students are well aware of the language form, but they are not able to communicate effectively. Many students find writing difficult. This study was conducted to uncover the rationale Iranian high school learners feel themselves as poor writers. Put it differently, this research probes if EFL learners deficiency in writing skills concern to EFL instructors' misconception of the writing process or their own lack of linguistic competence and practice of writing. More precisely, this paper investigates the existing constraining factors in the development of writing skills through the lens of EFL teachers and learners. In so doing, the following research questions were raised:

1. What are hindrances to the development of writing skills from Iranian high school EFL teachers?
2. What obstacles do Iranian EFL learners encounter in learning writing skill?

3. Review of Related Literature

Writing is one of the important skills that can contribute to the learning process because almost a trace of writing can be seen in each course. Professional EFL Literature reveals various studies that have investigated different strategies that help learners to improve their writing. In fact, different researchers looked at writing strategies from different perspectives. Some of them considered writing strategies from learners' point of view that investigate the learners' difficulties in writing and others investigated current writing strategies from teachers' point of view.

There is little consensus among researchers to give a clear definition of writing, however, this lack of consensus reflects the complexity of the process. According to Lamie (2004), "writing is a straightforward act of saying what the writer can mean, the mental struggles writers go through and the interpretations readers make" (p. 172). Writing is so complex that teacher will not be able to give his/her students simple formula for good writing. What they can do is to engender in the students an awareness of the complexity of the process and to help them better manipulate each component of the process in order to meet their writing objectives (Mackay, 1984). Mackay further added that, "writing is a dynamic process which involves such activities as generating ideas, setting goals, planning, evaluating and revising (p. 258).

As Hillocks (2002) states, some decades before, the most widespread method of teaching writing was to focus on mechanics of writing and teaching grammar was the necessary mean to learn how to write. This raw approach was sharply criticized, since it could not fulfill learning.

Hillocks (1987) came to the conclusion that the quality of writing has no relationship with the teaching of grammar. He claimed that this was predicted earlier, since the production of content is not grammar-dependent, though grammar is necessary for writing. It was also argued that two post-writing stages, including editing and proofreading have no or little effect on the writing style or even writing content. Hillocks (1987) further showed that dexterous writers tend to concentrate on content and organization.

Nowadays, writing is becoming an integral part of the lives of literate people (if any illiterate ever exists). The advancement of technologically-based communications, such as chat rooms, emails, forums etc.

require human to improve or facilitate the writing processes. Other than these vehicles of digital communication, the primary need of human to enjoy reading necessitates the counterpart namely writing. Writing ability helps people live immortal. An important component to the writing process is its recursive nature, which allows writers to revise their work continually (Hillocks, 1987; Murray, 1982).

The act of expressing one's own ideas, thoughts, purposes, imaginations etc. makes the writer influential. In this regard, Heller (1991) claims that the socio-cultural functions raise the shared need to be literate through seeking to read and write. The issue of quality and quantity to scholars and writers are of much importance. Writers mostly provide us with qualitatively valuable works. Though scholars and educators, frequently deal with the amount of what they aim to teach.

Along with the emergence of post-method era, many efforts have been done to scrutinize the new trends for teaching writing (Graves, 1991; Greenwald, Persky, Campbell & Mazzeo, 1999; Heller, 1991; Hicks, 1993, Langer, 2001). These research studies show that if students pass the steps of observation and writing, better process is achieved than the traditional models of writing. Along with earlier research, Hillocks found that teaching model-writing was effective in enhancing the quality of writing than was grammar-teaching. Moreover, positive effects could be seen in sentence combination (Hillocks, 1987). Also, "A simplistic view of writing would assume that written language is simply the graphic representation of spoken language…" (Brown, 2001, p. 335).

Brown maintains that writing is "as different from speaking as swimming is from walking" (ibid, p. 335). This idea was reinforced and developed by Hedge (2005), who stated that writing is more than producing accurate and complete sentences and phrases. She stated that writing is about guiding students to "produce whole pieces of communication, to link and develop information, ideas, or arguments for a particular reader or a group of readers…" (p. 10). Hence effective writing entails several things such as a high degree of organization concerning the development and structuring of ideas, information and arguments (ibid). Additionally, Hedge mentioned features such as: high level of accuracy, complex grammar devices, careful selection of vocabulary and sentence structures in order to create style, tone and information suitable for the readers of one's written text (ibid). All these facts make the teaching of writing an intricate matter, because all this should be taken into consideration for effective learning of writing strategies.

4. Methods of Research

4.1. Participants

Six Iranian EFL high school teachers (4 females and 2 males) in Sari, Mazandaran Province, gave written consent to be observed and interviewed. In addition, 60 high school students (all females) were selected through the available sampling method based on their scores on English course presented to the researcher by their teachers. In fact, each of these English teachers selected ten students (among an average population of 30 students in each class) to participate in the study. They studied English in state high schools in Sari, Mazandaran.

3.3. Instruments

3.3.1. Diagnostic Checklist

A host of research studies on educators' beliefs and practices in language skills have largely applied questionnaires and interviews (Richards, Gallo & Renandya, 2001), but few have integrated these instruments with classroom observations in order to discover what educators practice (Kuzborska, 2011). The observations were based on a researcher-made diagnostic checklist which was developed based on the areas of difficulty in writing explored by Brisk (2011), Dupont (2004), Hammad (2013), Murcia and Olshtain (2000), and Pilar and Liach (2011) (see Appendix A).

3.3.2. Interviews

Since the present study sought to investigate issues of writing, such a pliable instrument helped the researcher collect the required data. After studying some pertinent references and studies (e.g. Abdel Latif, 2007; Ahmed, 2010; Winterowd & Murray, 1988), two semi-structured interviews, including a teacher-specific (see Appendix B) and a student-specific (see Appendix C) were designed in order to collect qualitative data.

3.4. Procedure

The study adopted a variety of methods including observations and interviews. Utilizing observational techniques and interview with the EFL teachers as well as the students, the researchers were to determine the main causes of Iranian high school students' weaknesses in writing. First, 30 writing classes were directly observed by the researchers. The whole procedure of the classroom which was specifically connected with writing tasks was investigated. In so doing, the researchers sat in the rear part of the classroom and audio-taped the procedure. In addition, the researchers made some significant notes of the moments where the recorder could not help with. For example, learners' emotional states, gestures, conversations within the groups, reactions, pauses, etc. were included in some notes. During each the sessions, the checklist was completed as soon as a case was observed. Afterwards, the data was transcribed and delivered to the subjects for the verification of data. In addition, the activities of teachers and students were summarized and categorized to help the research come up with an appropriate conclusion.

For the interview sections, the teachers formed two groups of three. In addition, 12 students out of 60 were selected and interviewed in three groups of 4. The interview sessions took 75 minutes on average for each. Overall, five interviews were conducted. The researcher used the "write-up" technique: the answers were transcribed as precisely as possible. Through conducting the interviews, the researcher was also to determine different factors influencing their teaching method and asked them to express their main aims and purposes in the writing courses.

Scripts from the semi-structures interviews were analyzed through thematic analysis. The most frequent and similar words and expressions revealed teachers and students' perspectives of the factors constraining the development of writing skills in English at high schools. The observation checklist, also, helped the researcher to compare the responses to the interview questions, as the theoretic perspectives of the learners and teachers with how they performed in practice. In other words, the observation checklist together with notes taken of the observation sessions helped the researcher find a basis for analogy. The observations played the role of a complementary source contributing to the researcher's comprehension of the nature or the essence of the hindrances.

4. Results

4.1 Teacher-specific Semi-structured Interview Analysis

The first part of the teacher-specific semi-structured interview consisting of a main question and 14 sub-questions elicited the teachers' perspectives and beliefs about teaching writing in high schools.

Answering the first question, two of the teachers claimed that the major problem arises from the language program followed by the ministry of education. They disappointedly argued that the state-run system does not view English language learning as a necessity to be strictly followed by formal programs. On the other hand, one of the teachers reported the issue of textbooks design as the major problem. She stated "although teachers are always trying to teach as appropriate as possible, the design of the textbook does not allow them to focus on what students need to communicate in English, especially writing skills". The other three teachers reported the major problem was traditional methods applied by teachers, and excessive focus on other skills.

However, the issue of time was also addressed by the researcher. The teachers' responses to this question were as expected. They all reported that they have experienced problems with timing of teaching writing skills and that the writing exercises which are specified as the major source of teaching writing are focused on practicing other skills or sub-skills, especially structure. The researchers' observations proved the statement, since as the observation checklist as well as personal experience indicated, there was not any specific writing activity around the concept of writing in its usual sense such as writing a composition with the materials learned, writing a meaningful, normally-worded essay on a topic of interest, etc. They also stated that some tasks such as substitutions, transformations and even production tasks are time-consuming, and then not time remains as to be allocated for teaching writing and its prerequisites. They all supported the statement that the authors of the textbook have overlooked the matter of time and it is hardly possible to manage the timing of the classroom for teaching writing.

In addition, the participants reported the task of paragraph writing is something out of the conventional framework of ordinary procedures of writing classes, and no specific emphasis so far has been placed on it, whether by teachers or the authors of the textbook, since there is not any track of these types of tasks in final exams. The other point in this regard, was the issue of parents as well as students' product-orientation as they were always looking for some clues (marks) so as to reveal how students are performing.

The other fact that was a bit surprise to the researcher focused on the participants' argument against the tendency of Iranian students toward writing. They also referred to their colleagues who teach Persian language and literature suggesting that students have a relatively high inability in writing, even in their mother tongue. They reported that speaking comprises the major goal of Iranian high school students to learn English language. They pointed to the issue of writing apprehension even in Persian language in line with the statement that the teachers also are not quite acquainted with writing skills. The process was also questioned by half of the interviewees. They sharply criticized the process whereby students are only provided with a paper and a pencil to write about a topic which has not been prepared in advance. In addition, it was reported that some colleague skip this section since they do not have any significant command in English writing.

The answer to the second question was one of the major challenges of the teachers. Although they all acknowledged and were aware of the difference between new and classic approaches to teaching writing, half of them rejected the practicality of process-based approaches to teaching writing in the Iranian language learning context only because of the specific nature of this context where teachers play the dominant role and learner autonomy is out of question. They emphasized the role of teachers as facilitators, yet they did not regard any position for students within the teaching-learning framework in the current Iranian language learning context. Yet, in a remarkable argument, which is really worth noting, one of the teachers stated:

Teachers' inexperience, lack of adequate language knowledge and unfamiliarity with new approaches to teaching writing are the major causes for their inclination toward traditional approaches where the role of teachers is more visible within the framework of teaching-learning. Unfortunately, in some cases, I have seen many other individuals whose major is not English, has been teaching English at state schools. I myself have witnessed two cases.

In relation to the features of the process-based approach, a tendency toward the process of writing instead of the outcome, practicality and autonomy was mentioned as salient features contributing to theoretically appropriate process of teaching writing, although, the practice of such processes, by all those characteristics, of which a minute part was mentioned here, requires a language-friendly environment. They also emphasized the fact that the process-based approach appeals students' comprehension of natural (authentic) situations with the assumption that they are not supposed to discuss the structure of a sentence. It was also acknowledged by the interviewees that the process of instructional change in Iran is so slow that teachers prefer exercising the traditional methods so as to increase learners' linguistic information rather than their functional knowledge. One of the interviewees discussed the point that due to some economic problems in the ministry, so far attention has been paid to students' problems rather than their teachers'; and this lack of attention is also visible in terms of instructional problems in general and writing problems in particular.

The answers to the third question included certain important factors that were unknown to the researcher by that time. While the interviewees confirmed the dominant and frequent expressions used by the interviewees encompassed crucial role of students, learning general English initially, learning essential vocabulary, breaking the ice (alleviating writing apprehension), and boosting self-confidence, emphasizing that if such factors work well or be regarded as the major concern of teachers and students, the way toward learning writing skills will be paved. However, certain factors were sporadically reported by the interviewees that revealed their scrutiny toward the issue of writing skills. These included provoking other language skills and sub-skills through, for example, watching instructional video clips, reading staged stories etc. playing the role of input which gives the students the prerequisite to

production of ideas (output) in writing. In addition, they emphasized the role of extensive reading, as a vehicle for expanding the vocabulary size, improving the spelling ability, and familiarity with synthesis of lexicon in sentences and paragraphs.

4.2. Student-specific Semi-structured Interview Analysis

There was a wide range of answers to the first question by the students. They focused on different issues pertaining to a rather tediousness of their teacher's approach to teaching in general and writing in particular, lack of practice in writing, spending much time on other skills than writing needed for passing the final exams, lack of time for further study in writing, the structure of the textbook, monotonous rhythm of lessons, word-for-word translation excessive focus of the textbook on grammar, teachers' inadequate knowledge of writing, and unimportance of writing at their grade. However, an important notion was frequently repeated by the students suggesting that the issue is far beyond the limits of the classroom as well as the limits of writing skills. The scrutiny of the interviewer revealed that the students are much well aware of the atmosphere of schools where teachers have to prepare students for the final exam unless they will be indirectly reproached by the general office of education. In other words, they considered the problem as a multi-lateral challenge in which many aspects are involved.

Answering the second question, nearly all of the students acknowledged the effectiveness of the new approaches to teaching writing but they did not clearly know the components or steps of these approaches. In two cases, the students only distinguished between differences in practice between the private institute teachers and those teaching in state schools. However, they claimed that their teachers (in state schools) were not teaching in line with new approaches. Their reason reportedly originated from the fact that the overall features of new approaches to teaching English language in general and writing in particular practiced by their teachers at schools were totally different, since the nature of new approaches, as they guessed, is rooted in the fact that the learner is autonomous and can direct her own learning.

In responses to the third question, learning study skills, extensive reading, composition practice in Persian, increasing attention in the classroom, studying new novels, using the cyber space (mobile applications such as Telegram, Viber etc.), avoiding the focus on grammar, studying vocabulary books and free writing as much as possible were among the strategies considered by the students as important for improving writing skills. When they came to rank the issues, there was a consensus over the first two strategies free writing as much as possible and using the cyber space. However, other strategies were equally ranked.

4.3. Diagnostic Checklist Analysis

The diagnostic checklist was provided for the observation sessions. In order to determine the main reasons of EFL learners' weaknesses of writing, some observations had been made by the researchers. The following table discusses the results of the diagnostic checklist.

Table 1
Descriptive Statistics of the Researcher's Diagnosis

Diagnosis	Frequency of Cases Observed						Total Cases
Vocabulary knowledge	2	3	4	4	6	6	25
Content knowledge	2	3	6	6	2	2	21
Grammatical knowledge	2	2	5	6	4	6	25
Semantic knowledge	3	6	4	5	5	5	28
IF-teaching method	3	5	6	6	6	4	30
Psychological factors	6	5	4	5	4	1	25

IF stands for Instructor's feedback

As Table1 shows, among the thirty observation sessions, in 30 occasions of writing (not writing sessions), students reflected the major problems with the instructor's feedback-teaching method which was partially in line with what the students and teachers confirmed about the procedure of writing classes.

The frequency of semantic knowledge problems, ranked as the second major problem observed in writing classes, was 28. Vocabulary, grammar, psychological and content issues, respectively revealed 25, 25, 25 and 21 cases. Although, this diagnosis is founded on a relative basis, it shows the major orientation of writing problems in the Iranian context suggesting an argument in line with Lee (2002), who claimed that in L2 writing studies, excessive attention has been paid to students' needs to learn how to write rather than to teachers' requirements to learn how to teach writing. Detailed interpretation of the qualitative results and exploration of the relationships between the reports by the interviewees and the observations made by the researcher will be discussed in the following section.

5. Discussion

At the micro-level, the analyses revealed that essay writing problems included instructor feedback-teaching method, lack of semantic knowledge represented through misuse or lack of use of cohesive ties, lack of grammatical knowledge, lack of vocabulary knowledge represented through using irrelevant words, lack of content knowledge and psychological factors such as apprehension represented through anxiety (as reported by the participants).

The first reason for the participants' EFL essay writing problems could be interpreted within the scope of the lack of writing practice. Several students in this study complained about insufficient time to practice writing. Consistent with this specific finding, Mourtaga (2010) showed that EFL university students did not adequately practice witting.

Moreover, the participants' writing problems might be attributed to lack of contextual teaching. Some students in this study reported that although they could learn by heart and memorize grammar rules, vocabulary items, and cohesive ties they could not apply them in a meaningful manner. It seems that such students are inclined to learn language items as an end product rather than a means of communication. In this regard, Hadley (1993) commented that applying language in contexts is advantageous than learning quarantined language items by wide-ranging memorization drills.

An important writing problem detected in this study was word-for-word translation. The interviews indicated that a majority of the students were inclined to literally translate from Persian to English when writing English essays. It seems that one of the main causes for the students' use of word-for-word translation technique was the use of the L1-use approach to teaching vocabulary rather than the bilingual approaches or the L2-only approach.

Another EFL writing problem detected in this study was the lack of content knowledge. Indeed, a majority of the students were found to struggle to generate pertinent ideas owing to strangeness to topics they were often asked to write on. This finding is consistent with Hammad (2013) who stated that some EFL university students struggled with generating appropriate ideas while writing.

Another issue was that several students were accustomed to finish the writing process without going through the steps of process-based writing. The teachers as well as the students seemed not to be trained to proofread their compositions. In fact, it was the EFL teachers' problem. The students were not acquainted with general phases of wiring.

The first major problem observed by the researcher was that some English teachers did not provide the learners with feedback necessary for enhancing writing performance. In line with this finding, Algomoul (2011) found that Jordanian EFL teachers did not provide students with appropriate feedback on their compositions, particularly on their grammatical errors. It may be inferred that the reason was inadequate time for providing students with feedback needed. Moreover, some teachers might be doubtful the effectiveness of feedback for developing students' writing performance since certain studies (e.g. Truscott & Hsu, 2008) suggested that feedback was not advantageous to EFL learners. However, some other studies (e.g. Evans, Hartshorn, McCollum, & Wolfersberger, 2010; Ferris & Roberts, 2001) showed that feedback had a critical role in enhancing L2/FL writing. Thus, further research on this research area needs to be attempted in the Iranian instructional settings.

The second major cause of the students' EFL writing problems may be in line with the lack of conscious reading practice (Abdel Latif, 2007). It appears that inadequate exposure to English language input, such as authentic materials caused the students' English writing problems. As stated by some authors (e.g. Bear & Smith, 2009; Hammad, 2012; Li, 1994), reading (input) and writing (output) are supplement each other and writing is not separated from reading at all. Moreover, Byrne (1996) contended that exposure to

FL/L2 input is advantageous to the development of writing. In addition, Mishan (2005) and Berardo (2006) opine that reading English authentic materials leads to linguistic development and a native-like competence. There are many factors, which affect the second language acquisition.

Overall, as the final remark and given the results of the present study, it is acknowledged that writing is a vital essential skill for academic success. It is a demanding, active, and creative skill. Those who are learning to write in a foreign language are exposed to many challenges, and indisputably, writing is the most demanding language skill. Such a difficulty may lie not merely in producing and organizing ideas, but also in translating these ideas into readable texts. Definitely, EFL learners find writing as a sophisticated practice and look into it as something they have to tackle in order to pass their exams. EFL teachers should consider that learners should be taught with deliberation and responsiveness. Thus, instead of criticizing learners' compositions, praise should be exercised. Such admiration will create hope and trust based on which EFL teachers will learn from learners who have a world to express in their writings. It is via hope and trust that learners write and rewrite and rewrite. Writing gives them courage, improves their self-esteem, upsurges positive feelings, and aids them to imagine themselves as writers do.

6. Conclusion

To summarize the findings of the study, it is acknowledged that writing is an essential skill that is vital for academic success. It is an active, creative skill. Students learning to write in a foreign language face multiple challenges, and undoubtedly writing is the most difficult language skill for language learners to master. The difficulty may lie not only in generating and organizing ideas, but also in translating these ideas into readable texts. EFL students would definitely find writing sophisticated and look into it as something that they have just to tackle in order to pass their exams. This further raises the need for the exploration of affective factors including students' level of writing apprehension, self-efficacy in writing, and attitudes towards writing in broader contexts. EFL writing teachers should consider that learners should be taught with sensitivity and consideration. Thus, criticizing learners' compositions should not be exercised while praising seems to be essential. Such admiration will foster hope and trust through which as EFL teachers may learn from their students who have a lot to say and write.

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1. APPENDICES

Appendix A
Diagnostic Checklist

Instructor's activity:			
Learners' Activity:			
Diagnosis	**Constraining Factors**	**Frequency of Cases Observed**	**Note**
	Vocabulary knowledge		
	Content knowledge		
	Grammatical knowledge		
	Semantic knowledge		
	Instructor's feedback-teaching method		
	Psychological factors		

Appendix B
Teacher-specific Semi-structured Interview

No	Question
1	**What is your opinion about the problems of teaching writing skills in high school classroom?**
1.1	**Please explain what do you mean by time constraint?**
1.2	**How much do you spend on teaching writing?**
1.3	**How much do you spend on teaching other skills?**
1.4	**In your opinion, is this issue (time) overlooked by the authors?**
1.5	**How do you think about management of time and improving students' writing skills? Is it possible? How?**

1.6	Would you please explain that in the new approach to teaching, how writing skills are considered?
1.7	What differences or basically weakness do you see in these textbooks?
1.8	How can teachers persuade students to accept that writing is as important and necessary as other skills?
1.9	What is the best solution to this problem in such a situation?
1.10	Have you ever had any personal experience in solving this problem?
1.11	In your opinion why did authors consider a limited section for teaching writing skills?
1.12	Would you please explain about the pros and cons of the textbook discrete-point approach to the tasks?
1.13	In your opinion, what advantages and disadvantages arise from integrated teaching of skills?
1.14	How can you justify that writing is less regarded in the junior secondary program?
2	What do you think about different approaches to teaching writing? Which approaches do you think are more effective and can heighten students' progress in writing?
2.1	Would you please explain a bit more on traditional approaches of teaching writing?
2.2	Why do you think that traditional approaches are more fruitful?
2.3	Do you have any experience in this case?
2.4	Would you please explain a bit more on new approaches to teaching writing?
2.5	Do you have any experience regarding the effectiveness of these approaches?
3	In your opinion, how do factors related to students contribute to learning writing skills?
3.1	Would you please enumerate these factors?
3.2	What guidelines can you make to solve the vocabulary learning problem? Describe your experience.
3.3	What do you think about the grammar learning problem? Describe your experience.
3.4	What do you think about study skills and content knowledge? Describe your experience.
3.5	Is writing weakness related to a failure in semantically connect sentences?
3.6	What do you mean by writing self-efficacy? Why are your students too dependent on the textbook?
3.7	Why are they apprehended of writing? Why do you use the term *apprehension*?
3.8	How do you evaluate appropriate emotional relationship with students? How does alleviating the affective filters help students learn writing skills better?

Appendix C

Student-specific Semi-structured Interview

No	Question
1	What is your opinion about the problems of learning writing skills in high school classrooms?
1.1	How much do you spend on learning and practicing writing skills?
1.2	How much do you spend on learning other skills?
1.3	How do you think about management of time and improving your writing skills? Is it possible? How?
1.4	What differences or basically weakness do you see in these textbooks?
1.5	Do you accept writing as important and necessary as other communicative skills?

1.6	**What is the best solution to this problem in such a situation? Tell me about your experience.**
1.7	**In your opinion why did authors consider a limited section for writing?**
1.8	**Would you please explain about the pros and cons of the textbook approach to writing tasks?**
2	**What do you think about the effectiveness of different techniques for teaching writing? Which techniques do you think prefer?**
2.1	**Would you please explain on new techniques for teaching writing practiced by your teachers?**
2.2	**Do you have any experience regarding the effectiveness of these techniques?**
3	**In your opinion, how do factors related to learning strategies contribute to success or failure in learning writing skills?**
3.1	**Would you please enumerate these strategies?**
3.2	**How do you rank these factors?**

MJLTM

THE IMPACT OF TEACHER-MADE GAMES VS. CONVENTIONAL GAMES ON IRANIAN CHILDREN'S LEARNING AND RETENTION OF ENGLISH VOCABULARY

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ABSTRACT
TEACHING ENGLISH THROUGH PLAYING GAMES IS POPULAR IN MANY INSTITUTES. TEACHERS USE DIFFERENT KINDS OF GAMES TO TEACH NEW VOCABULARY. THE PRESENT STUDY AIMS AT INVESTIGATING THE EFFECT OF USING TEACHER-MADE GAMES VS. CONVENTIONAL GAMES ON IRANIAN CHILDREN'S LEARNING AND RETENTION OF ENGLISH VOCABULARY. TO ENSURE THE HOMOGENEITY OF THE PARTICIPANTS QUICK PLACEMENT TEST WAS ADMINISTERED TO 60 LEARNERS. THEN 40 PARTICIPANTS WHOSE SCORES WERE BETWEEN ONE AND FIFTEEN WERE SELECTED AS THE PARTICIPANTS AND WERE RANDOMLY DIVIDED INTO TWO GROUPS. A VOCABULARY PRETEST WAS ADMINISTERED TO THE PARTICIPANTS BEFORE STARTING THE TREATMENT. DURING THE FOUR SESSIONS OF TREATMENT, TWENTY VOCABULARY ITEMS WERE INSTRUCTED TO THE TWO GROUPS. FOUR DIFFERENT TEACHER-MADE GAMES WERE CONSIDERED FOR THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP, AND FOUR CONVENTIONAL GAMES WERE CONSIDERED FOR THE CONTROL GROUP. AFTERWARD, A VOCABULARY IMMEDIATE POSTTEST WAS ADMINISTERED. IN ORDER TO SEE THE POSSIBLE EFFECT OF TEACHER-MADE GAMES ON THE LEARNERS' ABILITY TO RECALL THE VOCABULARY ITEMS, A DELAYED POSTTEST WAS ALSO ADMINISTERED THREE WEEKS LATER, AND ALL THE COLLECTED DATA WERE ANALYZED THROUGH SPSS. THE RESULTS REVEALED THAT THE LEARNERS IN THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP OUTPERFORMED THOSE IN THE CONTROL GROUP. HENCE, IT IS SUGGESTED THAT USING TEACHER-MADE GAMES CAN MORE EFFECTIVELY IMPROVE LEARNERS' ABILITY TO LEARN AND RECALL VOCABULARY.

KEY WORDS: EFL LEARNER, RETENTION, VOCABULARY, GAME

1. Introduction

Games have a crucial part in teaching unknown vocabulary. Based on Huyen and Nga (2003), they turn the learning atmosphere into a place full of fun together with competition, where students are eager to learn new things, and they will bring real-world context into the classroom.

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Games are made of sets of rules, and they can help teachers and students to apply them in the class, and no one crosses the border.
Language learning is a hard work, and it takes time since mind can acquire it slowly, so students should try many times to learn it. They may use different techniques to memorize it.
Although playing games can help students learn better, it is time-consuming, and it can be difficult for teachers to spend the class time for playing games, and at the same time control the classroom. Furthermore, most teachers are not familiar with this strategy for teaching; they may find it too challenging since they have to explain the rules of the games in English, which may not be understandable to EFL kids, and since teachers should pay attention to kids' personalities and cultures. Some of them are introverted students and hence reluctant to have a part in the games.
There are some famous vocabulary games such as Hangman, Role-play, Unscramble words, Board games. These kinds of games come from other countries, and they are not designed for the specific culture, so they bring some difficulties for both teachers and students, but teachers can reduce most of these problems by inventing new games.

2. Literature Review

Games have an old history which is divided into two basic periods: before and after the 19th century. Based on El-Shamy (2001), at first games were just some physical activities, which were related to a specific occasion such as religious rituals, celebrations and festivals. After the 19th century, the European people tried to modify some of their games' rules to fit with American tastes, because they thought them as a waste of time. From that period, games started to be used for educational purposes. The first game that had this goal was Mansion of Happiness the goal of which was to teach the differences between the good and bad to children. From that time, games continued to change until the time they turned to being a tool for training.
According to Krashen (2004), by using a list of vocabulary items students can learn thousands of vocabulary items, but it might be a discouraging prospect for students who find this method tedious. While explicit learning can be boring for some students according to him, explicit learning is enjoyable for new learners because they can learn words through conversation or in a game, but the process of learning is very slow, and it makes the situation hard for some learners who are hesitant to expose their experience to a native speaker. But by using games in small groups inside a class they can talk with their peers so their knowledge can be nearly the same, and they can understand each other, a fact which gives them positive feelings to continue their study. Students can enjoy learning and problem solving through games, since they are word-learning wizards and they can remember how a problem can be solved and through this way, games challenge their mind. Since games questions start from easy to hard, it can specify students' knowledge. McGonigal (2011) had the same idea and pointed out that problem solving can be fun for students, because learning is situated and occurs through a process of hypothesizing and reflecting upon the stimulated word within the game.
During the teaching process a lot of words can be taught by the teacher and games can help students to transfer them from their short-term memory to long-term memory and recall them whenever they are needed. Curtiss (2005) had the same idea and stated that when teachers are using games to teach vocabulary, it is not important that how many words they want to transfer, because games can make learners' mind ready, motivate them and pave the way for their learning.
Aslanabadi and Rasouli (2013) conducted a study on the effect of games on the improvement of Iranian EFL vocabulary knowledge in kindergartens. The aim of their study was to find a way to help young EFL learners fix the novel vocabulary in their minds. The study was conducted at two kindergartens. They divided the students into the experimental and control group. The experimental group was given an online language teaching game and the control group was given a regular teaching. The result of their study revealed that games not only bring fun for learners in the class, but also they motivate learners and improve their confidence.
Kupeckova (2010) stated that there are various kinds of games such as recreational, pedagogical and therapeutic. Recreational games are just for fun and enjoyment, while therapeutic games diagnose or cure

a problem in psychology. The pedagogical game is a kind of game that is used for an educational purpose, and the student can attend it and communicate with others.

Using games in the class is a trend to change the teacher-dominated class into a student-centered one or bring a situation in which both can participate in. Jones (2004) stated that games are very important. Therefore, language learners should not pay attention to the drills and memorization of language rule. They must involve a student in the process of learning and minimize the interference of the teacher. Allen (2004) stated that whenever students are active learners, they will automatically learn the language because they feel they are a part of what is going on. The teacher-centered class has problems since they think learners are passive, and they should pour knowledge into their mind. He also mentioned that games challenge students' past and new information. They cause students to make a mistake, to learn, but they should not be corrected by the teacher, because they can be bored with being corrected by the teacher several times.

Based on Bell (2009), by using games teachers can create a different context in which students can communicate, exchange information and express their own opinions. Many scholars agree that learning will happen as a result of learners' interest and motivation, and if it doesn't target their needs, it will not be successful. Haynes & Zacarian (2010) for example, highlighted the importance of creating enjoyment in class and believed that an entertaining situation can prevent the obligation feeling.

According to Foreman (2003), using games in the class is an excellent idea for students to practice new vocabulary since they have time to practice them without the risk of failure, there is the element of an information gap between teammates, and it can engage every one of the students, and they are responsible for the point. In a game, two humans' skills can combine together, which are physical and mental powers. Playing games can teach them how to consider alternatives. It makes the class a different place in which learning is the central point. Students can share their information about vocabulary through communication.

Vocabulary games are special because they challenge students and make them work together so they can memorize them faster. Tuan (2012) overemphasized game's power and stated that it can facilitate meaningful learning, because there is not any sense of fear and humiliation so students are free to make different sentences by using new vocabulary. Ersoz (2005) believed that knowing how to teach a new word is not the key to successful learning. He emphasized that the best lesson may fail since students can learn things when they think them as a useful tool for their real life. Therefore, it is worth looking for ways to teach better and use games, which bring fun to the class environment. Orlick (2006) had the same point of view and stated that a teacher can attract students by providing activities that are communicative, pleasant, safe and non-threatening as well as meaningful and challenging. These kinds of games lead to students' self-confidence, learning satisfaction and communication among learners.

Games have a long history in school and they started by using paper cards to teach vocabulary, which could make the students eager to learn. Games are often difficult to be used in a formal situation like the class, but as Nielsen (2006) stated, students can learn and remember new words faster through games. Kids' teachers are more eager to use a game for teaching vocabulary and there is an old connection between vocabulary learning and games, to some extent; it is derived from communication approaches to language teaching and learning. Peterson (2010) stated that there is a common point about games and language learning in the sense that both try to make a situation where students learn and memorize the new lesson. He pointed out that one of these games can be role-play games, which make learners use the language for meaningful communication with others.

According to Pound (2005), games create a situation which has been called heads-on, minds-on, which allow students to focus on games and learn new words. Serious games allow them to think about a solution to answer a vocabulary question and also let them feel the tension of crises, which can challenge all their skills. It is a way to strengthening the awareness.

Pavicic (2008) stated that EFL learners need to discuss things which they are learning, they can recycle vocabulary that they just learned, and also they can transfer their knowledge. Playing games have a crucial role in learning and recycling a word. A teacher should be aware of these values and give them time to consult about the games' answer with each other.

According to Bradley, Rystedt and Lindstrm (2010), there are a lot of reasons that a teacher should use vocabulary games. First of all, they are fun; they help a teacher to motivate students and turn them from passive students to active ones. Second, it can help them to participate willingly, build relationships and feel equal. It can also help teachers to create a friendly and positive atmosphere where the chair arrangement can differ from game to game, and this causes a different class. Third, the reason which people want to learn a second language is to use it in real life, communicate with others and transfer their knowledge. Games are good tools for these goals since, a teacher can create different situations, and students can practice words in a different context. Fourth, students need to be emotionally involved. A game can bring strong emotions, like happiness, excitement, amusement and suspense, which allow them to feel positive about their learning situation. Fifth, games are good for introverted students and those with low confidence, and it can show itself when they play in small groups, because they can have a chance to speak in front of a few people rather than the whole class. It is sometimes easier to forget anxiety when playing a game, because the atmosphere is not that much serious, and grammar is not important. Sixth, the school system is too boring for young learners, and it is always based on teachers, but games bring variety and make the students feel these differences. Teachers need to think about games and their benefits for students, and they must preplan for them.

Iran Dolati and Mikaili (2011), for instance, examined the effects of games on facilitating students' vocabulary learning. The purpose of their study was to gain information about the role of games in the area of vocabulary learning among students. The participants of their study were 70 female students in the age of 12 to 13 years old, who were selected from one of the Iranian primary schools in Iran. By analyzing the pretest and posttest, they found that applying games has a significant role in teaching vocabulary to language learners. They also found that games can motivate and engage learners especially the introverted and passive ones in the whole learning process.

Muhanna (2012) stated that from time to time games do craft setbacks for both the teachers and learners since they will not be effective unless the teacher clarifies the task engaging the games. According to Vossoughi and Zargar (2009), games not only encourage learners to participate in class activity, but also help them in vocabulary development. Karpicke (2009) pointed out that games can help students mind to work properly and hard in order to answer the games' question.

A teacher should keep in mind that learning is a broad area and teaching every word by pictures is impossible, because some words are abstract, like freedom, which cannot be felt or shown by pictures. It is true that teachers can use pictures to teach better, but still they may have some problems with abstract words, so they can use different kinds of games like role play to reach their goal.

Teachers must consider when to use games, which of them are useful and how to use them appropriately in order to meet both students' needs and lesson objectives. Unfortunately, some teachers may neglect their usefulness, but as Wright, Betteridge, and Buckby (2005) stated games should be seen as meaningful practice of language, which can be exploited as follow-ups of the present teaching material in order to practice and reinforce the required skills, knowledge. Also, for revising and recycling already acquired skills and knowledge, it can act as a tool for discovering students' weaknesses in their language proficiency. Ge (2012) stated that choosing and using an educational game is very hard for teachers. They should keep in their mind that some issues like the number of students, proficiency, cultural context, timing, and learning topic can influence learners. Games help a teacher to create contexts according to the students' level and make the language useful and meaningful. Liao and Chen (2012) stated that games are like building blocks, which can boost learners' lexical growth and retention. The most important part in learning a language is the memorization of the target language words. However, the problem is that these words might not be correctly recalled over a long period of time. Parle, Singh and Vasudevan (2006) stated that this is related to the human mind by which a daily word can be easily remembered but others not. They defined memory as the process of encoding, saving and recalling.

Based on Schmitt (2000), the amount of exposure to new vocabulary has a direct relation to its learning. When a teacher uses games to teach the unknown vocabulary in the class, they can be repeated several times so learners can learn them in different contexts.

Vahdat and Rasti-Behbahani (2013) investigated the effect of games on Iranian EFL students' vocabulary learning. The participants of their study were 40 intermediate EFL learners, both male and female. They

chose their participants through TOEFL. They divided them into two groups (10 males and 10 females in each): a control group and an experimental group. The control group studied vocabulary in traditional classes, but the experimental group experienced vocabulary learning (the same words) via games. The findings of their study revealed that learning vocabulary via games was advantageous.
According to Gersten and Baker (2000), vocabulary retention plays an important role in vocabulary learning. Some teachers believe that there should be a limitation in teaching vocabulary. A good technique based on their idea is using games, because students can do them over and over for a long period of time. An instructor must be aware of selecting those words which transfer key components and are of high utility and relevant to the words which being taught. Limiting words not only helps teachers to teach better, but also gives them the power to make the revision process faster. Moreover, it can help students understand the deep meaning of words.

Research Questions
Based on the foregoing discussions, the following research questions were developed for this study:
Q1: Is there any statistically significant difference between the effects of teacher-made games and conventional games on Iranian children's vocabulary learning?
Q2: Is there any statistically significant difference between the effects of teacher-made games and conventional games on Iranian children's vocabulary retention?

3. Method
3.1. The Design of the Study
This study had two variables: one dependent, learning and retaining vocabulary and one independent, vocabulary treatment types. This was a quasi-experimental study, in which the researchers used a pretest, an immediate posttest, and a three-week delayed posttest with a control group and an experimental group.

3.2. Participants
All the learners who enrolled in the beginner level of Iran Language Institute in Rasht and Fouman were asked to take Quick Placement Test (QPT) to choose the learners who were really at the beginner level. Forty beginner learners were assigned into two comparison groups. Each class contained twenty learners. Their ages ranged from eight to eleven.

3.3. Materials
3.3.1. Quick Placement Test
This test included 40 multiple-choice items of grammar and vocabulary from simple to difficult and from beginner to intermediate to get homogenized groups of participants. All the students who were the candidates took it. Based on the test rubrics, the participants who scored 0 to 15 were considered to be at the beginner level and those who scored above 15 were excluded.

3.3.2. Pretest, immediate posttest and delayed posttest
The pretest, immediate posttest and delayed posttest were designed by the researchers and the reliability measures of the tests were established and explained in the following sections. All the tests contained 20 multiple-choice items which the learners answered in 40 minutes. The words were taken from the students' coursebook *Up and Away in English*. They were about clothes, sense verbs and different parts of the body, and they had not been learned before. The test items were designed from easy to hard, which has been presented in Appendix A.

3.3.3. Teacher-made games
3.3.3.1. Guess box:
This is a teacher-made game which challenges students' previous knowledge about words. It can be used as a tool for teaching or reviewing. This box has two moving circles on which a teacher can place different words, and it depends on the vocabulary that he wants to teach. The left circle is for the written form of a

word, and the right one is for the picture of a word. Students can easily get the rules of this game since it is so simple. In order to start the game teachers should turn on the device; the two circles move, and they cannot be seen anymore by the students. Then he must start teaching a word and should give some short definitions about it. That they are moving and the students cannot see them increases their curiosity, so they listen carefully to understand what it is. Then the teacher stops the right circle, so they can see the picture. After some coral repetition and memorization of the word, it is time for the writing section. At first, the teacher should ask the students if they can guess how to write the word based on its sound or not. He stops the left circle to show the word to the students and after that, he should write it on the board. And after making a sentence by himself, he can ask the students to make other sentences. In the case of revision, a teacher can use this game in the beginning or the end of a class for revision and playing.

3.3.3.2. Chance game:

This is a teacher-made game which can be interesting for students because it is based on chance. This game has two characteristics: it can be used as a revision device and a game for teaching words. There can be five or more (depending on the teacher's decision) removable pictures on this box with an arrow that is in the middle of the box that can point to each of them whenever the device gets on and off.

At first, the teacher turns on the device so the arrow can move and when the device is off it points to a word, and the teacher starts teaching that one. Students can see all parts of this process, and since it is different from the ordinary way of choosing a word to teach, it is interesting for the students. Also a teacher can ask them to say stop and in this way, they can choose the word which gives them courage. Then, after announcing the word several times, asking the students several questions about the words, and writing the word on the board, he asks the students to make sentences or questions with them. In the case of revision, the teacher should divide students to some groups, and then he must turn on the device and ask them about words. He can also turn on the device two times and ask students to make sentences or questions based on those two words. The group which makes a correct answer can get a positive mark. In this way, he can assess their understanding about a word and the students can understand how to use them in different contexts.

3.3.3.3. Angry circles:

This is a game with different usages. A teacher can use it for teaching a word, reviewing it, sentence making, question making and unscrambling the sentences. A teacher can do lots of games at once by the help of this game. This teacher-made game has five moving circles that give a huge flexibility and power to the teacher to use them based on his goals. However, some common ways of using this game are explained below.

A teacher should talk about a word, and then he must show its picture, which is painted on one circle. After that, he places it on the device and asks the students to repeat it several times. After the repetition and question section, he should write the word and ask the students to make a sentence like the one by him. Then he applies all these steps for the second word, too. After teaching five words and when the device is completed, he asks them to repeat the words again and make questions based on them to ask each other, or he can ask them to place these words in order on the box from left to right in the case of group words (body parts, time activities), which can make the game much more interesting. There are some other activities that a teacher can do with this game.

3.3.3.3.1. Making sentence:

He or she can put some circles in order. Their numbers are written on the back of the cards, so it is easy for a teacher to place them on the device, and it will not take that much time for rearranging them. Each card contains four words. When the device is on, the circles move and the order of the sentence changes, so it challenges the students' vocabulary knowledge and their information about sentence making. After that, when the device is off, students would rearrange the words in order.

3.3.3.3.2. Making question:
A teacher can apply all the above steps with question cards, or he can use those sentences and ask them to make Yes-No, past, future and Wh-questions. They can ask them to change the sentences, too. For example, the example sentence is in the present tense, and they can be asked to change it to future.

3.3.3.3.3. Fill in the blank:
A teacher takes one of the words which have been taught. Students should complete the sentence based on their creativity and previous knowledge about words.

3.3.3.3.4. Time game:
A teacher can omit some circles and ask a group of students to complete the rest of the sentence based on their own words. However, there is a time limit for this game, and it can be shown by some lights, which are designed on the device. Whenever they are off, the students should present their sentences without any mistakes.

3.3.3.4. Magic box:
This game is designed for revision, but it can be used for teaching too, and it depends on the teacher's goal. There is a moving circle in the middle of this box and a pointing arrow which is painted on the box. Whenever a teacher turns the device on, the moveable circles move. A teacher must turn it on and off to start the game. The students name the pictures or in the case of the abstract items, they should look at the word and mime it. In both cases, first, the students should spell the word, make a sentence with that word and ask a question about it of his classmates, and if they cannot answer, his group will get a point. At the end of the game, he should pronounce the word correctly in order to get the full point.
There are some lights on each of these games which attract students and can be used as a tool for specifying times for each game.

3.3.4. Conventional institute games
There are some famous conventional games, which are used in different institutes.

3.3.4.1. Memory:
The teacher presents a word together with its definition, and then he asks for repetition, asks questions, and, at last, writes the word on the board and asks the students to make a sentence. After that, he shows some pictures on cards with their definitions on other cards and asks the students randomly to come to the board and match them. Whenever the teacher wants to review what have been taught he should prepare forty cards on half of which he writes some words and on the other half, he writes the synonyms and short definitions of those words. One student from each group plays this game. Each of them face twenty cards which they should find the correct match for. In this game, the challenge is based on the mind power to remember and speed. Everyone who can find four cards is the winner.

3.3.4.2. Hot seats:
The teacher divides the class into two groups. One student from each group sits in front of them in the way that his or her back is to the board. The teacher writes two different words on the board, and their group members should act out that word, but they cannot say anything. The group which gets three points will win the game.

3.3.4.3. Hangman:
The teacher starts presenting the word orally. After repetition and asking questions of the students, he asks the students to guess the written form of the word based on its sounds. If they guess it correctly, he writes it on the board. Otherwise he draws one part of a hanged man on the board. This game continues until the students complete the whole word or the picture becomes complete. In the case of reviewing, the teacher thinks of a word and writes a row of dashes, which is based on the number of the letters of the actual word. There is an important rule in this game according to which a teacher cannot use some

words, including proper nouns such as names, places, and brands. If the students say the correct letter, he must write it instead of one of the dashes; otherwise, the teacher draws an element of a hanged man. The game is finished whenever they can guess or the picture is completed. In this game, both groups participate simultaneously.

3.3.4.4. Erase a word:

After teaching the words in the unit, the teacher writes them on the board and asks the students randomly to read them aloud. If they say it correctly all the class members clap for them. Whenever the teacher wants to review the words, he should write two lists of the words in the unit on the board. Then he makes two groups. Each team forms a line leading to the board. The first person reads the word, and if it is correct, he erases it and names another word, but if he is wrong, the student moves to the back of his or her team's line. The first team which erases all the words is the winner.

3.4. Procedures for Data Collection and Analysis

For the starting point, QPT was given to 60 participants to choose the beginner-level learners. The learners who got 0 to 15 were chosen to participate in the current study. Then the selected participants were divided into two groups. A teacher-made 20-item pretest of vocabulary was administered to both groups before teaching vocabulary. Since none of the participants got more than five on the pretest, no one was excluded on the pretest.

The first group was taught the new vocabulary by four teacher-made games:

a. Magic box
b. Angry circles
c. Chance game
d. Guess box

The second group received the same words, but with four conventional institute games:

a. Hangman
b. Hot seats
c. Erase a word
d. Memory

The vocabulary instruction was presented twice a week in 4 sessions. Each class session was 90 minutes, but 20 minutes of each session were allocated to teaching vocabulary. During each session, the students were presented with 5 new words. The course material was the coursebook *Up and Away in English*. Finally, all the participants took an immediate posttest and, after three weeks, a delayed posttest, which were parallel to the pretest.

To analyze the data, SPSS was used to run t-tests between the groups and repeated measures ANOVAs within the groups. Also, the reliability measures of the tests were established.

4. Results and Discussion

Before starting the treatments, QPT was employed to establish the homogeneity of the participants in the terms of language proficiency. It consisted of two parts: vocabulary and structure. Initially, 60 male and female students participated in the study. After the administration of QPT, 40 beginning students whose scores were between 0 and 15 were selected. Then they were randomly classified into two groups. A third group was chosen to act as a sample for establishing the reliability of our tests. All the tests were further modified and validated and were proved reliable.

The descriptive statistics of QPT are shown in Table 1 below.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics for the proficiency scores

Group	N	Mean	SD
Control	20	3.20	1.473
Experimental	20	3.70	1.031

Table 1 indicates that the groups were at the same level.

Before the treatments started, a vocabulary pretest was given to the participants to make sure that the groups were initially equal regarding their vocabulary knowledge. The results from the pretest appear below in Table 2.

Table 2. Descriptive statistics for the pretest scores

Group	N	Mean	SD
Control	20	3.00	.686
Experimental	20	2.90	1.447

As it can be seen from Table 2, the mean scores of the control group and experimental group were 3 and 2.90, respectively, which seem to be very close to each other.
The results of the immediate posttest, after the treatment, appear in Table 3 below.

Table 3. Descriptive statistics for the immediate posttest scores

Group	N	Mean	SD
Control	20	12.35	2.033
Experimental	20	17.00	1.556

As it can be seen from Table 3, the mean scores of the control group and experimental group are 12.35, and 17, respectively, and the experimental group seems to have outperformed the control group.
Also, the results of the delayed posttest appear in Table 4 below.

Table 4. Descriptive statistics for the delayed posttest scores

Group	N	Mean	SD
Control	20	12.75	2.221
Experimental	20	18.25	1.682

As it can be seen from Table 4, the mean scores of the control group and experimental group are 12.75 and 18.25, respectively, and once more, the experimental group seems to have outperformed the control group.
In order to find out whether the differences between the two groups on the different tests were significant, four t-test analyses were run. Table 5 summarizes the results of these analyses.

Table 5. T-tests between the scores of the two groups on all the tests

Group	*t* value	N	*p* level
QPT	-1.244	38	0.221
Pretest	0.201	38	0.842
Immediate posttest	-8.122	38	0.000
Delayed posttest	-8.828	38	0.000

The *p* levels of the immediate posttest and delayed posttest were smaller than 0.05, which means that the differences were significant. However, the groups were not significantly different on the homogeneity test and pretest.
Therefore, both null hypotheses were rejected and the experimental group significantly outperformed the control group on both the immediate and delayed posttests. In other words, the teacher-made games were more effective than the conventional games for both the acquisition and retention of the new vocabulary.
We also needed to run within-group analyses to find out which group(s) had improved more since the pretest and retained that learning until the delayed posttest. The results of repeated measures ANOVAs showed that both groups improved from the pretest to the posttest and managed to retain that learning until the delayed posttest. However, Scheffe post-hoc tests results revealed that there was no significant

difference between the immediate and delayed posttests of the control group, while there was a significant difference between the two posttests of the experimental group in favor of the delayed posttest. This could have been due to some learning between the immediate and delayed posttests because of the attractiveness of the teacher-made tests and the repetition of those games by the students themselves. But some informal interviews with the participants after the study revealed that there was no repetition and the students claimed that this was the effect of the teacher-made games that helped them remember the words later when they met them again in the delayed posttest. Thus, the teacher-made games were more effective than the conventional games in both the acquisition and retention of the new vocabulary.

This study was an attempt to shed more light on the field of vocabulary learning and teaching. This result is in line with the results of some other studies. For example, according to Schmitt (2000), explicit vocabulary teaching strategy is recommended for learners.

Thornbury (2002) pointed out that when a teacher presents new vocabulary to students, they will turn to their passive vocabulary knowledge, and learners may forget or cannot recognize where to use them correctly. It can be resolved just through some activities, which involve a learner. So, in this case, the passive knowledge will turn into an active one because they are using them in different ways. He also mentioned that there are lots of activities, which can transfer words from learners' short-term memory to the long-term one, but based on the findings of this research not all the games can be useful to turn words from active to passive. They should be carefully selected based on the course and students' knowledge. Some games can turn a quiet class to a place that cannot be controlled by the teacher.

Based on Haynes (2010), vocabulary games can solve any problems that a student may face during learning, because not only do they make the situation comfortable, full of fun, but also, they help them to remember the vocabulary items faster and better. According to the result of the research some games cannot solve all students' problems which they may face during learning since they are made to be amusing rather than educational and teachers would use them to pass the extra time and keep students busy, but because teacher-made games are in congruence with the course, they have been designed for education and not just for passing time.

Linse (2006) pointed out that vocabulary knowledge, greatly affects the language ability of the learners. This result validates the theory that information processing can be more effective if it engages students. According to Foreman (2003), using games in the class is an excellent idea for students to practice new vocabulary since they have time to practice them without the risk of failure, there is the element of an information gap between teammates, and it would engage every one of the students and they are responsible for the point. In a game, two humans' skills would combine together, which are physical and mental powers. Playing games would teach them how to consider the alternatives. It makes a class a different place in which learning is the central point. Students will share their information about vocabulary through communication, but some introverted students may face problems since they are too shy to handle the pressure of games stress, so the game should not be too challenging for them to answer.

A teacher must keep in mind that kids cannot sit silently in the class without moving around. They are full of energy, so if teachers push them too hard to do these things, it would result in their inhibition. Therefore, a teacher should recognize this and use good activities in view of children's need for fun and for turning the time of learning in a class to an amusing time.

Fullagar, Knight, and Sovern (2013) stated that when students are engaged in complex games instead of being engaged in learning explicitly and face vocabulary superficially they see more connections, become more interested and also pay more attention.

Cornillie, Igor, Stefan, Paulussen, and Desmet (2011) stated that it is true that games would help students in different ways, but this does not mean all types of games are applicable in improving second language learners' vocabulary. A game should target two main goals: it should amuse learners and at the same time provide them with information to learn. According to Davidson (2008), serious games and game-based learning are different from entertaining games. While they are enjoyable, they have a design for a more primary purpose other than entertainment. They also mentioned that educational games focus on educating. They have two parts which are blended together; one of them is educational purposes and the other one is enjoyment. Since in teacher-made games, teachers are the creators of the game, they can

easily add some parts to the games and make them interesting. Also, teachers can test those games in different classes and reassemble them, but conventional games cannot be reassembled and changed; they have fixed rules and teachers should obey them to reach their goals.

Teacher-made games can be different; for example, some of them can be competitive in nature and challenge students' mind. The rest can be like a map that allows learners to work with each other in order to solve a problem and in this kind of games, there is not any winner or loser. Based on MacKenty (2006), the act of problem solving makes a game exciting and if a game is based on risk or failure, it will not attract all students. Games give students the courage to engage in problem-solving. But based on the findings of this research, some conventional games do not attract students and do not even want to attend the games.

Teachers must consider when to use games, which of them are useful and how to use them appropriately in order to meet both students' needs and lesson objectives. For example, Hangman which is a well-known game is based on the foreign culture in which a man is hanged when he is guilty of crimes and they relate this issue to the loser of a game, but nowadays teachers are using them in their classes without paying attention to students' feelings. They indirectly give a message to learners that committing a suicide is as easy as hanging a man on the board. This issue can happen because teachers are using games which are not based on students' culture, but this problem does not happen in teacher-made games since a teacher will design a game which is usual for their society.

Some teachers may neglect the usefulness of such games, because they have used conventional games and not teacher-made games and assume that the output of such games are in a low level and it is not worth the time wasted for playing games. Ge (2012) stated that choosing and using an educational game is a very hard work for teachers. He should keep in his mind that some issues like the number of students, proficiency, cultural context, timing, and learning topic can influence the learners. Games help a teacher to create contexts according to the students' level which make the language useful and meaningful. Liao and Chen (2012) stated that games are like building blocks which can boost learners' lexical growth and retention. The most important part in learning a language is the memorization of target language words. However, the problem is that these words might not be correctly recalled over a long period of time. Parle et al. (2006) stated that this is related to the human mind in which everyday words can be easily remembered but others not. The result of this study showed that teacher-made games have a great effect on students' retention and faster recall of words. They motivate students to attend the game and make sure that they remember the words since they learn them in amusing ways.

Teacher-made games can be adjusted to students' knowledge and the teacher can modify the game to reach a specific goal based on each culture. According to Wolfe (2001), young learners are under pressure in a strict situation like class, but if a teacher tries to use a game which can bring down the anxiety it can affect their learning, because when they are under stress, their mind cannot store anything. If they attend a class the teaching of which is based on games, they will participate in the groups without any kind of stress. When a teacher uses hand-made games he will indirectly show his attitude toward teaching the course and the love of his students. But conventional games do not convey this meaning since they are bound to the course.

Teachers, too, have a vital role in classes. They can make the learning situation an exciting place for a learner by using the appropriate games since they can reduce anxiety, which is an obstacle for kids' learning. Because they fear making mistakes, learners will not try to produce any new sentences.

Games will not just benefit students, but they have some advantages for teachers too, which can be listed below.

1. In the class: The teacher can use it for teaching, reviewing, assessing students and reducing anxiety.
2. After the class: Students can go home and study more in order to win the games next time, and the instructor can be sure that her students will not forget to study.
3. At the end of the year: A teacher can be relaxed about the amount of vocabulary which has been learned by the students and that is for using games because they make learning a stable process.

During the teaching process a lot of words are taught by the teacher and games can help students to transfer them from their short-term memory to long-term memory and recall them whenever needed.

5. Conclusion

The present study investigated two hypotheses which read "There is no statistically significant difference between the effects of teacher-made games and conventional games on Iranian children's vocabulary learning" and "There is no statistically significant difference between the effects of teacher-made games and conventional games on Iranian children's vocabulary retention". The results rejected the hypotheses.

Teachers need to seek for effective methods in order to teach vocabulary to their students, so they can use the language more communicatively. Methods such as teacher-made games are not so famous in order to teach vocabulary. Teachers use these kinds of games for just having fun in the class, but the results of this study showed that games can help the teachers to create contexts in which the language is useful and meaningful.

It can be concluded from the results of this study that teacher-made games have positive effects on the learning process. Using such games in the classroom results in higher motivation and facilitates the learning process of children and their cognitive achievement. The learning process becomes much more pleasant and by amusing students in such games, the anxiety involved in the learning process is extremely reduced. Teachers can use games as a tool to obsess students' mind and to cause sparks in their mind.

It was seen that the experimental group learned the vocabulary items more effectively and efficiently. They were very eager to attend the teacher-made games since they were close to their culture and they could understand them better. This shows that teachers should spend more time for creating games, because they can engage students, and learners will recall the answers of activities whenever they remember the games. In other words, they will have a memory of that course, but not just simply a memorization of that lesson.

In conclusion, EFL teachers should teach vocabulary by using different methods including teacher-made games instead of focusing on conventional games. For instance, teachers can design games based on their own cultures and environments so that students will find them useful to learn. Using just conventional games makes students bored of learning, but since teacher-made games are new they will attract their interest. Students cannot predict the results of them, and teachers can change them whenever they want. Because these games are teacher-made, they have flexible roles and are easy to manage in a class.

6. Limitations and Delimitations of the Study

As in all classroom studies, there are obvious limitations in this study. One limitation is the length of the treatment sessions which was very short (approximately 20 minutes for each treatment session). It is possible that with longer treatment sessions, the participants will benefit more. Also, the researchers tested only one proficiency level of learners, namely beginning level students.

Finally, this study was restricted to two cities in Iran, namely Fouman and Rasht, and only focused on language learners who were 8 to 11 years old who had enrolled at Iran Language Institute, so the results of this research cannot be generalized to all kid language learners.

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Appendix A
Vocabulary Pretest
1. He was sad because his pants' ……was old.
a) shirt b) socks c) belt d) hat
2. He makes furniture. He need a/an……to make a chair.
A) necklace b) eraser c) bracelet d) nail
3. He was sad because he lost his sister's gold……..which was/were very old.
a) teacher b) tummy c) bracelet d) grand father
4. She was wearing a silver…….., but she didn't like it.
a) pen 2) gift 3) marble 4) necklace
5. May's mother is wearing a red ……in the party.
a) blouse b)rice c) cup d) marker
6. Ali's father said, "put on your …….or you will catch cold."
a) watch b) sweater c) necklace d) bracelet
7. He can't touch my ……because he is short.
a) grandfather b) house c) shoulders d) baby sister
8. There was a monster behind the tree. He was thin, but after eating the food, his…….was very big.
a) tummy b) shirt 3) pail 4) baby
9. He was walking in the jungle suddenly a thorn went in her……..
a) feel b) tail c) foot d) tooth
10. My friend and I are building a pet dog`s house. We need a…….. to finish our work.
a) head b) hammer c) violin d) skirt
11. He is touching the sheep with his …… The sheep feels like cotton candy.
a) mouth b) tongue c) kick d) fingers
12. Ali is kicking the ball with his new……..and Nima will catch it.
a) legs b) sneakers c) fingers d) hands
13. May is hungry. She smells popcorn with her …….and eats it with her mouth.
a) hands b) eyes c) nose d) fingers
14. He is a naughty boy. He always tastes cakes with his ……and fingers.
a) tongue b) toes c) eyes d) nose
15. The car's tires went on her……. and she screamed.
a) nose b) toes c) mouth d) eyes
16. There is a bird on the tree and Jimmy……..it.
a) sees b) tastes c) read d) drink
17. He can't ……the bird because his ears are old.
a) run b) draw c) taste d) hear
18. On December 5, he goes to the park and …….the cold winds on his face.
a) sees b) feels c) hears d) tastes
19. It is 12:15 in the afternoon. He …….the food and he gets hungry.
a) drink b) smells c) hears d) pushes
20. Ali is a chef and he ……..the food to add a little salt.
a) play b) pop c) ride d) tastes

TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE NEW ENGLISH TEXTBOOK NAMED *PROSPECT 1* USED IN IRANIAN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

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ABSTRACT
MATERIALS EVALUATION IS AN EDUCATIONAL NECESSITY BECAUSE IT SHOWS HOW A TEXTBOOK CAN BE IMPROVED OR JUSTIFIED. TEACHING MATERIALS HAVE A DIRECT INFLUENCE ON THE PROCESS OF LEARNING AND TEACHING. THIS RESEARCH TENDS TO EVALUATE TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE NEW ENGLISH TEXTBOOK USED IN IRANIAN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS NAMED PROSPECT 1 WHICH WAS INTRODUCED BY THE IRANIAN MINISTRY OF EDUCATION IN 2014. TO ACHIEVE THIS GOAL, A RESEARCHER-MADE QUESTIONNAIRE WAS USED AND ACCORDINGLY AN INTERVIEW WAS RUN AMONG TEACHERS WHO TEACH THIS BOOK IN CITIES OF ISFAHAN, NAJAFABAD, AND FOOLADSHAHR, IRAN. THE SAMPLE OF THIS STUDY CONSISTED OF 150 TEACHERS FOR COLLECTING THE QUANTITATIVE DATA AND THE QUALITATIVE DATA WERE OBTAINED THROUGH INTERVIEW WITH FIVE TEACHERS. THE TEXTBOOK WAS EVALUATED IN TERMS OF EIGHT MAIN FACTORS INCLUDING LAYOUT AND PHYSICAL APPEARANCE, CONTENT, OBJECTIVES, LANGUAGE TYPE, SKILLS, ACTIVITIES AND TASKS, CULTURE VALUES, AND TEACHER'S NEEDS. QUANTITATIVE DATA WERE COLLECTED THROUGH A FIVE-POINT LIKERT SCALE QUESTIONNAIRE CONSISTING OF 57 ITEMS FOR TEACHERS. THE FINDINGS REVEALED THAT TEACHERS WERE IN FAVOR OF THE NEW ENGLISH TEXTBOOK IN TERMS OF LAYOUT AND PHYSICAL APPEARANCE, CONTENT, OBJECTIVES, LANGUAGE TYPE, SKILLS, AND ACTIVITIES AND TASKS. THE RESULTS ALSO SHOWED THAT TEACHERS HAD ACCEPTED THE NEW TEXTBOOK SUITABLE AND PRACTICAL FOR TEACHING ENGLISH.

KEY WORDS: CRITICAL ANALYSIS, TEXTBOOK EVALUATION, PROSPECT 1

1. Introduction

Textbooks are considered an essential component of any EFL course so that the use of EFL published materials is more widespread than ever. They serve teachers with guidelines concerning syllabi, teaching methodologies, and the materials to be taught. Here care should be done in choosing the best suitable text for a particular context. More recent authors have criticized textbooks for their inherent social and cultural biases. Researchers such as Porreca (1984), Florent and Walter (1989), Clarke and Clarke (1990), Carroll and Kowitz (1994), and Renner (1997) have demonstrated that many EFL/ESL textbooks still contain rampant examples of gender bias, sexism, and stereotyping. They describe such gender-related inequities as: the relative invisibility of female characters, the unrealistic and sexist portrayals of both men and women, stereotypes involving social roles, occupations, relationships and actions as well as linguistic biases such as 'gendered' English and sexist language. Such findings have led researchers to believe that the continuing prevalence of sexism and gender stereotypes in many EFL/ESL textbooks may reflect the unequal power relationships that still exist between the sexes in many cultures, the prolonged marginalization of females, and the misrepresentations of writers with social attitudes that are

incongruent with the present-day realities of the target language culture (Renner, 1997; Sunderland, 1994).

Iranian government-run schools use materials produced according to the syllabuses and curricula designed and developed by the Iranian Ministry of Education and under the supervision of this organization. In Iran, learning English happens as a part of the normal school program. Usually, English is learned either to pass exams part of one's education or for university entering evaluations. In this fashion, therefore, textbooks essentially determine and control the methods, processes, and procedures of language teaching and learning. Moreover, the pedagogic principles that are often displayed in many textbooks may also be conflicting, contradictory, or even outdated depending on the capitalizing interests and exploitations of the sponsoring agent. The textbook proposed for evaluation is "Prospect 1" which is recently developed for the native Persian speakers learning English as a foreign language at the first grade of junior high school. The book is published by the Iranian Ministry of Education. Since this is the introduction to English for students, it is important to analyze teachers' perceptions and beliefs on this new context. Palmer (1921) stated that "If we take care of the elementary stage, the advanced stages will take care of themselves" (p. 13). Hence, this study aims at evaluating the textbooks from teachers' point of view and tries to show that textbook evaluation is a necessary and worthwhile process for teachers in this context. This study also attempts to examine the advantages and disadvantages of this textbook. The study specifically highlights the need for assessing the existing checklists regarding EFL teachers' perception and beliefs. In this respect, the present study proposes a screening procedure that would enable EFL practitioners including inspectors and teachers of English to assess current TEFL materials evaluation checklists and select and adapt the one that specifically conforms to the needs and requirements of their particular language programs.

2. Literature Review

Textbook evaluation, according to Cunningsworth (1995), would involve the careful selection of materials examining whether they reflect the needs of the students, aims, methods, and values of a specific teaching program. Textbook evaluation helps the teachers move beyond impressionistic assessments and it further facilitates them to acquire useful, accurate, systematic, and contextual insights into the overall nature of textbook materials (A Cunningsworth, 1995; Ellis, 1997). Through the evaluation of a textbook, teachers know the content of the book, its strengths and weaknesses which will facilitate them to adapt it to suit the course aims, students' needs, and teachers' beliefs. As Littlejohn (1998) observes, textbook evaluation serves the purpose of examining whether the methodology and content of the materials are appropriate for a particular language teaching context. The evaluation would test out the claims materials make for themselves: whether they truly develop autonomy, whether they truly involve problem solving, and if they indeed are communicative as its writers claim.

There have been long debates about the values of using or not using textbooks. Whereas teacher-generated materials can be time, cost, and quality defective, textbooks can reduce potential occupational overload and allow teachers to spend their time undertaking more worthwhile pursuits (O'Neill, 1997; Sheldon, 1988). Haycraft (1978) stated that one of the main advantages of using textbooks is that they are psychologically necessary for students since their achievement and success may be evaluated concretely when they are used. Although some theorists have alluded to the inherent danger of the inexperienced teacher who may use a textbook as a pedagogic crutch, such an over reliance may actually have the opposite effect. Some of different theorists have talked for and against using them. Textbooks which yield a respectable return on investment are relatively inexpensive and involve low lesson preparation saving students from a teacher's deficiencies (Kitao & Kitao, 1997; O'Neill, 1997; Williams, 1983). Hutchinson and Torres (1994) have pointed out that textbooks may play a pivotal role in innovation. They suggest that textbooks can support teachers through potentially disturbing and threatening change processes, demonstrate new and/or untried methodologies, introduce change gradually, and create scaffolding upon which teachers can build a more creative methodology of their own.

English language teaching/learning has many important components but the essential one for many EFL classrooms is the textbook. It is difficult for teachers to teach systematically without a textbook. They think they need written materials during the process of teaching. The role of textbooks is crucial in providing base of materials not only for the teachers but also for the students. Sheldon (1988) suggests

that textbooks not only represent the visible heart of any EFL program but also offer considerable advantages for both students and the teachers when they are being used in the ESL /EFL classrooms. Hutchinson and Torres (1994) stated that the textbook is an almost universal element of teaching. Millions of copies are sold every year and numerous aid projects have been set up to produce them in different countries…No teaching-

O'Neill (1997) demonstrated that textbooks are often sensitive to students' needs, even if they are not organized particularly for them, they are adequate in terms of money and time and they can and should allow for adaptation and improvisation. Cunningsworth (1995) pointed out the potential which textbooks have for serving several additional roles in the ELT curriculum. He argues that they are an effective resource for self-directed learning, an effective resource for presentation material, a source of ideas and activities, and a reference source for students, a syllabus where they reflect pre-determined learning objectives, and support for less experienced teachers who have yet to gain in confidence. Hutchinson and Torres (1994) identified four ways in which textbooks can help in times of educational change: first, as a vehicle for teacher and student training; second, because they provide support and relief from the burden of looking for materials; third, by providing as complete picture as possible of what the change will look like; and the last, through the psychological support they give to teachers.

3. Methodology

3.1. Research Design

This study sought to evaluate the first year English textbook through the survey. Based on the research objective, the null hypothesis was formulated as "The teachers have not accepted the new book suitable and practical way of teaching English". The descriptive survey in which the phenomenon is described is the appropriate approach by which the data are collected, analyzed, and interpreted. Through teachers' questionnaire, the quantitative data were gathered. In addition, interviews from teachers were used to collect qualitative data. Using questionnaire and interviews to gather needed information is one of the advantages of applying this methodology. Questionnaires are the most useful and less expensive method for collecting data from selected sample in a short period. In addition, interviews help gather detail information regarding the concepts of the questionnaires. To complete the objectives of this study, the required data were collected based on the teachers' answers to the needs analysis questionnaires and the interview questions by some of them.

3.2. Participants

This study was administered in high schools of Isfahan, Najafabad, and Fooladshahr, Iran. One hundred and fifty male and female teachers took part in this study for gathering the quantitative data. They were chosen randomly. They were asked to fill in the questionnaires prepared by the researcher and express their opinions about the textbook. To collect the qualitative data, five English teachers who were teaching prospect 1 in some high schools of Isfahan, Najafabad, and Fooladshahr were invited to the interview. They warmly accepted to do the interview and discussed about the topics. It was assumed that the teachers were aware of the English learning needs of high school books because they were completely familiar with the present status of their field of study and had some knowledge about their lacks and wants towards Iranian high school English textbook.

3.3. Instruments

The main instrument for collecting data in this study was questionnaire. This questionnaire was adapted from some questionnaires which were related to the topic under study and, then, they were modified according to the needs and their usability by the researcher. Most of the items in the questionnaire were adapted and modified from the checklists and criteria used to evaluate English Language Teaching (ELT) materials by A Cunningsworth (1995), Peny (1996), Tomlinson (2003), Richards (2001), Tekir and Arikan (2007), and Abraha (2008). The researcher selected common features of these checklists. This questionnaire was prepared in English language. The main purpose of designing this questionnaire was to be acquainted with the teachers' perception on the evaluation of the new published English book for the first year of junior high school (Prospect 1). This questionnaire was issued to 150 teachers of Iranian high schools and focused on the main themes designed in the teachers' questionnaire. The teachers' questionnaire was in target language. It contained two main parts. The first part of the questionnaire

named "demographic part" was designed to gather some information about teachers' personal characteristics and the second part named "textbook evaluation" made an attempt to extract the view of the teachers toward the first grade textbook (Prospect 1) general characteristics, teaching, and learning content. This part included eight main categories: layout and physical appearance, content, objectives, language type, skills, activities and tasks, culture values, and teacher's needs. It should be added that, totally, these eight parts consisted of 56 items. All the items in these parts were designed on a five-point Likert scale of frequency, where 1= strongly agree, 2= agree, 3= undecided, 4= disagree, and 5= strongly disagree.

The second tool for gathering information of the research was interview. The purpose of the researcher for doing interview was to gain an insight to the research questions. Moreover, the researcher could make sure that the information he gathered through the questionnaire was correct. The interviews were conducted to obtain rich information and greater insight into the teachers' perception of Prospect 1. The data gathered through the interviews helped to get a more correct conclusion regarding the research objective. The researcher could interpret the meaning of the survey data better by the results of the interviews. The data, which were gathered through the teachers' interviews, helped the researcher in making a correct conclusion. By questionnaire, the researcher understood the general attitudes and perceptions of the teachers toward the new textbook (Prospect 1). But to gain more comprehensive information regarding their attitudes toward the prospect 1 textbook, its content, objectives, skills, as well as the teachers' main attitude about this course of study, the interviews were done. The purpose of doing teachers' interview was to investigate the opinions and attitudes of the teachers of the junior high school textbook (prospect 1), how it was taught, and the needs of the students. Teachers' interview consisted of seven questions including seven main parts or themes which were needs analysis, layout, skills, authenticity, content and objectives, teaching methodology, and teachers' general attitude towards the Prospect 1 textbook.

3.4. Data Collection Procedures

3.4.1. Teachers' questionnaire.

The first draft of the questionnaire was constructed according to the research aims. The questionnaire with the content validation form and face validation form were sent to three experts with the intention of reviewing the questionnaire by them. The purpose of content validation form was to determine content validity and face validity of the questionnaire. According to the viewpoints of these experts, some changes were made on the first draft of teachers' questionnaire. The second draft was designed as the result. The Teachers' questionnaire was originally designed in English. As the respondents were English teachers, no translation was done on it.

To calculate the questionnaire reliability, 10 English teachers were asked to fill in the questionnaire. Moreover, before starting the research, the questionnaire was piloted. For each theme, the amount of Chronbach' Alpha was calculated. Subsequently, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient was applied on the results of the pilot study to determine the internal reliability of the items of the questionnaire. Reliability of 0.7 pointed to the matter that the internal reliability of the questionnaire items was acceptable. Based on the results, the questionnaire was finalized for the large-scale data collection. As it was mentioned before, this questionnaire had two main themes, namely demographic information and teachers' textbook evaluation. Separately, for each theme, the amount of Chronbach' Alpha was measured and, then, it was done for the entire questionnaire.

After calculating the reliability, 200 questionnaires were distributed among the English teachers teaching in cities of Isfahan, Najafabad, and Fooladshahr, Iran. The researcher took part in the meetings which were held for reviewing the new textbook. Out of those 200 questionnaires, 150 questionnaires were usable for data entry.

3.4.2. Teachers' interview protocol.

Teachers' interviews were held in English language as the participants were English teachers. The interview was mostly adapted from Litz (2005) and researcher made some changes and chose the appropriate ones which completed this research. For examining its content validity, one form of content validation was prepared and sent to the three experts to rate the validity of the questions based on two

criteria of the appropriateness of the questions in representing the topic and the clarity of the meaning of the questions. The result of the content validation form showed that the interview questions did not have any ambiguous part and were clearly understood. Therefore, the final draft of the teachers' interview was prepared. Teachers who participated in this study had taught Prospect 1 during the previous year. The researcher asked 10 English teachers to take part in the interview and they voluntarily accepted to participate. All the interviews were conducted in January 2015 and every participant was given a consent form to be signed. Agreement was obtained from all of the participants. All of the teachers' interviews were direct interview. Initially, the subject and the purpose of the study and the interviews were explained to the participants individually in five to 10 minutes. Then, each question was put to the interviewees in turn and they were asked to reply freely. They were asked to fill a consent form.

3.5. Data Analysis Method

The initial required data were collected through questionnaires and interviews to find out the attitudes of teachers toward the new textbook. To this end, descriptive statistics determining the frequencies and percentages of the teachers' answers indicating their needs and lacks were used. In order to analyze the results of this study, the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used. The researcher grouped the attitudinal agreement and disagreement points of the view of the teachers and, then, determined the frequencies and percentages of their attitudes.

4. Results and Findings

4.1. Teachers' Perceptions of the New English Book

In order to answer the first objective of the present study, i.e. teachers' perceptions of the new English text book, one sample t-test was applied. Three was set as the test value. The eight parts of teachers' questionnaire (layout and physical appearance, content, objectives, language type, skills, activities and tasks, teachers' needs, and cultural values) were investigated separately. The findings are presented in Table 1.

Table 1
Teachers' Perceptions of the New English Textbook. (Prospect1)

Variable	Test Value = 3		
	t-value	Significance	Mean Difference
Layout and physical appearance	-7.609	0.000	-0.41
Content	-8.276	0.000	-0.45
Objectives	-5.025	0.000	-0.32
Language type	-5.964	0.000	-0.44
Skills	-4.338	0.000	-0.29
Activities and tasks	-2.936	0.004	-0.23
Cultural values	-1.885	0.061	-0.22

As shown in Table 1, teachers were in favor of the new English textbook in terms of layout and physical appearance ($P < 0.001$), content ($P < 0.001$), objectives ($P < 0.001$), language type ($P < 0.001$), skills ($P < 0.001$), and activities and tasks ($P < 0.005$). However, the results found no significant results for teachers' perceptions of the cultural values.

4.2. Results of the Teachers' Needs Analysis

The frequencies and percentages of teachers' responses to nine questions of the teachers' questionnaire related to needs analysis are presented in the following table:

Table 2
The Descriptive Statistics of the Results Related to the Teachers' Needs Analysis

Statements	Agree		Not decided		Disagree	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
48. The use of the material is easily manageable by the teacher.	79	53	20	13	51	34
49. The teacher's manual suggests an appropriate concise method for teaching each lesson.	77	51	40	27	40	27
50. The design of the materials allows the teachers to use them differently according to the needs of different students.	64	43	32	21	54	36
51. The teacher's manual helps the teachers understand the objectives of the textbook.	71	47	47	31	32	21
52. The manual gives instructions on how to incorporate audiovisual materials produced for the textbook.	82	55	42	28	26	17
53. The manual provides additional exercises for reinforcing various language skills in the textbook	56	37	41	27	52	35
54. Teachers are given techniques for activating students' background knowledge before reading the texts.	69	46	44	29	37	25
55. The tests and assessment devices are helpful to the teacher.	68	45	42	28	40	27
56. The manual provides teachers with alternative and authentic assessment techniques	56	37	43	29	51	34

Based on the results of the Table 2, the highest frequency for teachers' responses belongs to item 52 (The manual gives instructions on how to incorporate audiovisual materials produced for the textbook) and the lowest frequencies belong to the same item and item 51 (The teacher's manual helps the teachers understand the objectives of the textbook). The teachers' perceptions of the new English textbook needs are sorted in Table 3.

Table 3
Sorting of Teachers' Perceptions of the Needs

Items	Mean
52. The manual gives instructions on how to incorporate audiovisual materials produced for the textbook.	2.56
51. The teacher's manual helps the teachers understand the objectives of the textbook.	2.59

48. The use of the material is easily manageable by the teacher.	
49. The teacher's manual suggests an appropriate, concise method for teaching each lesson.	2.7 2.75
54. Teachers are given techniques for activating students' background knowledge before reading the texts.	2.8
55. The tests and assessment devices are helpful to the teacher.	2.83
50. The design of the materials allows the teachers to use them differently according to the needs of different students.	2.85
53. The manual provides additional exercises for reinforcing various language skills in the textbook	2.87
56.The manual provides teachers with alternative and authentic assessment techniques	3.09

As shown in the above table, items 52 and 51 had the lowest mean values, but the items 56 and 53 had the highest values among teachers' perceptions of the new English textbook teacher needs.

4.3. Analysis of the Teachers' Interview

The teacher's interview protocol consisted of eight main sections. The first question of interview was about the book layout and its appearance which was subdivided into questions related to quality of papers, color, and so on.

They responded to the first question that the layout and appearance of the book are ok. Alex said:

The size of the book is good. I prefer the large size, but they have changed it to the small size for the prospect 2.

About the cover he added that:

I should say it is somehow philosophical; its perception is difficult for the students.

Another part of this question was about headings which Alex described them good, but Harry, another teacher, did not like the way they are presented.

Another question was about teaching aids, which Tom said:

Its CD is good and complete, although the speakers of the CD are not logical.

Regarding the second interview question about the content of the book, whether they are well formed and attract the students, Harry said:

I actually don't understand what I should do and what the book expects me to teach the students.

Alex stated that:

The content of the book is a mix of politics, religion, and language. It tries to preach morality and so on. I should say this book tries to use communicative language teaching approach. As you know, in this method you can use native language in the classroom.

The third interview question was about the objectives of the book. In this regard, Ann stated that:

The objectives are clear. In each lesson, an objective is presented.

Betty briefly averted that:

There is no clear objective.

Alex stated that:

A very weak point of the book is that the words have not been repeated in the later lessons. For example, you see a word in lesson one and never see it again.

The fourth question of the interview was related to the language type of the textbook. The teachers were asked if they think the kind of used language is real and can be usable in the student's life.

Ann believed it is not authentic at all. Alex criticized it and said it is not English but Fenglish. In this regard Harry said:

There are strange nouns which you cannot find in English.

Similarly Betty believed that:

The type of language is usable for students, and the exercises designed to be used in real situations.

Skills were the fifth subject of the interview about which the researcher asked some questions. Most of the teachers had similar opinions related to this issue. Most of them believed that the most attention is paid to listening and speaking. Betty believed:

There is no text actually in this book and we cannot call it a textbook.

Alex affirmed that:

Audio materials are practical and useable.

Harry said:

This book just focuses on listening and speaking .No attention is paid to reading and writing.

Ann said, "*The CD is so fast and most the students cannot follow it*".

The sixth question was about the activities .The teachers were asked, whether the activities are suitable, sufficient, and clear. Most of them declared that they are clear because instructions are in Farsi and students understand what to do. However, Alex believed that the exercises do not suit the lessons.

When answering the seventh question which was about cultural values, most of them answered that they don't see any cultural contrast.

Alex believed that:

The book tries to convey religious and national culture through itself and no attention is paid to the culture of source language.

The last question was related to the teachers' needs. In this regard, Alex believed that teacher's book is useful, but Harry did not believe so. He said:

The teacher book and CD don't help so much .I myself had to design a power point for teaching

5. Discussion and Conclusion

The general purpose of this study was to evaluate teachers' perception of the new English textbook used in Iranian junior high schools named Prospect 1 written by Alavimoghadam et al. (2014). The book is prescribed by the Ministry of Education of Iran to be taught at the first grade in all governmental high schools in the country. The researcher chose to evaluate this book for two reasons: first, it is the foundation stone in the English language program and second, it is a new book and evaluating it is an educational necessity. The evaluation deals with categories including general appearance, design and illustration, accompanying materials, objectives, topic contents, language contents, social and cultural contexts, language skills, teachability, teaching methods, and practice and testing.

The findings revealed that teachers were in favor of the new English text book in terms of layout and physical appearance, content, objectives, language type, skills, and activities and tasks. The findings of the study also rejected the second null hypothesis as the teachers had not accepted the new textbook suitable and practical for teaching English. The following outcomes are achieved and discussed in comparison with the findings of other studies.

- How do Iranian high school English teachers perceive new English textbook used in Iranian high schools (prospect 1)?

To answer this question which is related to the first objective of the research, different aspects of the mentioned textbook were investigated. They included layout and physical appearance, content, objectives, language type, skills, activities and tasks, and cultural values. The first thing in a book or textbook that catches the attention of reader or student is its appearance. The teachers answered to this aspect of the textbook positively and their answers confirmed the ideas of Alan Cunningsworth and Tomlinson (1984) who emphasized a good balance between visual material and written text, Nunan (1991) who believed students' view of language is a combination of the way materials are organized and types of content and activities, and Sheldon (1988) who stressed the significance of mix of text and graphical material.

The teachers' answers about the second part of the questionnaire, content, were conducive. Most of them agreed on the familiarity of topics to the students and appropriateness of the book's table of contents. Most of the participants claimed that "the content promotes students' autonomy"; this fact is in line with the idea of A Cunningsworth (1995) who believed the textbooks must stimulate students to become more independent in their learning and in their use of English. Our findings about topical, functional, and logical organization of the textbook is in line with Sheldon's statement (1988) who believed that the

textbook should be organized in such a way that the units and exercises connect in terms of theme, situation, topic, pattern of skills development, or progression in grammar and lexis.

In the third part of the questionnaire, the participants stated that the objectives of the current textbook are realistic, clear, and precise and they correspond to the needs of the students. The fourth part of the questionnaire was about language type that the most noticeable thing in teachers' answers was the emphasis of textbook on language use. In general, 60% of the participants voted on the authenticity of the materials of the present book that is in line with Swan's idea (1985).

The fifth part of the questionnaire was about the variety of skills applied in this book. Although most of the participants believed that the textbook contains listening materials accompanied by activities which help comprehension and less attention to writing activities such as controlled, guided, and free paragraphs. They also believed that the material for spoken English is sufficient. These results are not in line with the idea of scholars such as McDonough and Shaw (2012) who argued that materials should enable the students in four skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing). Altogether, they are satisfied with at least three skills applied in this textbook.

The sixth part of the questionnaire was about textbook's activities and tasks. Richards (2001) elaborated that textbook's tasks should be flexible and suit students with different learning styles. The participants' answers were not in line with this idea and about half of them (48%) believed that there are a variety of activities in the textbook. Therefore, they did mainly agree that there are sufficient instructions to explain how the exercise should be done.

The last part of the questionnaire was about textbook's cultural values. As the result showed, the teachers were not in favor of the new English textbook in terms of cultural values. They mainly disagreed on the opinion that claimed "the content serves as a window into learning about the target language culture." This finding is not in line with the ideas of scholars like Brown and Rodgers (2002) who believed a language is a part of a culture and these two cannot be separated, Gao (2006) who discussed the interdependence of language learning and cultural learning, and A Cunningsworth (1995) and Nation Ming-Tzu (1999) who believed foreign language teaching is foreign culture teaching.

- Have the teachers accepted the new developed textbook as a suitable and practical way of teaching English?

With respect to the second question, teachers' answers to nine items of the teacher's needs part of the questionnaire were mostly agree about: easily manageable use of the material, presenting appropriate, concise method for teaching each lesson in teacher's manual, different design of the materials that allows the teachers to use them differently according to the needs of students, the teacher's manual helps the teachers understand the objectives of the textbook, the manual gives instructions on how to incorporate audiovisual materials produced for the textbook, techniques for teachers to activate students' background knowledge before reading the texts, helpful tests and assessment devices for the teacher. Only in two items, the number of agree and disagree answers were close to each other: alternative and authentic assessment techniques and additional exercises for reinforcing various language skills have been provided in the teachers' manual. Altogether, it can be concluded that the teachers accepted the new textbook as a suitable and practical way of teaching English.

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THE EFFECT OF STRATEGIC COMPETENCE ON PRE-INTERMEDIATE IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS' READING COMPREHENSION ABILITY

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ABSTRACT
THIS STUDY INVESTIGATED THE EFFECT OF USING STRATEGIC COMPETENCE ON IRANIAN PRE-INTERMEDIATE EFL LEARNERS' READING COMPREHENSION ABILITY. TWO EXPERIMENTAL (N = 25) AND CONTROL (N = 25) GROUPS WERE RANDOMLY CHOSEN THROUGH AN OXFORD QUICK PLACEMENT TEST OUT OF 70 PRE-INTERMEDIATE LEARNERS STUDYING AT ARYANA INSTITUTE, LAHIJAN, IRAN. TWO READING COMPREHENSION TESTS WERE ADMINISTERED TO THEM AS PRETEST AND POSTTEST. THE TASK OF USING STRATEGIC COMPETENCE WAS INSTRUCTED TO THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP AS THE TREATMENT DURING THEIR ENGLISH CLASSES. IT LASTED FOR EIGHT 90-MINUTE SESSIONS. THEN, BOTH GROUPS TOOK THE POSTTEST. THE COLLECTED DATA DEMONSTRATED A SIGNIFICANT ROLE FOR USING STRATEGIC COMPETENCE TO IMPROVE THE PARTICIPANTS' READING SKILL. THE FINDINGS MAY HELP THE LEARNERS TO IMPROVE THEIR READING SKILLS BY USING STRATEGIC COMPETENCE. THEY MAY ALSO BE BENEFICIAL FOR EFL TEACHERS WHO ARE SEARCHING WAYS OF IMPROVING READING COMPREHENSION ABILITY OF THEIR STUDENTS.

KEY WORDS: READING COMPREHENSION ABILITY, STRATEGIC COMPETENCE, LEARNING STRATEGY

1. Introduction

Reading as an active receptive language skill is one of the most complex cognitive activities (Pour-Mohammadi & Abidin, 2011a). Most of the studies on second language reading indicated that second language learners use a set of competencies for reading effectively (e.g., Brantmeier, 2002; Shrum & Glisan, 2000; Singhal, 2001). Grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence and strategic competence are the four basic competences which help second language learners in order to achieve plenty of reading tasks.

According to Renandya and Richards (2002), strategic competence, which is the way learners manipulate language in order to meet communicative goals, is perhaps the most important of all the communicative

competence elements. It is the ability to compensate for imperfect knowledge of linguistic, sociolinguistic and discourse rules. Bachman and Palmer (2010) describe strategic competence as a set of metacognitive components functioning in higher executive process, providing cognitive management function in language use and the other cognitive activities. They also believe that strategic competence consists of a set of metacognitive strategies concerned with planning, monitoring and evaluating language learners' problem-solving activities. The view is largely derived from Steinberg's description of metacomponents in his model of intelligence (see Steinberg, 1988).

In addition, they maintain that strategic competence acts as the major component, linking the individual characteristics of language users, consisting of language knowledge, topical knowledge, personal characteristics, and affective schemata to the characteristics of language use settings. The two frameworks demonstrate an interaction among areas of language ability, topical knowledge, affective schemata, on the one hand, and the interaction between the mentioned attributes and the characteristics of language use setting through strategic competence, on the other. Strategic competence consists of a set of metacognitive strategies interacting with a language user's language knowledge, topical knowledge, affective schemata, and the characteristics of a language use task to achieve a communicative language purpose.

2. Literature Review

Reading has been defined in different ways by several researchers. Besides, according to Pour-Mohammadi and Abidin (2011b), readers dynamically interact with the text and use different kinds of knowledge while they seek to elicit meaning. Reading strategies was defined as "techniques and methods readers use to make their reading successful" (Baker & Boonkit, 2004, p. 302). Moreover, reading strategies also has been defined as plans and behaviors for solving problems when faced in constructing meaning (Janzen, 2003). He believes that these strategies range from bottom-up strategies to more comprehensive ones like top-down strategies. Bottom-up strategies are defined as making use of information, which is already present in the data, such as understanding the text by analyzing the words and sentences in the text itself, or looking up an unfamiliar word in the dictionary. On the other hand, top-down strategies make use of previous knowledge such as connecting what is being read to readers' background knowledge. Some other strategies include evaluating, asking questions, checking for answers, making predictions, summarizing, paraphrasing and translating.

In this regard, Scullen and Jourdain (2000) examined the effect of the explicit teaching of oral circumlocution on undergraduate learners studying French as a foreign language in an American university. The treatment group was explicitly taught to use super-ordination, analogy, function, and description strategies immediately prior to the first, the second and the third practice sessions, respectively. The participants in both control and experimental groups completed a pretest, three practice sessions, and a posttest. The results indicated that both the treatment and control classes made significant gains in successful identification over time, but the between-group difference on the posttest was not significant.

In another study, Rossiter (2003) reports the effects of communication strategy instruction on strategy use and on second language performance. Two classes of adult immigrants in Canada participated in this study. One class received 12 hours of direct communication strategy training, and the second served as a comparison group. Two oral tasks (picture story narratives, object descriptions) were administered in Week 1, Week 5, and Week 10. The posttest results showed a direct effect in favor of the communication strategy condition on a range of strategies used in the object description task, which was more effective than the narrative in eliciting communication strategies. Nonetheless, the author concludes that strategy training appeared to have little impact on learners in terms of task performance.

In a different study, however, Rahimi, Riazi and Saif (2008) investigated the use of language learning strategies among 196 Iranian EFL learners including 79 males and 117 females. The findings revealed that

no significant difference exists between males and females in the use of language learning strategies. It was explained that this finding might be related to the fact that the participants of the study were all majoring in English and it may be possible that "the participants' awareness of language learning processes minimized the gender effect in this study" (p. 47). In brief, the current study tried to answer the following question:

- Does strategic competence statistically significantly affect pre-intermediate Iranian EFL learners' reading comprehension ability?

3. Method

3.1. Participants

The participants of this study were 50 male and female Iranian pre-intermediate learners with the age range of 18 to 24 studying English at Aryana Institute, Lahijan, Iran. The experimental and the control groups were selected according to the randomized pretest-posttest experimental/control group design.

3.2. Materials

3.2.1. Oxford Quick Placement Test consisting of 60 multiple choice items was administered for the purpose of homogenizing the participants.

3.2.2. A reading comprehension test which assessed the level of proficiency of learners and a reading strategy questionnaire were utilized in this study in order to gain some information about the familiarity of learners with reading strategies. The reading comprehension test consisted of 30 items. It was taken from Cambridge IELTS test. Both pretest and posttest enjoyed identical level of difficulty.

3.3. Procedures

The reading comprehension consisted of 30 items taken from Cambridge IELTS test selected for this study. In order to test any causal relations between variables, pretest-posttest design with the two groups was implemented. A pretest was administered to 70 learners, and then a total of 50 learners obtained pre-intermediate level. Then, 25 learners were randomly assigned to be in the experimental group and 25 learners were randomly chosen to be in the control group. The experimental group received 8 sessions of 90-minute reading comprehension instruction class as well as teaching strategies, while the control group followed the routine method for reading. Both groups were under the instruction of the same teacher for two sessions a week. Then the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software version 22 was used to process the gathered data. Finally, covariance test was run to compare the pretest and the posttest of each group.

4. Results and Discussion

4.1. Descriptive analysis of the data

Table 1 indicates the results of group statistics for the reading comprehension ability test scores in participants.

Table 1. Statistics for the reading comprehension ability test

IELTS test Descriptive Statistics	
N valid	50
Missing	0
Mean	10/71
Std. Error of Mean	./10
Median	10/5
Mode	10
Std. Deviation	./70
Variance	./50
Skewness	./50
Std. Error of Skewness	./33

Kurtosis	-1/01
Std. Error of Kurtosis	./66
Range	2
Minimum	10
Maximum	12
Sum	536

4.2. Inferential Analysis of the Data

To determine whether there was a difference between the two groups, an ANCOVA was run on the pre- and posttest scores of the two groups. Before implementing ANCOVA analysis, Leven test for condition equality of the variances was investigated. Levene's test of equality of error variances is presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Levene's test of equality of error variances

F	Df1	Df2	Sig.
7.51	1	48	.53

The Levene's test assumes the equality of the variances. This is a test that determines if the two variables have about the same or different amounts of variability between scores. Accordingly, the significance level came to .53 which is larger than the .05 value. This means that there is a statistically significant relation between two conditions. Table 3 summarizes the inferential analysis of the data before and after the treatment. It is clearly shown that the experimental group who received the strategic competence performed better than the control group who received traditional approach.

Table 3. ANCOVA test for different groups

Source	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	2	12/42	169/23	./000
Posttest	1	42/65	49/91	./009
Group	1	283/64	336/06	./000

According to both descriptive and inferential data analyses, the experimental group who received the strategic competence outperformed the control group who received traditional approach teaching. Since the significance level was smaller than .05, the null hypothesis of the study was rejected; this implies that strategic competence did have a significant effect on Iranian pre-intermediate EFL learners' reading comprehension ability. It can be concluded there was a significant difference between the participating groups. In this study almost all participants in the experimental group felt that strategic competence could help in improving their reading comprehension ability.

The main aim of teaching strategic competence in this study was to establish whether teaching the followed methodologies were effective or not. The results showed that the experimental group who received the strategic competence performed better than the control group who received traditional approach teaching. The findings are consistent with other research studying the effect of metacognitive awareness on L2 reading which indicated variation in the strategic behavior of learners concerning their level of language proficiency (e.g. Rasekh & Ranjbary, 2003; Yang, 2002; Zhang & Wu, 2009). The outcome of the present study is that it is possible to improve reading comprehension ability by strategic competence. Strategic competence represents a confluence of individual and organizational characteristics, suitably configured to enable the organization to proactively detect those weak signals indicative of the need for change and act.

5. Conclusion

This study intended to examine the effect of teaching strategic competence on Iranian pre-intermediate EFL learners' reading comprehension ability. The results showed that the experimental group who received the strategic competence performed better than the control group who received traditional approach teaching. Strategic competence helps learners acquire, store, recall, interpret and act upon information of relevance to take better learning. This study showed that strategic competence has significant beneficial effect on Iranian pre-intermediate EFL learners' reading comprehension ability. However, further research is required to address many questions such as connection between learners' personality and their capacity to benefit from strategic competence.

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THE CHALLENGING BARRIERS OF IMPLEMENTING POSTMETHOD PEDAGOGY IN IRANIAN ELT CONTEXT

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ABSTRACT
QUESTIONING THE THEORETICAL AND PRACTICAL VALIDITY OF THE CONCEPT OF METHOD, A NUMBER OF APPLIED LINGUISTS AND ELT SCHOLARS THROUGH USING DIFFERENT TERMS CALLED IT DEAD (BROWN 2002).ONE OF THE MOST DRAMATIC CHANGES ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING HAS WITNESSED IS THE DEMISE OF THE CONCEPT OF METHOD AND ITS REPLACEMENT BY KUMARAVADIVELU'S POST-METHOD PEDAGOGY. THIS PAPER IDENTIFIES THE CHALLENGING BARRIERS OF IMPLEMENTING POSTMETHOD PEDAGOGY. TO ACHIEVE THIS AIM, 10 EFL TEACHERS INTERVIEWED. THE FINDINGS INDICATED THAT IRANIAN EFL TEACHERS DON'T SEE ANY TRANSITION FROM METHOD-BASED PEDAGOGY TO POST-METHOD; MOREOVER, THE MAJORITY OF PARTICIPANTS BELIEVED THAT THE STARTING POINT FOR CHANGE SHOULD BEGIN AT ALL LEVELS SIMULTANEOUSLY: MICRO-LEVEL AS WELL AS MACRO-LEVEL. THE PARTICIPANTS REPORTED THE IDEALOGICAL BARRIERS OF RESISTANCE AGAINST ANY CHANGE AND LACK OF WILLINGNESS AS WELL AS PROBLEMS ASSOCIATED WITH POST-METHOD PEDAGOGY WHICH NEEDS FREE EDUCATIONAL INFRASTRUCTURE. SOME IMPLICATIONS, FOR THE PRACTICE OF TEACHER EDUCATORS, FOR POLICY-MAKERS AND FOR ADMINISTRATORS, ARE SUGGESTED. IT ALSO HIGHLIGHTS THE NEED FOR TEACHER EDUCATORS TO REFORM EFL PROGRAMS IN ORDER TO CATER THE EMERGENCE OF CURRENT PARADIGM.

KEYWORDS: POST-METHOD PEDAGOGY; METHOD; TRANSMISSION; PEDAGOGICAL BARRIERS; IDEOLOGICAL BARRIERS

I. INTRODUCTION

After the successive rise and fall of a couple of methods in the early and mid-twentieth century, the ELT researchers came to realize that no single method or approach of language teaching would be the optimal framework to draw upon especially as it was seen that certain learners seemed to be successful regardless of methods or techniques of teaching (Brown, 2000).

Various teaching methods have come into vogue and disappeared. Ethically speaking, the traditional idea of method reduces experienced teachers to the state of mindless robots programmed to carry out the methodological suggestions. However, following a method or a blend of methods seems to be useful for novice teachers who have recently started their teaching since each method provides a pack of suggestions including a set of prescriptions on what teachers and learners should do in the classroom (Salmani-Nodoushan, 2006).

Implementing postmethod pedagogy in Iranian ELT context may create some challenging barriers on the part of teachers, students, and teacher educators. These are the issues that are going to be investigated in the present study.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A. Shift from PPPs to PPPs

The Presentation-Practice-Production model of activity sequencing (PPP) is the traditional activity sequencing pattern on which many Foreign Language Teaching (FLT) course books have relied, and its presence can still be appreciated today (Tomlinson, 2011a: xv). The origins of PPP and of the explicit attention to activity sequencing issues can be traced back to the mid 20th century, when PPP became the adopted teaching sequence by the Structural Methods –the North-American Audiolingual Method, the British Situational Language Teaching Method and the French Audiovisual Method (Criado, 2013:98).

Questioning the theoretical and practical validity of the concept of method, a number of applied linguists and ELT scholars through using different terms called it dead (Allwright,1991; Brown 2002; Clarke, 2003; Jarvis, 1991; Kumaravadivelu, 1992, 1994, 2001,2002, 2003a, 2003b, 2006a, 2006b; Mackey, 1965; Nunan, 1989; Pennycook, 1989; Stern, 1992).

This newer understanding in foreign language teaching methodology has been described as the postmethod condition .As Kumaravadivelu (2006) describes postmethod condition:

The postmethod condition is a sustainable state of affairs that compels us to fundamentally restructure our view of language teaching and teacher education. It urges us to review the character and content of classroom teaching in all its pedagogical and ideological perspectives.

Postmethod pedagogy can be visualized as a three-dimensional system consisting of three pedagogic parameters: particularity, practicality, and possibility.

The most important aspect of postmethod pedagogy is its *particularity*. That is to say, any postmethod pedagogy "must be sensitive to a particular group of teachers teaching a particular group of learners pursuing a particular set of goals within a particular institutional context embedded in a particular sociocultural mileu" (Kumaravadivelu,2001, p. 538). The parameter of *practicality* relates broadly to the relationship between theory and practice, and narrowly to the teacher's skill in monitoring his or her own teaching effectiveness (Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p. 172). The parameter of *possibility* is closely linked to power and dominance, and is aimed at creating and sustaining social inequalities. They also stress "the need to develop theories, forms of knowledge, and social practices that *work with* the experiences that people bring to the pedagogical setting" (Giroux, 1988:134).

This dramatic shift and change from the method era to postmethod era indicates a shift from a positivist-oriented perspective to a constructivist-oriented one and "a shift from transmission, product-oriented theories to constructivist, process-oriented theories of learning, teaching, and teacher learning" has been particularly conspicuous (Crandall, 2000, pp. 34-35).

B. Challenging Barriers of Implementing Postmethod Pedagogy

a. The Pedagogical Barriers

The postmethod teacher is considered to be an autonomous teacher that "it can be seen as defining the heart of postmethod pedagogy" (Kumaravadivelu, 2001:548). To summarize, and borrowing on Akbari (2005):*The postmethod condition is a more democratic approach to language teaching profession since it assigns a voice to practitioners and respects the type of knowledge they possess. In addition, it is a libratory move which gives teachers more autonomy and confidence in the decisions they make in their classes (p. 5).* The top-down criticism leveled against the *bogeyman* of method entails its being too prescriptive in the sense that teachers don't seem to have any voice in what to teach and how to teach it. And this is equally true about the roles of teachers and learners (Crandall, 2000; Kumaravadivelu, 1994; Pennycook, 1989; Richards and Rodgers, 2002).

Regarding the unavoidable need for real life communications, post-method pedagogy is very keen to explore and apply the available instructional means in language classroom, and beside linguistic accuracy improve fluency, too. To this end, instead of teacher-centeredness the classes are learner-centered and learners are regarded cooperative partners rather than isolated competitors (Brown, 2007). Akbari (2008)

mentioned the high work load and teaching hours practiced by some teachers in some countries and some contexts. Due to financial and occupational constraints, some teachers are too busy to devote adequate time and energy to have reflection or let say draw upon their own "*sense of plausibility*" to overcome the language classroom problems in an era which there is not any method anymore.
Shakouri Masouleh (2012) mentioned that for the post-method pedagogy to take try hold, change should begin with the academic community which lays the foundations for teacher education and certification, norms of practice, standardization of language tests, as well as teacher hiring and firing policies. In other words, change should be multilateral because the requirements for a post-method pedagogy are too demanding to be fulfilled by teachers acting as rebels against their discourse.

b. The Ideological Barriers
In recent lines of investigations in second language teaching, as Kumaravadivelu (2006) maintains, there seems to be a shift toward a post-method era that defines a new relationship between teachers and theorizers, which is pushing teachers towards the world of skills, knowledge, and autonomy. Through empowerment and pedagogical insights gained, teachers are able to theorize based on their practice and practice theories (Hazratzad& Gheitanchian,2010).
The results of the study done by Hazratzad&Gheitanchian (2010) indicate that EFL teachers have different attitudes towards do teaching methods but that there is no relationship between the teachers' attitudes towards post-method and their students' achievement. Hence, in order for EFL teachers to meet the challenges of the 21st century, prospective teacher candidates must be provided them with the skills and techniques needed to understand contemporary educational developments as well as to gain extensive linguistic and cultural knowledge so that they may build up the confidence for successful delivery of communication-oriented language classes.The lack of specific road map to reach teachers toward self-autonomy and self-improvement is another challenge of postmethod pedagogy not only in Iran but also in other countries.
In postmethod condition learners gain a sense of responsibility for aiding their own learning and that of their peers, and they develop a degree of sensitivity and understanding toward other learners who may be more or less competent than they themselves are (Kumaravadivelu, 2001, 11). Many teachers and teacher educators also look up to native speakers for inspiration thinking that they have ready-made answers to all the recurrent problems of classroom teaching. By their uncritical acceptance of the native speaker dominance, nonnative professionals legitimize their own marginalization (Kumaravadivelu, 2001).

Research Questions of the study
Regarding the aforementioned literature, the researchers aimed to investigate the challenging barriers of implementing postmethod pedagogy in Iranian ELT context.
The following research questions will be answered in this research:
1. Did Iranian ELT context witness transition from method-based pedagogy to post-method in practice?
2. What are the pedagogical barriers of implementing postmethod pedagogy in Iranian ELT context?
3. What are the ideological barriers of implementing postmethod pedagogy in Iranian ELT context?

III. METHODOLOGY
A. Participants
This study was conducted on 10 EFL teachers teaching English in universities and language institutes in Iran .There were 5 male and 5 female teachers, within the age range of 28 to 55. They had from 1 to 30 years of teaching experience. Participants' academic degrees were M.A., PhD in the fields of English language teaching.

B. Instrumentation
Semi-structured interview questions were also developed for EFL teachers. Interviews include two parts; 1. Background questions (gender, major, academic degree, type of institution and years of teaching experience). 2.Questions on the challenging barriers of implementing postmethod pedagogy in Iranian

ELT context; First of all, the content of the interview questions were determined based on the relevant literature, drafted and revised according to the feedback received from the panel of EFL experts. It should be stated that questions were designed based on the key concepts of "postmethod pedagogy" presented in the research and literature for e.g. Kumaravadivelu, 2006 which reviewed earlier. Part 2 includes eight questions which focus on three main categories of transition from method-based pedagogy to post-method, pedagogical and ideological barrier. It also contains the good guidelines they provided as to which phenomena are worthy of attention when exploring participants' attitudes toward it. The rationale for using interviews was that interviews provide researchers with information on factors which are not directly observable such as students' attitudes, perceptions, and opinions (Mackey & Gass, 2005).

C. Procedure

As for the interviews, the participants were interviewed based on the eight questions exploring the challenging barriers of implementing postmethod pedagogy in Iranian ELT context. Specifically, the interview questions investigated some issues including the transition from method-based pedagogy to post-method; and the pedagogical and ideological barriers of implementing postmethod pedagogy in Iranian ELT context. The data of this part consisted of 200-minute audio-recorded interviews. Teachers' interviews were conducted in English. These interviews were transcribed; then researchers reading the transcriptions to looking for similarities and differences in order to find themes and develop categories.

D. Data analysis and results

The researcher read, re-read, and coded the transcriptions of the interviews she had conducted. In order to further analyze the data, the researcher tried to use a systematic approach. By comparing and contrasting the data, the researcher attempted to determine the distinctive characteristics of each data set. The findings were grouped according to the interview questions the data addressed. Tables 1 to 3 display the descriptive statistics of the study.

Table 1:
Gender

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	5	50.0	50.0	50.0
	Female	5	50.0	50.0	100.0
	Total	10	100.0	100.0	

As shown in Table1, 5 participants (50%) are male and 5 participants are female (50%).

Table 2:
Academic degree

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	MA	3	30.0	30.0	30.0
	PhD	7	70.0	70.0	100.0
	Total	10	100.0	100.0	

Table 2 indicated the participants' academic degrees which were M.A. and PhD. According to this table, there are 30 % M.A academic degree, and 70 % PhD in the study.

Table 3:
Years of teaching experience

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1-10	5	50.0	50.0	50.0
	11-20	4	40.0	40.0	90.0

	21-30	1	10.0	10.0	100.0
	Total	10	100.0	100.0	

Table 3 showed participants' years of teaching experience that from 1 to 30 years. As indicated in this table, 50 % participants have 1-10 years of teaching experience, 40 % have 11-20 and 10 % has 21-30 years of teaching experience.

In this section the research questions, 1–3, are discussed in terms of the 10 participants who respond the interview questions. The first question aimed to discover the current situation of the post-method pedagogy in Iranian context. The second and third questions aimed at discovering pedagogical and idealogical barriers of implementing postmethod pedagogy.

Research Question 1: Did Iranian ELT context witness the transition from method-based pedagogy to post-method in practice?

Table 4:
Transition from method to postmethod

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	3	30.0	30.0	30.0
	No	6	60.0	60.0	90.0
	so so	1	10.0	10.0	100.0
	Total	10	100.0	100.0	

Table 4 investigated the transition from method-based pedagogy to post-method in Iranian EFL context in practice. More than fifty percent of participants (60%) believed that they don't see any transition from method-based pedagogy to post-method; while from the view point of 30% of participants, there are evidences witnessing the beginning of change from conventional methods to post-method in Iranian EFL contexts specifically in private sector (language institutes).

Research Question 2: What are the pedagogical barriers of implementing postmethod pedagogy in Iranian ELT context?

Responses of EFL teachers (40%) in the sample to the second question showed that this change should begin at all levels simultaneously: micro-level as well as macro-level. The Most important barrier was stated as a lack of integration and balance between macro-level policy making and micro-level instruction. First, not all teacher educators are well-informed of the issue. In other words, they need to have the prerequisite knowledge and skills to be able to deal with the issue of post-method pedagogy. Some of them are still looking for the best method of teaching .Teachers are the next group who need to explore the post-method pedagogy and discover its potentials since they need to accept to play a more different role as a intellectual transformative, opposite to the traditional part they are used to play in educational settings. Learners may also be involved if they are given the chance to appear as new casts in educational contexts to be language explorers, not passive recipients of teachers' prescriptions.

Respondents (30%) also expressed another barrier is our beliefs system which must be re-oriented towards new ways of learning and teaching. To them teachers resisted any transition from method to postmethod because of they believe to their role as passive technicians. However, social complexities will hinder the progress of such ideas as it requires tolerance and motivation on the part of teachers and students (20%). 10% of respondents believed that teachers can't implement it since post-method pedagogy is too demanding, it is a collection of idealized mottos which are good as long as they are read about and discussed, as soon as they enter the practical phase they vanish. The last pedagogical challenge was lack of budget (10% of respondents).

Research Question 3: What are the ideological barriers of implementing postmethod pedagogy in Iranian ELT context?

The last question in the interview asked about the ideological barriers. The first idealogical barrier is pertinent to resisting against any change and lack of willingness. Because there goes the ideology of a person, whatever the position is, that constitutes the greatest barrier for a post method era! (30%). Other respondents (30%) indicated that one of the major problems associated with post-method pedagogy is that it must be cherished in an open and free educational infrastructure; while the educational system in our country is so centralized, favoring issuing decrees and decisions from the above; Furthermore, respondents (20%) expressed the ideological and pedagogical barriers are closely related to each other and change in ideology is prerequisite any other changes. If educational system believes in this change, they will set the context and take time. The last barrier discussed teachers may not be mentally open to post-method because it is sometimes undesirable and unacceptable to set aside their long-held habits and pedagogies. Sometimes it is not easy for them to stand against their managers and supervisors.

V. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATION

The main purpose of this study was to investigate pedagogical and ideological barriers of implementing postmethod pedagogy in Iranian ELT context. Results indicated that sixty percent of participants (60%) believed that they don't see any transition from method-based pedagogy to post-method; Moreover, majority of respondents believed that for the post-method pedagogy to take try hold, the starting point for change begin at all levels simultaneously: micro-level as well as macro-level. They consider all stakeholders at all levels. It doesn't only incorporate educators, teachers, and learners. Top-level policy-makers, social values, political status quo, course designers, materials developers, assessment system etc., all are at play. As Akbari(2008) believed the realization of a postmethod pedagogy requires the existence of an appropriate teacher education infrastructure as well as an acknowledgement of the limits teachers face in their actual classroom lives.

The finding of this study is consistent with a paper published at 2013 titled " on the familiarity of Iranian EFL teachers and learners with post-method, and its realization" by Razmjoo et al.The findings of the study raised doubts about the feasibility, possibility or practicality of a fully post-method based teaching pedagogy and questioned its emergence into Iranian context. The study proved that there is a long distance to the actual manifestation of post-method principles, especially its possibility and practicality parameters.

In the interviews, participants expressed their idealogical barriers toward postmethod pedagogy. The most important idealogical barriers are resistance against any change and lack of willingness as well as problems associated with post-method pedagogy which must be cherished in an open and free educational infrastructure in Iranian ELT context. It is rather apparent that there are many subtle and not so subtle ways in which the ideological and pedagogical barriers cause impediments for progress in postmethod pedagogy. There is no gainsaying the fact that it is only a transmission model of teacher education that can effectively maintain the authority of traditional knowledge producers and knowledge transmitters even though it fails to instill in the student teachers the much-needed capacity for autonomous decision making and the ability for systematic, reflective classroom observation (Kumaravadivelu, 2003b, p. 543).

The suggestions can easily be modified and made more relevant to suit the instructional aims/activities and institutional constraints/ resources of various learning/teaching contexts (Kumaravadivelu, 2001,12).First of all we need to practice postmethod condition and try to develop a framework for it because it is a kind of philosophy. In postmethod pedagogy, we should move towards the way that not only active the three roles of teachers, students and teacher educators but also give them perception to be a change agent in their careers to engage in a professional development. These changes should be done in all aspects of educational system included multifaceted and dynamic nature of postmethod condition. We cannot separate teachers from students; they are connected to each other. Teachers should have their own theory and philosophy. An important concern Allwright sees the need for global principles for general guidance, but their implications need to be worked out for local everyday practice. He sees a cyclical connection between the two, as represented in what he calls a "crude loop diagram": Think globally, act locally, think locally.(Allwright, 2003a, p. 115)

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MJLTM

IRANIAN EFL TEACHER BURNOUT AND ITS RELATION TO HUMAN RESOURCES IN WORKPLACE

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ABSTRACT
THIS PAPER AIMS AT STUDYING TEACHER BURNOUT RATE AMONG IRANIAN EFL EDUCATORS IN DIFFERENT CONTEXTS AND THE INFLUENCE OF HUMAN RESOURCES IN THE WORK ENVIRONMENT ON THIS PHENOMENON. "*MASLACH BURNOUT INVENTORY*" THAT CONSISTED OF THREE SUBSCALES: EMOTIONAL EXHAUSTION (EE), DEPERSONALIZATION (D), AND PERSONAL ACCOMPLISHMENT (PA) AND "*HUMAN RESOURCES SATISFACTION*" THAT WAS PARTLY ADAPTED FROM THE HEALTH AND SAFETY EXECUTIVE'S (HSE) MANAGEMENT STANDARDS INDICATOR TOOL AND CONTAINED ITEMS CONSIDERING SCHOOL LEADERSHIP, RELATIONSHIPS, COLLEAGUE AND SUPERVISOR SUPPORT WERE GIVEN TO 102 (32 MALE AND 70 FEMALE) EFL EDUCATORS. THE RESULTS REVEALED THE MEAN OF 46.3529 (42.13 %) WITH A MINIMUM OF 26 AND MAXIMUM OF 67 FOR THE RATE OF BURNOUT AMONG IRANIAN EFL EDUCATORS. HOWEVER, THE ONE-WAY ANOVA DIDN'T SHOW ANY SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE AMONG THREE CONTEXTS OF SCHOOL, UNIVERSITY AND INSTITUTE IN TERMS OF TEACHER BURNOUT. FINALLY, PAIRED SAMPLE *T*-TEST SHOWED THAT THERE IS A SIGNIFICANT AND ALSO NEGATIVE CORRELATION BETWEEN HUMAN RESOURCES AND TEACHER BURNOUT.

KEYWORDS: TEACHER BURNOUT, HUMAN RESOURCES, IRANIAN EFL EDUCATORS, WORKPLACE SOCIAL SUPPORT, SCHOOL LEADERSHIP

1. Introduction

Education is the most precious asset in a society that is delivered by teachers. In all communities, teaching has always been considered as one of the most respected positions. However, despite the fact that teaching is a pleasant career, teachers and educators are faced with difficulties which in some cases lead to attrition. Teachers often find themselves working well beyond a 40-hour week as they supervise student projects, coach career development teams, evaluate student work and prepare lessons (Straquadine, 1990). The long hours at work, coupled with the stress of teaching may eventually lead to debilitating health problems (Vaughn, 1990). As a consequence, teachers are prone to burnout, a

condition characterized by emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and loss of a sense of personal accomplishment (Maslach and Jackson, 1981).

Teacher burnout must be studied in the light of its potential impact on teacher turnover rates and the quality of teaching provided to students. Nevertheless, despite the importance of the topic, it has been sparsely touched in Iranian educational environment in general and in EFL contexts in particular. The present study was designed to bridge the gap in this respect in EFL contexts.

The main objectives of the present study were to see the burnout rate among EFL teachers in Iran, compare it in three different contexts -- universities, schools and private institutes -- and study its relation with human resources. In particular, the study was designed to answer the following questions:

1. What is the teacher burnout rate among Iranian EFL educators?
2. Is the teacher burnout rate the same in different Iranian EFL contexts (private institutes, schools and universities)?
3. Do human resources have an influence on teacher burnout rate in an Iranian EFL context?

2. Literature Review

Job burnout is usually conceptualized as a work-related syndrome stemming from the individual's perception of a significant gap between expectations of a successful professional performance and an observed, far less satisfying reality (Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Schwab, Jackson, & Schuler, 1986; Maslach, 1993; Friedman, 1999; 2000; Kilavuz, 2006). One of the professions characterized by high levels of burnout and emotional exhaustion is teaching (Hakanen, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2006; Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). Careful consideration should be given to teachers' role because their presence in the educational process ensures the quality of human and social resources of society (Zlatkovic & Petrovic, 2011).

According to Shinn (1982) and Katzell, Korman, and Levine (1971), teachers are three times more likely to quit their jobs and even more likely to want to quit their jobs than are similarly trained professionals. Burned out educators are unable to deal successfully with the overwhelming emotional stress of teaching (Brouwers & Tomic, 2000) and as Truch (1980) mentioned, 90 percent of all teachers had experienced some level of burnout.

Cherniss and Krantz (1983) maintained that burnout involves the loss of commitment and moral purpose in work. In teaching practice, losing idealism is a great danger for a teacher since this profession stands on intrinsic values. Burnout may be an individual problem, but, according to some research, it is also the problem of social environment in which people work. (Maslach & Leiter, 1997).

"Teacher burnout could be a problem with potentially serious consequences for the teaching careers of the teachers concerned as well as for the learning outcomes of their students" (Chan, 2007, p. 35). In line with this, Cephe (2010) asserts that teachers should be really safe from burnout for the sake of effective teaching since the consequences of burnout may be frustrating for both teachers and learners in the teaching and learning process.

Campbell (1983) affirmed that the society cannot afford the large number of teachers who leave the teaching profession each year due to the symptoms of burnout. In this respect, Townley, Thornburg and Crompton (1991) mentioned that the identification of workplace and personal variables that are significantly related to burnout and/or competence can be useful to employers as they hire new teaching staff.

Foley and Murphy (2015) examined the relative contributions of individual differences, work environment and coping factors to teacher burnout in an integrative predictive model. The study was carried out in the Irish context, where no such research had previously been conducted. It was a cross-sectional survey-based study with a sample of 192 second level teachers. Results suggested that individual differences, environmental and coping factors (to a lesser extent) play a significant role in predicting burnout. Each dimension was predicted by varied combinations of these factors, suggesting the need for a broad-based approach to tackling burnout.

Ju, Lan, Li, Feng, and You (2015) investigated the mediating effect of workplace social support on the relationship between trait emotional intelligence and teacher burnout among 307 Chinese middle school teachers. Structural equation modeling revealed a satisfactory fit between the data and their theoretical model. Workplace social support partially mediated the relationship between trait emotional intelligence and teacher burnout. Neither gender nor age moderated the relationship between trait emotional

intelligence and teacher burnout. Therefore, it was concluded that emotional intelligence and workplace social support can protect teachers from burnout and that providing effective emotional intelligence training and creating supportive workplace conditions requires increased attention from education administrators.

Mehrabi and Radi (2015) investigated the sources of stress and burnout levels of Iranian English teachers using the Boyle's stress and Maslach Burnout Inventory. Teachers in the higher levels of occupational experience presented higher levels of job stress, apart from marital status, level of teaching, and degree of education. Based on the results of this study, it appeared that Iranian English teachers in this case seemed not to have lost their sense of self-efficacy, competence and achievement. Female and male teachers showed moderate degrees of personal accomplishment. Increasing the hours of teaching per week led to an increase in the depersonalization of the teachers. The other biographic factors had no effects on depersonalization. Increasing the hours of teaching per week increased the emotional exhaustion but showed no relationships with the other variables.

Khani and Mirzaee (2014) attempted to investigate the relationships among stressors, contextual variables, self-efficacy, and teacher burnout in Iran as an EFL context. A battery of questionnaires was administered to 216 English language teachers of private language institutes. Using Amos version 20, structural equation modeling was run to examine the proposed model of the study. The findings showed that contextual variables could directly cause teacher burnout. They could also do so indirectly by giving rise to stressors, which would in turn increase burnout. The results also highlighted the possible direct and indirect role of self-efficacy in reducing teacher burnout. They argued that self-efficacy could function as a mediator or moderator variable which would reduce the negative effects of contextual variables and stressors on teacher burnout.

Zhouchun (2011) through the analysis of 86 questionnaires and follow-up interviews connected with MBI-ESs for the three chosen participants, showed that the job burnout syndrome of English teachers in secondary schools was not very serious; and there was no significant difference between male and female teachers, between teachers in junior and senior middle schools or between teachers in key and average schools, but teachers with more teaching experience can often find a sense of personal achievement. Moreover, according to the results, the causes of English teachers' job burnout in secondary schools lay in external factors such as unreasonable school policy, student-management pressure, exam pressure, etc. and internal factors such as knowledge exhaustion, lacking self-adjustment, etc.

In a study, Mukundan and Khandehroo (2010) focused on the English teachers' burnout and its relation with their demographics of age and workload in Malaysia. The findings showed that burnout is evident at high levels in all dimensions. In addition, some age and workload categories demonstrated significant relations with emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment.

Özkanal and Arıkan (2010) carried out a study with 28 instructors working at Eskişehir Osmangazi University preparatory school which showed that perceived level of stress at the workplace is the only significant factor of burnout among the instructors. Other work-related factors, educational background and demographic features had no significant effect on the levels of teacher burnout.

Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2009) examined relations between teachers' perception of the school context (supervisory support, time pressure, relations with parents, and autonomy), teacher burnout (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment), and teacher job satisfaction among Norwegian teachers in elementary and middle schools. The authors found that teachers' job satisfaction was directly related to emotional exhaustion and reduced personal accomplishment. Emotional exhaustion was most strongly related to time pressure whereas depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment were most strongly related to teachers' relations with parents.

3. Methodology

3.1 Participants

In order to select participants for the present study, 116 EFL Iranian educators were chosen based on availability sampling from three contexts of schools, universities and institutes in Shiraz at the beginning. However, 14 of the participants were eliminated from the study due to their incomplete or inconsistent responses to the questionnaires. Hence, the number of participants whose responses were considered in

this study was 102 (32 male and 70 female). For the purpose of neutrality regarding the contexts, subjects were chosen from both private and public schools, state and Azad Universities, and finally from higher education colleges and institutes. The participants' age ranged from 21 to 60. Table 1 shows in detail where the participants worked as educators.

Table 1 Participants' Working Place

Place	No. of participants
University	22
School	18
Institutes	27
University and Institute	14
University and School	3
School and Institute	13
School, University and Institute	5
Total	102

3.2 Instruments

The instruments used in this study were two questionnaires. The first questionnaire was The Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI), a 22-item questionnaire in Likert scale, which was used to measure teacher burnout (Maslach et al., 1996). The inventory consisted of three subscales: emotional exhaustion (EE), depersonalization (D), and personal accomplishment (PA).

"*Human Resources Satisfaction*" that was partly adapted from the Health and Safety Executive's (HSE) Management Standards Indicator Tool and designed by the researcher was another questionnaire in this study, which had 12 items relating to human resources and interactions in the work environment. This 5-point Likert scale questionnaire contained items considering school leadership, relationships, colleague and supervisor support.

To be sure about the reliability of the questionnaires, Cronbach's Alpha was run for both MBI and HRS questionnaires. The results revealed a satisfactory level of .804 and .872 for reliability respectively.

Considering the validity, MBI questionnaire is considered a valid one, as it has been used worldwide since the mid-1990s. To be sure about the validity of the HRS questionnaire a factor analysis was run. As Table 2 shows, the results were in favor of HRS questionnaire's validity since the relevant subcategories designed for the questionnaire were loaded under their respective factors.

Table 2 "*Human Resources Satisfaction*" Questionnaire Factor-analysis for Validity

		Component		
		1	2	3
Factor 1 Colleague & Supervisor Support	1. I can rely on my supervisor to help me out with a work problem	.798	.268	-.073
	2 My supervisor encourages me at work	.793	.372	-.013
	3. I can talk to my supervisor about something that has upset or annoyed me about work	.775	.392	.039
	4. I get help and support I need from colleagues	.744	.046	.299
	5. My colleagues are willing to listen to my work-related problems	.657	.105	.384
	6. I am given supportive feedback on the work I do	.577	.244	.103
Factor 2 Leadership	7. The administration treats teachers fairly.	.246	.848	.157

		8. The administration runs the organization in a reasonable method.	.324	.840	.060
		9. The organization acknowledges and praises teachers who teach well.	.437	.696	.097
Factor 3	Relationships	10. Relationships at work are strained	.051	.364	.758
		11. There is friction or anger between colleagues	.226	.294	.751
		12. I am subject to personal harassment in the form of unkind words or behaviour	.038	-.325	.725

To collect the data, both questionnaires were handed to EFL educators or e-mailed to them. All of the items were based on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from "*Always*" to "*Never*" with numerical values as follows: *Always*= 5, *Usually*= 4, *Sometimes*= 3, *Rarely*= 2, *Never*= 1. In addition, reversed-items were scored and valued appropriately while conducting statistics.

4. Results

To see the burnout rate among Iranian EFL educators, descriptive statistics were calculated. The results are shown in Table 3 below:

Table 3 Descriptive Statistics to Show Teacher Burnout Rate

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Burnout	102	26.00	67.00	46.35	8.36145
Emotional Exhaustion	102	12.00	35.00	21.61	6.49513
Lack of Personal Accomplishment	102	8.00	27.00	15.82	3.72418
Depersonalization	102	5.00	16.00	8.91	18 2.52160
Valid N (listwise)	102				

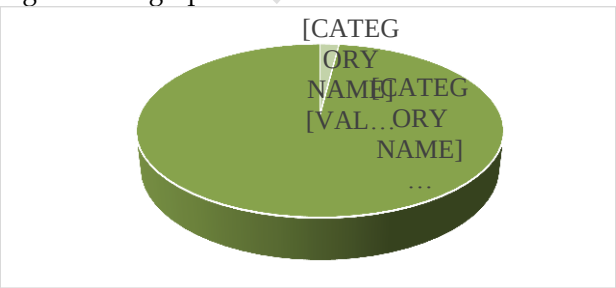
As Table 3 reveals the mean of burnout for 102 subjects is 46.35 with a minimum of 26 and maximum of 67.

Table 4 Frequency of MBI Responses

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1.18 _2.86	100	98	98	98.0
3.05	2	2.0	2.0	100.0
Total	102	100.0	100.0	

Table 4 shows that 98% of the participants have chosen *"Never"*, *"Rarely"* and *"Sometimes"* as their responses to MBI questionnaire which reveals low level of burnout and only 2% of the participants have chosen *"Often"*, and *"Always"*. Figure 1 shows the result in the form of a pie-graph.

Figure 1 Pie-graph for Rate of Teacher Burnout among Iranian EFL Teachers



In order to compare the rate of teacher burnout in three contexts of university, school and institute, a one-way ANOVA was run. The results are summarized in Table 5.

Table 5 One-way ANOVA to Compare Teacher Burnout in Three Context

ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Burnout	Between Groups	607.33	6	101.2	1.49	.19
	Within Groups	6453.95	95	67.93		
Emotional Exhaustion	Between Groups	191.86	6	31.97	1.33	.25
	Within Groups	2284.22	95	24.04		
	Total	2476.08	101			
Personal Accomplishment	Between Groups	62.627	6	10.43	.741	.61
	Within Groups	1338.19	95	14.08		
	Total	1400.82	101			
Depersonalization	Between Groups	36.811	6	6.135	.963	.45
	Within Groups	605.395	95	6.373		
	Total	642.206	101			

According to Table 5 the significant level for burnout and its components, emotional exhaustion, personal accomplishment and depersonalization are .190, .252, .618, and .455 respectively, which are all higher than .05. Therefore, it can be concluded that there was no significance difference among educators in three different contexts and all of them were at the same level of burnout.

To have a wider view about burnout in different contexts, Table 6 presents everything in detail.

Table 6 Teacher Burnout Descriptive Information in Three Contexts

		N	Mean	Std. D	Std. E	Min	Max
Burnout	University	22	45.59	7.768	1.656	30.	60.
	School	18	45.22	6.647	1.566	35.	62.
	Institutes	27	49.18	8.775	1.688	33.	67.
	University & institute	14	46.78	10.00	2.675	28.	67.
	University & school	3	52.66	7.094	4.096	45.	59.
	School & institute	13	42.53	8.402	2.330	26.	53.
	School, university & inst	5	43.40	6.767	3.026	32.	50.
	Total	102	46.35	8.361	.8279	26.	67.

For the purpose of checking whether human resources have any influence on teacher burnout rate a paired samples *t*-test was run and the results are presented in Table 7.

Table 7 Paired Sample Test for Human Resources Effect on Burnout

Paired Differences	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	t	df	Sig.(2-tailed)	Effect size
Human Resources - Burnout	-5.49	13.09	1.29	-4.23	101.00		0.15
School Leadership - Burnout	-37.14	9.36	.927	-40.04	101.00		0.94
Relationship - Burnout	-35.39	9.25	.916	-38.63	101.00		0.93
Supervisor support - Burnout	-32.95	9.86	.977	-33.72	101.00		0.91
Colleague support - Burnout	-39.05	8.75	.869	-44.90	101.00		0.95

As Table 7 shows, the significant level for human resources is .000 which is smaller than .05. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected and shows that human resources could affect burnout rates. In order to find the strength of association, the effect size was calculated and it was found to be 0.15 for human resources which shows a large effect since it is higher than 0.14. Moreover, the data provided in Table 8 show that there is a negative correlation between human resources and teacher burnout rate. (-.291)

Table 8 Paired Samples Correlations Information

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	Human resources & Burnout	102	-.291	.003
Pair 2	School leadership & Burnout	102	-.229	.020
Pair 3	Relationship & Burnout	102	-.286	.004
Pair 4	Supervisor support & Burnout	102	-.209	.035
Pair 5	Colleague support & Burnout	102	-.146	.143

4. Discussion & Conclusion

As it was mentioned before, this study sought to investigate the burnout rate among EFL teachers in Iran. In addition, this phenomenon was compared in three different contexts _universities, schools and institutes. Finally, the influence of human resources on teacher burnout rate among EFL teachers was explored. The results demonstrated that the average rate of teacher burnout among Iranian EFL teachers is 41.8% and 98% of teachers chose *"Never"*, *"Rarely"* and *"Sometimes"* as their responses to MBI-ES questionnaire which reveals low level of burnout and only 2% of the participants have chosen mostly *"Often"*, and *"Always"*.

The present study also aimed at comparing three contexts of universities, schools and institutes in terms of teacher burnout. According to One-way ANOVA no significant difference was found among these three contexts regarding burnout and its elements. However, in Rostami, Ghanizadeh and Ghapanchi's (2015) study, which investigated EFL teachers' burnout across high schools and language institutes in Iran, the results demonstrated that teachers in Official context reported significantly higher levels of burnout than teachers in Non-official context. Also, Hosseini Fatemi and Raoufi (2014) attempted to detect the differences between two groups of teachers; Public school and private institute teachers, considering their level of burnout and their teaching styles. There was a significant and moderate difference in the mean scores of emotional exhaustion for school teachers (M = 8.29, SD =4.41) and institute educators (M= 10.89, SD= 6.64), while two other dimensions of burnout; personal accomplishment and depersonalization, were not significantly different.

As the last research question was to investigate whether human resources (school leadership, relationships, colleague and supervisor support) have an influence on teacher burnout rate in an Iranian EFL context, SPSS demonstrated that human resources and its components had large impact on teacher burnout which is in line with the background studies in literature which has shown that lack of social support from supervisors, administrators, and colleagues has been found to have a positive relationship with burnout (Zellars & Perrewe, 2001; Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli 2001; Pascual, Perez-

Jover, Mirambell, Ivanez, & Terol, 2003; Garland, 2004; Kahn, Schneider, Jenkins-Henkelman, & Moyle, 2006; Llorens, Bakker, Schaufeli, & Salanova, 2006; Neveu, 2007).

As an example about lack of social support from supervisors, Lee and Ashforth (1993) mentioned that this phenomenon is responsible for 14% of the variance of emotional exhaustion, 6% of depersonalization, and 2% of personal accomplishment. Also in a study, analyzing the qualitative data, Eghtesadi Roudi (2011) showed that lack of support from administrators, was among the major reasons of burnout among Iranian EFL teachers. Moreover, Tickle (2008) demonstrated that administrative support was the most significant predictor of teachers' job satisfaction, while teachers' job satisfaction was the most significant predictor of teachers' intent to stay in teaching. Also, Stockard and Lehman (2004) reported that social support and school management were significantly related to job satisfaction and attrition rates for new teachers. According to Ingersoll and Smith (2003), former new teachers identified the lack of administrative support as one of their main reasons for leaving the profession.

In line with previous studies, Brouwers and Tomic (2001) revealed that teachers perceived lack of social support from colleagues and principals had a significant effect on their self-efficacy beliefs in eliciting support from them, which were closely related to the level of burnout. Greenglass, Burke, and Konarski (1997) searched for the antecedents and consequences of burnout in relation to social support from supervisors and co-workers in a sample of 833 teachers at all levels within Canadian school board. The study concluded that, greater co-worker support contributed to the prediction of burnout, particularly to decreased depersonalization and increased feelings of accomplishment. Similarly, Schwarzer and Greenglass (1999) argued that teacher with higher levels of burnout were less likely to make friends and establish close relationships with their colleagues at the place they work. Finally, Byrne (1999) argued that apart from social support, peer support was a fundamental predictor of burnout since it was more important for a teacher to receive support from his/her colleagues at the workplace as opposed to administrative support.

Kyriacou (2001) highlighted the positive impact of working in a school with a positive climate in terms of social support. He lists characteristics of a healthy school as including: good communication between staff, a strong sense of collegiality, management decisions based on consultation, teachers receiving positive feedback and praise, and support available to help solve problems. Moreover, Whitaker, Whitaker, and Lumpa (2009) stated that administrators can provide positive reinforcement through praise that is specific, honest, and given in a timely manner, that may be done quietly through face-to-face communication or may be given in the form of a thank you card). According to them, regardless of the format, all praise should be authentic, specific, intimate, and clean. Authentic praise is based on honest approval, specific praise clarifies the behavior that was worthy of a special commendation, on the other hand, intimate praise is kept between the parties involved, while clean praise is given without a hidden agenda.

Pedagogical Implications

The results of the present study will help everyone have a wider perspective about teachers and teaching issues in the society, and it mainly affects teachers' condition. They can have a better atmosphere at work and therefore, communicate easily with their colleagues, supervisor and administrator. This study would also help administrators and supervisors to know how influential their support is in their working place and future careers.

Further Studies

This study compared schools, universities and institutes as whole entities; however, studies can be done to compare Azad and State universities or public and private schools separately. In addition, the same study can be done while including more subjects from different cities in Iran and even comparing the

results among the cities. Also, EFL teacher burnout can be studied considering 12 different stages of this phenomenon. Finally, research may be conducted to see the effect of teacher burnout on students, focusing on different aspects.

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Appendix A
HUMAN RESOURCES SATISFACTION QUESTIONNAIRE
This questionnaire is designed to gain information regarding human resources satisfaction effect on burnout rate among English teachers. Please choose the most appropriate box as there is no right and wrong answer

1. I can rely on my supervisor to help me out with a work problem	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
2. My supervisor encourages me at work	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
3. I can talk to my supervisor about what has upset or annoyed me about work	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
4. I get help and support I need from colleagues	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
5. My colleagues are willing to listen to my work-related problems	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
6. I am given supportive feedback on the work I do	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
7. The administration treats teachers fairly.	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
8. The administration runs the organization in a reasonable method.	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
9. The organization acknowledges and praises teachers who teach well.	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
10. Relationships at work are strained	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
11. There is friction or anger between colleagues	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never

12. I am subject to personal harassment in the form of unkind words or behaviour	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never

Appendix B

MASLACH BURNOUT INVENTORY (MBI)

This questionnaire is designed to gain information regarding burnout among English teachers. Please choose the most appropriate box as there is no right and wrong answer.

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
	Alw	Oft	Son	Rar	Nev

MJLTM

	ays	en	etines	ely	er
	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never

MJLTM

MJLTM

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never	

MJLTM

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never

MJLTM

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never	

MJLTM

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never	

MJLTM

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never

MJLTM

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never

MJLTM

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never

MJLTM

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never

MJLTM

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never	

MJLTM

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never

MJLTM

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never	

MJLTM

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never

MJLTM

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never

MJLTM

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never

MJLTM

MJLTM

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never

MJLTM

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never

MJLTM

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never

MJLTM

Thanks for your participation.

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never

THE EFFECT OF GRAPHIC ORGANIZERS AND MARGINAL GLOSSING ON READING COMPREHENSION OF TEXTS WITH SEQUENTIAL STRUCTURE

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ABSTRACT
IN READING, COMPREHENDING THE NEW WORDS, SENTENCES, AND ENTIRE TEXT REQUIRES THE ABILITY TO RELATE THE MATERIALS TO ONE'S OWN KNOWLEDGE. ACCORDING TO FAYOL AND HIS COLLEAGUES (1992, AS CITED IN CANAS & NOVAK, 2006) READING COMPREHENSION IS TO BUILD A COHERENT REPRESENTATION OF THE IDEAS CONTAINED IN THE TEXT BY CONNECTING THEM TO THE READER'S OWN EXPERIENCE. THERE ARE ATTEMPTS ABOUT FINDING THE BEST AND MOST EFFECTIVE WAY TO TEACH ENGLISH LANGUAGE SPECIALLY FOR READING COMPREHENSION ABILITY FOR EFL LEARNERS. THE AIM OF THIS STUDY IS TO EXAMINE THE EFFECTS OF TWO READING COMPREHENSION STRATEGIES, I.E., GRAPHIC ORGANIZERS (GO) AND MARGINAL GLOSSING (MG) ON EFL LEARNERS' READING COMPREHENSION ABILITY. TO ACCOMPLISH THE PURPOSE OF THIS STUDY FROM 55 SUBJECTS WHO TOOK PART IN THIS STUDY JUST 45 STUDENTS WERE CHOSEN. ON THE BASIS OF THE SUBJECTS' PERFORMANCES AS MEASURED BY THE PLACEMENT TEST, THEY WERE RANDOMLY ASSIGNED TO TWO EXPERIMENTAL AND A CONTROL GROUP. AFTER 6 SESSIONS TREATMENT, THEY WERE POST-TESTED. THE STATISTICAL TOOL OF THE KRUSKAL-WALLIS TEST WAS RUN TO DETERMINE IF THERE WAS SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE. THE RESULT OF THE STUDY SHOWED THAT BOTH EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS ACTED BETTER THAN THE CONTROL GROUP, IN OTHER

WORDS, GROUP 1 (GO) WAS PLACED SOMEWHERE IN THE SUPPERIOR POSITION AMONG THESE THREE GROUPS.

KEY WORDS: GRAPHIC ORGANIZERS; MARGINAL GLOSSING; READING COMPREHENSION; EFL LEARNERS

1. INTRODUCTION

Reading comprehension refers to the ability to understand information presented in written form. While this process usually entails understanding textbook assignments, reading comprehension skills also may affect one's interpretation of directions on exams, labs, and homework assignments and completion of job applications or questionnaires. So, reading without comprehension or understanding is not reading.

Learners comprehend better when they see the text organized in such a way which can easily be understood, and which indicates the relationships between ideas. The two important ways that may have a significant impact on the teaching reading process are the use of graphic organizers (GO) and marginal glossing (MG).

Recent overviews of reading have argued that discourse comprehension skills contribute to reading abilities (Kintsch, 1998). One of the major ways in which students can be trained to recognize discourse structuring in texts is through the use of graphic organizers (GOs)-visual representation of information in the text. The recommendations to use GOs as part of reading instruction are commonly found in the first language (L1) reading literature (e.g., Blachowicz & Ogle, 2001; Vacca & Vacca, 1999) and extensively incorporated in textbooks for young L1 readers (e.g., Gunning, 2003; Thresher, 2004), though generally less common in second language (L2) contexts (Mohan, 1986; Smith & Mare, 2004; Tang, 1992). GOs are said to be particularly valuable because "a good graphic representation can show at a glance the key parts of a whole and their relations, so as Jiang and Grabe stated (2007) it" allows a holistic understanding that words alone cannot convey."

2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 ORIGIN OF GRAPHIC ORGANIZERS

Graphic organizers are a series of visual charts and tools used to represent and organize a student's knowledge or ideas. Graphic organizers are often used as part of the writing process to help students map out ideas, plots, character details and settings before beginning to write. As part of the reading process, graphic organizers can help a student comprehend what he has read and make comparisons to other pieces of writing. Lev Vygotsky, a Russian theorist who was deeply interested in developmental psychology, was concerned with what type of assistance facilitated learning most efficiently among students at different age levels. Through his many experiments, he discovered that students, when given the appropriate assistance during a learning task, could achieve far more than they could when tackling learning tasks on their own. He introduced the existence of a "zone of proximal development" (ZPD), which he defined as, "…the distance between a child's actual development level, as determined by independent problem solving, and the higher level of potential development as determined by problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (Elliott et al., 2000, p. 55). Simply stated, the ZPD, as described by Vygotsky, is the difference between what a learner can do independently and what he or she is capable of doing with assistance.

According to Daugherity (2004), in any learning setting there are tasks that students are able to do alone, and there are tasks which students are able to do only with the assistance of others. The lack of ability is usually due to a lack of understanding, knowledge, and intelligence. In an online blended setting, Nathan and Barrett (2004) observe, "Scaffolding…can be provided by a range of elements in the learning process, for example, learning recourses, interactive technologies and/or other learners" (p. 87). One of the benefits of using graphic organizers as scaffolding tools includes providing the teacher with diagnostic information revealing the extent to which students understand the subject matter being presented. The diagnostic portion of the process can be accomplished by only a cursory look at the students' progress in compiling a graphic organizer or through a more in-depth inquiry into the students' understanding of the material. Only when educators know exactly what individual students comprehend thoroughly can they

prescribe didactic challenges which will stretch their abilities in acquiring additional knowledge. This gentle push beyond the student's comfort zone or ability of understanding will result in the learner acquiring a fuller understanding of the subject.

2.2 LEARNING AND GRAPHIC ORGANIZERS

Teaching students how to embrace texts is an important duty that educators must embrace. Like many texts, social studies texts are often convoluted and not written in a user-friendly fashion (Beyer, 2008). Weinstein and Meyer point out (as cited in Jensen, 2000), "When learners are instructed in learning-to-learn skills, their ability to process new information can rise substantially" (p. 80). Again according to Jensen (2000), not only can intelligent thinking be taught, it is necessary for educators to be aware of the necessity to teach students critical thinking and problem solving skills. Skills which are learned through the use of graphic organizers are well represented among a list of techniques which Jensen (2000) believes educators must interweave into their lessons. The tactics identified will assist students in cultivating higher level thinking and problem solving expertise.

Graphic organizers are suitable didactic tools in assisting students in honing and focusing their perception of stimuli by creating specific segments into which new stimuli can be divided and stored. "Graphic organizers provide a framework for the learning, and they keep the students within that structure" (Sprenger, 2005). Markowitz and Jensen (1999) comment, "Organizing information makes it more manageable for the brain by providing an immediate reference point for its retrieval" (p. 179). By organizing information into distinct and visual categories, a student is afforded a visual map which enhances one's ability to perceive connections between related stimuli. Once the seemingly disjointed stimuli are fused together by completing and reflecting upon a graphic organizer, the student will find it less difficult to construct new knowledge.

Graphic organizers are superior to notes and study guides, which are linear displays of information, in fostering comprehension because they assist students in storing information in a more spatial format (Katayama & et al., 1997). When graphic organizers are used, textual information is stored in memory, much like pictures, which allows for easier retrieval of the information (Katayama & Robinson &, 2000). It has been suggested that students extract more information in a quick glance from a spatial display of information than they do from studying a linear display for a long period of time (Robinson & Katayama, 1998). A vast number of strategies address reading and comprehension deficits and provide solutions. The use of graphic organizers is one such identified strategy which provides techniques for improving reading and comprehension skills.

2.3. DEFINITION of GLOSS

Glosses, by definition, are any notes written in L1 or a simpler form in L2 to facilitate learners' reading (Roby, 1999; Lin & Huang, 2008). In the case of second language learning, gloss generally means information on important words via definitions or synonyms (Nation, 2001). Typically located in the side or bottom margins, gloss are most often supplied for "unfamiliar" words, which may help to limit continual dictionary consultation that may hinder and interrupt the L2 reading comprehension process. Traditionally, the textbooks used by EFL learners were of the single gloss type, a direct definition of the new, unknown words was given in the margin, bottom, or end of a lesson. It is believed that students could learn vocabularies from the glosses of new words; however, many EFL students still had problems in vocabulary learning. On the other hand, reading was another good way to gain vocabularies, but most of the words (95%-98%) in a reading text should be known by the reader (Nation, 2001). Then, learning new vocabularies through reading could be successful. The major difficulty that EFL students had in the English reading was the lack of sight words or acquired vocabularies. It is known that the key to reading well is to have adequate vocabulary knowledge.

2.4. EFFECTIVENESS OF GLOSSES

Word knowledge can be an important factor on reading and students who are able to achieve some degree of reading comprehension also have more word learning through the reading process. Schmidt stated that incidental vocabulary learning during reading could take place when the learner's primary intention is to complete another task, such as to read and understand a text, and not to learn new words (cited in Rott, Williams, & Cameron, 2002). But instructional interventions are often an effort to draw

learner attention briefly away from the primary task of reading and toward the form and meaning of the new word, potentially decreasing the cognitive resources needed for text comprehension or briefly interrupting the reading process (Rott, Williams, & Cameron, 2002).

The first issue about applying glosses in reading is which gloss type is most effective. As defined by some researchers (Lin & Huang, 2008; Rott & Williams, 2002; Watanabe, 1997), an effective gloss type was that which could involve learners' decision-making processes into the reading process. Traditionally, SG always provided the translations of the target words in the margin or bottom of the text. Since readers put less effort on word processing when there was a single-gloss condition, the readers forgot the target words right after the reading. On the other hand, according to the Involvement Load Hypothesis (Hulstijn & etal, 1996), a gloss prompted readers to engage words utilizing their cognitive functions, i.e. memory, as well as aided comprehension of the text because of the higher level processing load that the gloss had (Rott, 1997). Therefore, Hulstijn (1992) proposed a new gloss type, multiple-choice gloss, as a way to involve learners' processing.MG, compared to the traditional SG, provided more than one synonym, definition, or translation for each target word and readers could choose the best alternative (Watanabe, 1997). Based on the process, the readers had better performances on word gaining, word retention and reading comprehension when MG (Lin & Huang, 2008) informed them.

The second issue pertains to any effect existing between the readers' language proficiency and gloss types. A few studies focused on the effectiveness of different gloss types that were framed in relationship to the effects of gloss and learners' language proficiency. Lin and Huang (2008) found that the higher proficiency participants scored significantly better in vocabulary tests than the lower proficiency participants. However, in the single meaning-given group, the differences between high and low proficiency participants were reversed in vocabulary gain and vocabulary retention. It means that the gloss helped higher proficiency students have better performance on word learning, but the results could be different when the gloss type was considered as an experimental factor by the researchers.

3. Purpose and Research Question

The present study is motivated to investigate the main issues in TEFL, namely developing students' reading skill by taking some obstacles away, by which most of them encounter in classrooms. One of these problems derived from the existence of unknown and unusual words in reading text. The second one refers to the lack of awareness about the organization of the text. Pertaining to these issues, the study was set up to investigate the effect of three reading comprehension strategies namely, graphic organizers (GO), L1 marginal glossing (MG) and traditional instruction on reading comprehension achievement of the EFL learners. Throughout the ten sessions of the study, the researcher gathered data to measure the effectiveness of these techniques in improving students' reading comprehension ability. The study was guided by two research questions and related hypotheses.

RQ1. Does type of reading strategy use (graphic organizer vs. marginal glossing) influence students' reading comprehension?

RQ2. Which strategy (GO or MG) is more effective on students' reading comprehension?

And the following hypotheses were developed accordingly:

RH_1: Type of reading strategy used (graphic organizer vs. marginal glossing) can differentially influence students' reading comprehension.

RH_2: It is thought that graphic organizers will have more influence on students' reading comprehension, than marginal glossing.

In order to answer the research questions and examine the research hypotheses, some steps were taken. The following parts present a detailed account of the method applied in doing this research.

4. Methodology

4.1 Participants

Seventy Iranian learners of English (male and female aged from 18 to 28) from Pishgaman and Rose English Language Institute in Ardabil participated in this study. Participants' proficiency level was determined to be intermediate based on their scores on Oxford proficiency test (2009). Participants were EFL learners, who had completed the first year of a communication oriented program. From the total number of participants involved in the study, 15 students were excluded from the study, simply because

they did not want to participate. The scores of 10 students were excluded from further consideration because of their low proficiency level or their failure to participate in all measures of the study. From this pool, 45 participants were assigned to two experimental groups (graphic organizers (GO) and marginal glossing (MG) groups) and a control group. There were 15 students in each group.

4.2 Instrumentation

The following research instruments used in this study:

4.2.1 PROFICIENCY TEST

Oxford Placement Test (OPT) devised by Edwards (2009) was administered to assess students' knowledge of the key language. The test contains 50 multiple-choice questions, which assess students' knowledge of key grammar and vocabulary from elementary to intermediate levels, a reading text with 10 graded comprehension questions and an optional writing task that assesses students' ability to produce the language. In current study the focus of attention was on elementary level students, so those participants who scored below 28 were selected for the study. Table 1 demonstrates the method of interpreting scores of OPT. (the cut point was 28).

The 50 multiple-choice questions and the reading task were designed to be done together in 45 minutes. The writing task was done in approximately 20 minutes. The following criteria were administered for scoring:

- Grammar and vocabulary: 1 point for each correct answer earning 50 points
- Reading: 1 point for each correct answer earning 10 points
- Writing:
    - Content (maximum 4 points)
    - Form (maximum 2 points)
    - Range (maximum 2 points)
    - Accuracy (maximum 2 points)

4.2.2 READING TEXTS

Since most of the texts in the students' books were not in sequential frame, some sequential texts were prepared by the researcher from other sources. The following list in Table 2 shows these sources and the number of passages selected from each.

The reason why the researcher used the texts from other course books was that they were introduced by other institutions for the learners of the same level. To ensure the equality of the selected texts with the texts that they had read before in their own course books, the readability of the texts was calculated in the following procedure.

The researcher chose two groups of texts: 10 texts from the above-mentioned sources, henceforth called *unseen* texts, and 10 texts from their course book, namely *seen* texts. Flesh Reading Ease in Microsoft Word, 2007, was used to calculate the readability of these texts. Statistical analyses showed there was no statistically significant difference between seen and unseen passages in terms of readability. Consequently, ten texts were selected to be used during treatment, which were downloaded from the internet. It should be mentioned that the texts for the treatment sessions were modified to appropriately serve the objective of the study. Details of this modification are elaborated below.

4.2.2.1 GLOSSING THE PASSAGES

As mentioned above ten passages selected from internet were used in the treatment phase of the study. Five words which were highlighted in the passages, were glossed using single Persian translation of English target words at the bottom of the page. The reason why Persian (L1) glosses were administered is that glossing in mother tongue is easier to understand and remember, considering the learners' level of proficiency.

4.2.2.2 GRAPHIC ORGANIZER CONDITION

The researcher exploited the same texts, which were used in the marginal glossing for GO group but without the glossing words. Instead some visual graphic special for sequential texts were prepared and a sheet of some signal words, which are usually used in these kinds of texts, was provided.

4.2.3 READING COMPREHENSION TEST

This test that was used as both pretest and posttest of the study was adopted from their course books. Care was taken to select those passages, which were not covered during their mainstream course. The test included 12 multiple-choice and eight true/false items. To score the test one point was awarded to each correct answer earning 20. Reliability of the test items was calculated using Cronbach alpha Formula turned out to be and 0.7, which was acceptable. Since all of these texts were taken from the published series of books and since the experienced teachers approved of them, it can be claimed that these texts were acceptable in terms of validity.

4.3 PROCEDURES

To accomplish the purpose of this study, the following procedures were followed.

In the main phase of the study, the first test to be administered was the standard Oxford Placement Test (OPT) which was taken by all the 55 subjects. Because the rationale for administering the Oxford Placement Test (OPT) was to select the subjects with necessarily the same proficiency level, 45 students were chosen from among the mentioned subjects. On the basis of the subjects' performances as measured by the placement test, they were randomly assigned to two experimental and a control group.

Then, in order to determine the homogeneity of subjects in each group on the basis of their reading comprehension ability, an ESAP reading comprehension test was employed. It can be understood that, mean scores of three participating groups are almost close to each other and, accordingly, groups can be considered homogenous in terms of reading proficiency.

An ANOVA was run to demonstrate the normal distribution. By considering Table 5 it can be claimed that there was no significant difference among the mean scores on pretest for the three groups. ($p = 0.80$).

Treatment sessions started from third session of the study. Participants were provided with an extensive introduction to these types of strategies enabling them to understand how each type works and aids comprehension. As a whole, glossing and graphic organizing techniques are less investigated in Iranian educational system. In view of that, it was anticipated that students would not have any preceding acquaintance with such techniques and they may be confused. The reason is that in majority of the courses, the major emphasis is on developing conversation and sentence pattern practice. Also, teachers do not usually incorporate glosses and graphic organizers in their materials.

Since the group A was chosen for teaching GO strategy, at first the teacher gave them some instruction about the usage of GOs. Then students were allowed to read the text. After reading the text, the teacher drew a graphic organizer special for sequential text on the board showing how to write stage by stage the relevant information in it in order to have organized and visual knowledge about the passage. In next stage the instructor asked students to share what to add to each mentioned sections. Then the instructor asked them to organize the text in groups under the guidance of the teacher. In the end, they were asked to apply GO strategy by themselves. This method of treatment was about six sessions.

In group B, like group A, the necessary steps were taken to use new marginal strategy in this class. The instructor informed students about the usage of glosses in the texts as tool for enhancing their reading comprehension and also reminded them that they would not allowed to look up any new word during reading process. Since there were some questions for the passages that were read, the students were asked to answer them by using glossed words. In the next stage the instructor asked students to practice this strategy with their partners then they were allowed to practice by themselves. This treatment along the previous strategy was about six 6 sessions.

The instruction in group C was in traditional way. The instructor, in this group read the text loudly and students repeated each sentence after the instructor as usual. The passage was then translated into (Persian) and the students started to answer the following reading comprehension questions.

In the last session: four reading comprehension passages with 20 related questions (12 multiple-choice and 8 true/false) were presented as posttest. Descriptive statistics for groups' performance on the posttest are presented in table 6. Test of normality also has been given in table 7, the Normality was violated (sig. = 0.001).

In order to compare the scores for three groups, and since the distribution was not normal, the Kruskal-Wallis Tests, which is the non – parametric alternative to one-way between groups analysis of variance, was chosen. The result which has been indicated in Table 8 revealed a statistically significant difference between three groups in terms of their performance on posttest (sig. =0.00).

4.5 The post-hoc tests

Since table 8 (Kruskal Wallis Test), it was not clear which groups were statistically significantly differing from the other one, the researcher did some follow-up Mann -Whitney U tests between pairs of groups. In this phase the use of Bonferroni correction to the alpha value was necessary in order to control for Type 1 errors. To do this correction, the alpha level of .05 was divided by the number of comparisons that was intended to be used. The revised alpha level as criterion for determining significance is 0.06/3 =.016. Table 9 shows the result of the comparisons.

The result of this comparison showed that the difference between GO and MG (Z= -2.301, p = 0.02) was not significant. The difference between GO and TI, however, reached significance (Z= -3.120, P= 0.00) although, the effect size was small (0.11). The difference between MG and TI was not significant (Z=-1.408, P= 0.16).

5.DISCUSSION

The first research question set out to examine whether type of reading strategy (graphic organizer vs. marginal glossing) differentially influences students' reading comprehension. Regarding this question, the first hypothesis proclaimed that type of reading strategy (graphic organizer vs. marginal glossing) would differentially influence students' reading comprehension. The end results offered in the previous part supported and showed that both experimental groups acted differently in posttest, i.e. both of them performed significantly better than control group but with small effect size.

The second research question intended to find out which strategy is more effective on students' reading comprehension and also hypothesis two predicted that graphic organizers would have the most influence on students' reading comprehension. Nevertheless, the consequences failed to support this hypothesis and the results of the analysis indicated that although GO group outperformed TI, the difference between GO and MG groups was not statistically significant.

The findings in this study confirm some of the previous findings such as a research conducted by Jiang and Grabe (2007) in which the DSGO instruction significantly improved discourse comprehension as measured by the DSGO completion task, and the effect was retained 7 weeks after the instructional treatment. Significant improvement was also observed in the general reading ability as measured by TOEFL reading comprehension in the immediate posttest, but the effect did not persist in the delayed posttest. The difference of the present study with the above research was not only on the kind of graphic organizer, but also on the age and number of the participants.

The study conducted by Chiang (2005) showed that first the student-generated graphic organizer strategy had positive impact on students' reading comprehension. Secondly, the use of student-generated graphic organizers in group work setting had positive effect on students' reading comprehension. In the present study the teacher- made graphic organizer was used, but the findings like Chiang's were positive.

Thus by considering the results that obtained about the superiority of GOs it can be said that; by this strategy students learn how to make relationship among different ideas in the text. Furthermore, they let the students be aware of their thinking process and gain insight into their analytical and synthesis skills. It is worth mentioning that due to relative superiority of MG group over TI it would be logical to give priority to MG as a better choice. Nevertheless, group 1 (GO) was placed somewhere in the superiority position among these three groups. Considering the fact that this study was limited to only one kind of GOs (sequential one), it would be useful for future research studies to examine the effect of other types of GOs such as problem solving, cause and effect and so on, and also other types of glosses such second language gloss or pictorial ones.

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Table 1
Interpreting Scores for Oxford Placement Test

	Total	elementary	Pre-intermediate	Intermediate
Grammar and Vocabulary	50	0-20	21-30	31+
Reading	10	0-4	5-7	8+
Writing	10	0-4	5-7	8+

Table 2
Detail of Passages Selected for the Study

Source	Edition	Author & date	Number of texts selected
Connect	Book 2	Richard & Barboson , 2007	2
Hip-hip Hoary	Book 5	Eisel & Hanlon, 2011	1
Happy Earth	Book 2	Bowler & Parminter, 2012	1
Internet	_	_	6

Table3
Descriptive Statistic for Scores on the Proficiency Test

N	Mean	SD	Min	Max
70	21	6.94	8	43

Table *4 Descriptive Statistics for Scores on Pretest*

Groups	N	Mean	SD	Min	Max
GroupA	15	11.3	2.37	8	16
Group B	15	11.7	2.92	9	15
Group C	15	11.3	2.32	10	15

Table 5
One-way ANOVA on Pretest Scores

	Sum of squares	df	Mean squares	F	Sig.
Between groups	1.37	2	.695	.224	.791
Within groups	140.11	35	3.82		
Total	141.74	37			

Table 6
Descriptive Statistics for Scores on Posttest

Groups	N	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Group A	15	17.03	1.98	14	20
Group B	15	15.11	2.07	12	19
Group C	15	11.85	1.24	10	14

Table 7
Normality Check for the Scores on Posttest

Kolmogorov – Smirnov		
Statistic	df	Sig.
176	41	.00

Table 8
The Kruskal – Wallis Tests for the Scores on Posttest

Chi-Square	14.19
Df	2
Asymp.Sig	0.001

Table 9
Mann-Whitney U as a Post – hoc Comparison Among Groups

Groups		Z	Asymp.Sig	Effect Size
GO	MG	-2.301	.02	0.0912
GO	TI	-3.120	.00	0.1260
MG	TI	-1.399	.16	0.0642

MJLTM

AN EVALUATION OF ENGLISH FOR TOURISM PURPOSES PROGRAM IN IRANIAN UNIVERSITIES

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ABSTRACT
THE PRESENT STUDY IS AN ATTEMPT TO EVALUATE ENGLISH FOR TOURISM PROGRAM IN IRANIAN UNIVERSITIES. THE CONTEXT, INPUT, PROCESS, AND PRODUCT (CIPP) EVALUATION MODEL DEVELOPED BY STUFFLEBEAM (2003) WAS USED TO EVALUATE THE QUALITY OF ENGLISH FOR TOURISM COURSES FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF HEAD OF THE TOURISM STUDIES DEPARTMENTS IN IRANIAN UNIVERSITIES, LECTURERS WHO CURRENTLY TEACH ENGLISH FOR TOURISM IN THESE UNIVERSITIES, TOURISM GRADUATES, AND THEIR EMPLOYERS IN DIFFERENT TOURISM SECTORS. THE DATA WERE GATHERED FROM 15 HEAD OF THE TOURISM STUDIES DEPARTMENTS IN IRANIAN UNIVERSITIES, 50 LECTURERS CURRENTLY TEACHING ENGLISH FOR TOURISM IN THESE UNIVERSITIES, 257 TOURISM GRADUATES, AND 30 EMPLOYERS OF THESE GRADUATE STUDENTS IN TOURISM INDUSTRY BY USING THREE INSTRUMENTS: A SURVEY, SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEWS AND PROGRAM-RELATED DOCUMENT ANALYSIS. FINDINGS INDICATED THAT ALTHOUGH THE PROGRAM HAS HELPED LEARNERS IMPROVE THEIR VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE AND READING SKILLS, MOST OF THE STUDENTS ARE NOT COMPETENT IN ENGLISH SPEAKING AND WRITING. IN EFFECT, THE RESULTS INDICATED THAT ENGLISH FOR TOURISM PROGRAMS DO NOT FULLY SERVE THEIR PURPOSES AND SUFFER FROM SOME SERIOUS SHORTCOMINGS IN IMPROVING STUDENTS' PRODUCTIVE SKILLS. THEREFORE, SOME MODIFICATIONS ARE NEEDED IN THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE COURSES TO HELP TOURISM GRADUATES COMMUNICATE ACCURATELY AND FLUENTLY WITH FOREIGN TOURISTS. THE STUDY CONCLUDES WITH MAKING SOME SUGGESTIONS, SUCH AS DEFINING STRATEGIES FOR THE PROGRAM, DECREASING THE NUMBER OF STUDENTS IN CLASSES, PROVIDING ENOUGH EQUIPMENT,

DECREASING TEACHER TALKING TIME, DEDICATING ENOUGH TIME FOR PRACTICING SPEAKING, IMPROVING STUDENTS' MOTIVATION, AND TEACHING LOCAL TOURISM VOCABULARY TO IMPROVE THE QUALITY AND IMPLEMENTATION OF THE PROGRAM IN THE FUTURE.

KEY WORDS: EVALUATION, PROGRAM EVALUATION, CIPP MODEL, ENGLISH FOR TOURISM, TOURISM GRADUATES

1. Introduction

Learning English as a foreign or second language has become one of the key determiners of academic and professional success of many people in recent decades. *English* has become a global *lingua franca* over the past several decades and as a result, English language programs are more widely being incorporated into the educational systems of the countries to provide an increased opportunity for people to access the global community. The ultimate purpose of such programs is improving learners' English competency to communicate effectively as the ability to communicate and understand people via English.

Many people in Iran learn English because *English* has always played a *key role* in higher education and business. Since English is neither the official language of the country nor a medium of instruction, it is taught as a Foreign Language from the first grade of secondary school to pre-university level, totaling 294 hours in 6 years. According to The Organization for Research and Educational Planning in the Ministry of Education, students are expected to attend English classes 84 hours in pre-university level and 42 hours in every academic year in their secondary school. It is taught as a required course mainly focusing on improving students' reading comprehension, vocabulary, and grammar in English. In addition, students pass General English (2 credits) and English for Academic Purposes (3 credits).

English institutes in Iran are usually run by private sector and English is taught to a large group of students with a variety of backgrounds. Since learning English in Iranian schools is limited by time and is usually taught in crowded public schools, it does not necessarily improve students' conversational skills; as a result, English institutes in Iran have attracted a considerable number of interested learners in recent decades.

English for Tourism in Iran

One of the major sectors in which English is getting a mounting emphasis day by day is international tourism. English is the main language in the hospitality industry, and every non-native English speaker should know it in their travels to different countries. As a case in point, the importance of learning English in Iran is felt more than ever since tourism in Iran is unfolding, and the country will be the host of numerous inbound tourists in the coming years.

Human resources working in the tourism industry see English as a key to their professional improvement in their workplace. The staff who can speak English more accurately and fluently can have a better communication with tourists and hotel guests, and spur the tourists to visit the host countries in future. They can leave a better impression on their customers and increase their satisfaction of the services they provide in their hotels, tour and travel agencies, tourism centers, and recreational centers. In addition, knowing English increases employees' job opportunities in this international industry (Leslie & Russell, 2006) and helps them to interact effortlessly in airports, hotels, and restaurants with foreign tourists. Hijirida (1980) argues that knowledge of English is a key criterion in recruiting people in the tourism industry since low competency in English is a problem in attracting tourists and keeping them happy.

Since most of the policymakers and managers of the tourism sectors are aware of the key position of English in global tourism, teaching English for tourism has become one of the indispensable parts of educational and vocational systems in the countries successful in pulling in tourists. Therefore, it is of utmost importance for many countries to arm their human resources working in tourism industry with English to enable them for effective communication with foreign tourists. To this end, English is usually taught as English for Academic Purposes to the students majoring in Tourism Studies in Iranian higher education systems. In fact, English for tourism purposes is taught at Iranian universities as required credits for the students majoring in English. These students are required to pass 17 to 20 credits of English for tourism in Iranian universities. The syllabi of these English courses demonstrate that the major

purpose behind the course is enhancing students' competency to interact with foreign visitors. In addition, English for tourism is taught in some institutes specializing in teaching short-term courses in tourism and hospitality. However, the number of students attending these courses at institutes is not ample. English is also taught as English for Specific Purposes in vocational courses in workplaces, such as training courses for hotel managers, front office staff, customer relationship managers, food and beverage staff, housekeepers, waiters and waitresses, and restaurant managers.

Similar to general English proficiency tests such as TOEFL and IELTS, there is an international proficiency test for English for the Tourism Industry known as Award. The award is commonly known as EFTI which stands for English for the Tourism Industry. The award is issued by London Chamber of Commerce and Industry Examinations Board (LCCIEB). This certificate is given in the first and second levels and is made up of written and oral components.

Tourism in Iran is one of the economic sectors which is not flourished despite Iran's countless tourist attractions. The new administration has attempted to draw in a considerable number of tourists in the coming years and to some extent it has been successful to unravel complexities and challenges of the industry in the country unfold tourism in the current year. The purpose is increasing the number of incoming tourists to visit Iran's rich cultural heritage, historical places, handicrafts, phenomenal nature, and also for some specific purposes such as health tourism.

Previous studies

To date, different language programs have been evaluated by a variety of program evaluation models. One of the major models which has been used in language program evaluation is Stufflebeam's CIPP model (2003). The model has been so effective and practical that a considerable number of evaluators have used it in educational evaluations (e.g. Amiri, 2008; Clementi, 2012; Fatima, 2010; Fidone, 1993; Gullu, 2007; Keyvanfar, 1999; Marrison, 2005; Razi & Kargar, 2014; Roybal, 2011; Tekin, 2015; Yildiz, 2004).

Amiri (2008) carried out a program evaluation of ESP courses offered at MS/A and Ph.D. levels at 10 faculties of Science and Research Campus, Islamic Azad University in Iran. A total of 309 respondents comprising 275 students, 18 instructors and 16 heads of departments participated in the study, which incorporated four data gathering techniques, i.e. questionnaires, interviews, observations, and tests. A questionnaire was administered to 275 students to analyze their English language needs. Another questionnaire was administered among the instructors and heads of departments, and interviews were conducted with instructors to seek their evaluations of the ESP courses and what they felt the students' English language needs were. In addition, the researcher observed different ESP classes to see closely the actual classroom practices, and a general English proficiency test, constructed and validated by the researcher, was also administered among the students to determine their approximate level of general English language knowledge. The results of the study indicated that there were mismatches between the students' perceived English language needs and the ESP courses they attend. Furthermore, both MS/A and Ph.D. students generally scored low on the English proficiency test, which required the implementation of certain measures to address this deficiency.

Forouzandeh, et al. (2008) applied the CIPP model to evaluate the TEFL curriculum in MA program implemented at nine major universities in Iran with regard to the Official Curriculum developed in 1987. Participants were 68 MA students, 34 instructors, and nine administrators. Data were collected through questionnaires, interviews, and written responses. The data were analyzed using both quantitative and qualitative procedures. The findings indicated that: (1) there was no consensus among the participants regarding the overall aim of the program, (2) the implemented curriculum is partially compatible with the Official Curriculum, and (3) the participants generally felt the need for (a) revision of the official curriculum, (b) reform in program delivery, and (c) reconsidering the screening system.

Clementi (2012) applied the CIPP model to answer the research question: How do stakeholders in Lac du Bois, the French Language Village of Concordia Language Villages, describe achievement of the mission statement to prepare young people for responsible citizenship in the global community in terms of: (a) language acquisition, (b) cultural understanding, (c) global-mindedness, (d) personal development. The Language Village experience in the study is a hybrid program combining elements of both summer camp and study abroad experiences to create a language and culture immersion experience for American youth

aged between 7 and 18. The study was an attempt to conduct a program evaluation for describing the outcomes of participation in the French Language Village, an exemplar of Concordia Language Villages' summer language and culture immersion programs. Using the CIPP model, the researchers employed a research methodology which included a sequential exploratory mixed methods design to data collection using questionnaires, focus groups, and interviews to generate data. The Data were obtained from 571 questionnaires completed by villagers, focus groups with 22 villagers, and interviews with 18 staff members of Lac du Bois and 15 past and current members of the leadership of Concordia Language Villages. The findings indicated that villagers perceived growth in all four constructs of the mission statement, particularly in language acquisition. In addition, the results of the study showed that achievement of the mission statement was positively influenced by the length of time and number of summers that villagers spent at Lac du Bois. Moreover, achievement of the mission statement was not influenced by the site location, age, or gender of the villagers.

Tekin (2015) evaluated the English Language Teaching (ELT) and English Language and Literature (ELL) preparatory classes of a state university in Turkey. The main purpose of the study was basically gathering data for an illuminative evaluation of the prep classes program for the purpose of highlighting certain dimensions of the program as the first step to make the necessary changes. The participants were 106 preparatory class students and two lecturers participated in the study. The researcher used qualitative and quantitative means for the triangulation of the data to get more reliable results. Results of the study indicated that the majority of the participants were satisfied with the present program and its components except for physical conditions. In addition, the lecturers reported the need for a new program that should aim to help students gain more communicative skills.

A review of the literature in the research on Iranian tourism education and industry indicates that no study has been conducted in Iran to evaluate English for tourism courses in the country. Regarding language courses for tourism students, some studies concentrated on just the language needs of the students for their future workplaces. Afzali and Fakharzadeh (2009) conducted a needs analysis survey to determine the English letter writing needs of Iranian tourism students. To this end, a complete list of sample business letters was taken to experts in the field of travel and tourism and hotel managers. The long list was shortened to be more easily handled in the second phase of the study. The newly drawn list of letters was sent to five hotels and twenty travel agencies in Iran to find the most frequent topics they deal with in their daily correspondence. To have confidence in the agency choices, the researchers also measured the interrater reliability coefficient among different agencies and hotels. Results of the study indicated that 19 letter topics are the most important topics for which tourism graduates must be competent enough to write at their future workplaces.

Moattarian and Tahririan (2014) analyzed graduate students' language needs majoring in tourism management. The study was an attempt to investigate the language needs of Iranian graduate students of tourism management based on their wants, lacks, and necessities. The researchers used a questionnaire and semistructured interviews with graduate students, English instructors, subject-specific instructors, and experts in tourism management for data collection. Findings of the study indicated that although students' wants, lacks, and necessities were not highly similar, all agreed that language skills need to be emphasized in their ESP courses in order to satisfy the specific needs of tourism management graduate students.

Finally, in the most relevant study, Kaffashi (2009) explored the problems of tourism industry in Iran. The researcher did sampling using cross-sectional method from tourists in Isfahan, i.e. 200 tourists from eight nationalities and also 50 experts from tourism industry. Data analysis indicated that some factors which could increase tourists' satisfaction were improving tourist welfare facilities, providing more period of stay, establishing security, launching more publicity campaigns, decreasing religious restrictions, planning private investment in tourism industry, developing stable transportation, lifting commercial limitation, improving educational quality in tourist areas, and expanding Iran's cultural relations with other countries. Interestingly, the results of his study indicated that improving educational quality in tourism is among the key factors that can enhance tourist satisfaction in Iran and finally help booming tourism industry in Iran.

English for tourism is one of the major EAP programs that assumes a critical part for the students majoring in tourism in Iran because mastering English is an essential skill for communicating with foreign tourists in Iran. In fact, it can expand job opportunities for tourism students in the country since it is a key criterion for hiring people in the tourism sector. Therefore, it is counted as one of the core subjects for tourism programs in Iranian higher education system. Nonetheless, in spite of the fact that the number of tourism students in Iran is extensive and English for tourism is very important for the students of tourism studies, no study has been conducted on the evaluation of English program for students majoring in tourism. Therefore, by means of this study, the researchers' ultimate aim is to evaluate English for tourism programs in Iranian universities and contribute to the improvement of the programs in Iran by demonstrating the programs' strengths and weaknesses.

Since the body of literature on English program evaluation is scant, this study was an attempt to evaluate English for tourism program for Iranian university students majoring in tourism. In fact, this study aims to inform educators, decision makers, lecturers, curriculum planners, and university administrators to come to an understanding of the current position of English for tourism in Iranian universities along with identifying the strengths, weaknesses, and effectiveness of the program in the country. By evaluating and providing a comprehensive picture of the way English for tourism program is implemented in Iranian universities, this study will build up the current research on program evaluation and also will help administrators make relevant changes in the implementation of the program where necessary. With the knowledge of the current status of the program in Iran, the people who are involved in the administration of the program can develop policies or relevant practices to improve the quality of the program. Consequently, it can result in the improvement of tourism graduates' English competency in Iran.

1.1. The present study

Language education programs need to be evaluated because insiders need to know the strengths and weaknesses of their programs and then modify the program where necessary. In addition, the output of language program evaluation can help program stakeholders ensure that students achieve previously aimed language competencies. However, the body of literature on English program evaluation in Iran is scant, especially in the areas of English for Academic or Specific Purposes.

This study aims at finding answers to the four main evaluation questions which are based on CIPP model. What follows is a list of questions which address the strongpoints, weak points, and efficacy of the implementation of English for tourism program in Iranian universities:

Context

1. What are the language needs of Iranian Tourism undergraduates from the perspective of tourism departments, instructors, and students themselves?

Input

2. Have English for Tourism curriculum and materials been developed based on the objectives defined by the Supreme Council of Programming in the Ministry of Science, Research, and Technologies?

Process

3. What is the process used for implementing the program?

Output

4. What are the students' perceived competencies and their degree of success after attending the program?

2. Methodology

2.1. Participants

Participants of the study were 257 graduate students majoring in tourism in Iranian universities, 15 head of the tourism departments in Iranian universities, 50 lecturers teaching English for tourism in Iranian universities, and 30 employers in the tourism industry. Table 1 shows participants' characteristics:

Table 1. *Participants' Characteristics*

	Degree	*Number*	*Percent*
	PhD	7	46.66

Head of the Departments	PhD Student	2	13.33
	MA	6	40
	Total	15	100
Lecturers	*Degree*	*Number*	*Percent*
	PhD	5	10
	PhD Student	9	18
	MA	36	72
	Total	50	100
	Major	*Number*	*Percent*
	Applied Linguistics (TEFL)	28	56
	English Literature	11	22
	English Translation (Translation Studies)	4	8
	Tourism	7	14
	Total	50	100
	Gender	*Number*	*Percent*
	Male	11	22
	Female	39	78
	Total	50	100
Students	*Gender*	*Frequency*	*Percent*
	Male	108	42
	Female	149	58
	Total	257	
Employers	*Position*	*Frequency*	*Percent*
	5-star hotel manager	6	20
	4-star hotel manager	5	16.66
	Tour and travel agency manager	13	43.33
	International restaurant manager	4	13.33
	Other managers	2	6.66
	Total	30	100

2.2. Instruments

The main instruments for collecting data for this study were questionnaires, an interview, and written documents. Having studied the related literature on CIPP program evaluation model, the researcher developed a questionnaire which had three sections: Demographic information, close-ended questions, and open-ended questions. In fact, the researcher studied and analyzed a range of questions asked in different evaluation studies which had used the CIPP model in Iran and abroad. Then, a questionnaire was developed. After developing the questionnaire, the researcher asked one head of the departments of tourism studies in Iranian universities and 5 lecturers who taught English for tourism to assure the validity of the questionnaire as the panel of experts. Minor revisions offered by these 6 persons were taken into consideration and were used. Then, the questionnaire was used for 27 tourism students as a pilot study to check out whether the instrument was appropriate to be used or not. The Cronbach alpha reliability of the questionnaire was found to be 0.86. Therefore, no reason was found to modify the questionnaire after the pilot study.

Written documents were reviewed in order to gather necessary written information about the program. The researchers gathered all the documents including the syllabi of the courses, including objectives, topics to be covered, proposed textbooks, and assessment describing English for Tourism courses developed to be taught in Iranian universities. In fact, the documents were the documents archived in the

Supreme Council for Curriculum Development and Syllabus Design at the Ministry of Science, Research, and Technology.

2.3. Procedures

The present study used the CIPP (context, input, process, and product) evaluation model developed by Stufflebeam in 1971, and evaluated English for tourism program in Iranian universities from the perspective of head of the departments, lecturers, graduate students, students who had passed their English credits at university, and employers. In addition, documents related to the program were analyzed.

In this evaluation study, both qualitative and quantitative data were collected. Qualitative data were gathered through interviews with the lecturers currently teaching English for tourism in Iranian universities, head of the tourism departments in Iranian universities, and employers in the tourism industry. Written documents were also used to obtain enough information about the purpose of the program, its syllabus, and competencies expected. As for quantitative data, a questionnaire consisting of 21 items in three sections was used to collect data from the students. These sections consisted of Demographic information, close-ended questions, and open-ended questions.

The first step of data collection was written document analysis. In this step, the researchers collected the relevant documents related to the program from the Supreme Council for Curriculum Development and Syllabus Design at the Ministry of Science, Research, and Technology. In the second step of data collection, researchers explained the details of the study to the target university officials in order to conduct the questionnaires. Then, the questionnaire was administered to a total of 257 Iranian students majoring in tourism studies in Iranian universities. The students were given the necessary information about the purpose of the study and the way they were supposed to fill out the questionnaires. Although no time limit was set for filling out the questionnaires, it took 15 minutes on average for every student to fill them out.

In the third step of data collection, interviews were conducted by the researchers at the interviewees' offices. The interviewees were 15 heads of the departments of tourism studies at Iranian universities, 50 lecturers teaching English for tourism, and 30 employers of the graduate students. Convenience of the interviewees was taken into account for scheduling and conducting the interviews. In addition, the researcher assured the interviewees of the confidentiality of the information given by respondents. Each interview took at least 15 minutes and at the end of the interview, the researchers thanked the respondents for their participation in the study.

3. Results

The results of the study are presented in this section based on the components defined in Stufflebeam's evaluation model. The components of the model are context, input, process, and product based on which this section is divided.

3.1. Context

The data gathered through analysis of the syllabus of the courses in the program indicated that students' main need is the ability to communicate in English in tourism industry. In fact, they must acquire enough competency in English for socializing with clients and guests in tourist centers, hotels, tour and travel agencies, and international restaurants for their future jobs. The data gathered from the interviews with the head of the tourism studies department at Iranian universities also indicated the same need. They held this view that the tourism students' main need is having enough English competency to communicate with foreign tourists visiting Iran. Speaking fluently and accurately to understand and meet foreign tourists' needs is the most important part of this need.

Benefits of the program are improving tourism students' listening, speaking, reading, writing, grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation in English, developing students' reservoir of specific vocabulary in tourism, and acquiring enough competency to communicate in English in tourist centers such as hotels, motels, restaurants, tour and travel agencies, and tourist complexes. Besides, the data demonstrated that the main beneficiaries of the program are graduate students majoring in tourism studies, and managers of hotels, tour and travel agencies, restaurants, and other tourist centers.

3.2. Input

The second component of English for tourism program in Iranian universities was also analyzed. Some key sections of the input component of the program including materials, centers providing English for tourism courses, strategies defined for implementing the program, budget of the program, and feasibility of the program were studied, and the results are presented as follows:

3.2.1. Materials

The analysis of the documents including the textbooks that have been used for the programs indicated that the contents of the textbooks were in complete harmony with the objectives, meeting students' needs defined for the program which was previously mentioned. In addition, the main textbooks used for the program were Oxford Tourism, Basic Survival, Be My Guest, Highly Recommended, and Going International. Researchers found out that the textbooks used for the program include various parts to improve students' listening, speaking, reading, writing, grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary in English. In addition, all of their contents centered on tourism, and could improve students' skills to effectively communicate in tourist centers when they get employed. Moreover, students' satisfaction of teaching materials was asked. Table 2 shows students' perceptions:

Table 2. *Students' Satisfaction of Teaching Materials*

Question	Completely Satisfied		Very Satisfied		Moderately Satisfied		Slightly Satisfied		Not at all Satisfied	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Teaching Materials	28	10.89	79	30.73	98	38.13	29	11.28	23	8.94

In addition to the students' perceptions of materials used in English for tourism courses in Iranian universities, the researchers evaluated the textbook used as the most common material in these courses. Tourism 1, 2, and 3 written by Robin Walker and Keith Harding first published by Oxford University Press in 2006 is the most common book used in Iranian universities. The textbook is published in England for pre-work students who are studying for a career in the tourism industry. A 10-point Likert scale Teacher Textbook Evaluation Form developed by Litz (2005) ranging from 'highly agree' to 'highly disagree' was used in the study as a checklist for evaluating Tourism series. The purpose was evaluating the series in all essential aspects. 20 lecturers who had used the series in their English for tourism classes in Iranian universities were asked to fill out the questionnaire and state their opinion regarding the merits and demerits of the series. The questionnaire contained 40 items which included seven subcategories each scrutinizing a specific textbook facet: practical consideration, layout and design, activities, skills, language type, subject and content, and conclusion. Descriptive statistics was used to compute the total mean score and standard deviation of each section, and the results are indicated in table 3.

Table 3. *Results of Descriptive Statistics on Tourism Series Evaluation*

Feature	**Mean**	**Standard Deviation**
Practical Considerations	8.1200	.60315
Layout and Design	7.9313	.29933
Activities	7.7000	.43701
Skills	8.3200	.27834
Language Type	8.1667	.44590
Subject and Content	7.7500	.41990
Conclusion	8.1875	.58980

As it is seen in the table, lecturers were satisfied with Tourism series, and the result of the evaluation was positive. Moreover, students were also asked about something that should be modified or added to the

content of the materials to make them more appropriate and effective. Most of them (76.26%) believed that lecturers had better add speaking materials to the content of the program. They stated that current materials do not necessarily help them to improve their interpersonal communication skills for their current and future profession. Some of them pointed out that we know a considerable number of English words related to tourism, but we do not know how to use them in our speaking. One student mentioned that "We had better have materials in which the main focus is on speaking rather than reading or writing because we need speaking more in our job." Therefore, one of the students' key expectations was adding some materials that can improve their speaking. Another student stated that "There are not enough grammar exercises in our textbooks, and I think we cannot speak accurately because of that."

Seventy three students asserted that the materials are good for improving their reading skills, and their reading comprehension is usually acceptable from their perspective. Some students (20.62%) stated that "The materials produced by our lecturers besides the textbooks were very interesting and effective." A considerable number of students (45.52%) mentioned that "Lecturers had better add some materials about local tourism industry. Although the topics in the textbooks were relevant and practical, we cannot talk about Iranian tourist attractions fluently because we do not know a considerable number of specific vocabulary about them." A few students believed that writing materials had better be modified in the materials in English for tourism classes. One of them stated that "Although we need to write short pieces of writing in our workplaces, we did not have the opportunity to practice writing in our classes. In addition, some of our lecturers did not take the writing section of our textbook seriously."

Taken together, students' perceptions on the materials and textbooks used in English for tourism program in Iranian universities indicate that the major gap in these textbooks is the lack of materials for productive skills, especially speaking. Therefore, they stressed that these materials had better be added to the current textbooks or lecturers are expected to take them seriously to meet their needs in practice. This finding is in harmony with that of Afzali and Rezapoorian (2014) in which they studied the extent that English for tourism course books deal with the pragmatic functions of language and also assessed the pragmatic needs of the EFL learners engaged in tourism industry. To study the pragmatic aspects of the course books, three different English for tourism course books were analyzed in their study on the basis of Speech- act theory, and the frequency of each functional category was computed. Then, to assess the pragmatic needs of the EFL learners engaged in tourism industry in Iran, a discourse completion test consisting of 50 items (covering all the Speech-act Theory functions) was given to 30 students studying EFL, and their pragmatic needs were specified on the basis of the test. Results of their study indicated that one of the reasons behind Iranian tourism students' incompetency in performing expressive, commissive, and directive speech acts is the low frequency of these speech acts presented in the course-books. They suggested that by getting information about the distribution of speech acts in tourism course books, teachers can make up for the inadequacies by using extra materials in their classes.

3.2.2. Centers Providing English for Tourism Courses

Regarding the centers in which English for tourism is usually held, heads of the tourism departments believed that there are a limited number of institutes which provide English for Tourism program under the supervision of Iran's Cultural Heritage, Handicrafts, and Tourism Organization. In addition, there are some hotels which hold English for tourism and hotel management courses for some of their staff as one of their on-the-job training programs. All in all, the gathered data indicated that the only program for English for tourism before graduate students' employment is the program offered in Iranian Universities.

3.2.3. Strategies Defined for Implementing the Program

Regarding strategies used in the program to meet its students' English needs, document analysis demonstrated that strategies are not clearly and specifically defined for the program. A number of points like equipment, objectives, and textbooks to be used are mentioned in the syllabus of the courses to show the lecturers the way they are expected to teach and implement the program.

3.2.4. Budget of the Program

Researchers found out that the budget of the program is provided in two ways in Iranian universities. The budget of the program is provided by Iranian government in public universities. In other universities including Islamic Azad universities and University of Applied Science and Technology in which the

English for tourism program is implemented, the budget of the program is provided by the tuition students pay for their studies.

3.2.5. Feasibility of the Program

When it comes to feasibility of the program in real life situation, the data gathered demonstrated that the program is feasible from political and social perspective. However, financial issue is one of the major problems that decreased the quality of the program. Since the budget of the government and also the tuition tourism students pay for the program are not adequate, the students who attend the courses are more than 30 per class. Regarding technological issues, there were some classes in some universities which did not have some facilities, such as video projector, computer, and CD player to be used for instruction and made the program difficult to implement.

3.3. Process

Some parts of English for tourism program which were related to the process component of Stufflebeam's model were studied. The gathered data indicated that there are a number of problems in the implementation of the program which make it less productive. These problems are as follows:

- Overcrowded English for tourism classes

One of the major obstacles to the appropriate implementation of the program was the large number of students attending English for tourism classes in Iranian universities. Unfortunately, the researcher found out that 30 students attend these classes on average, and it makes a condition under which there is not enough time for students' speaking practice and receiving enough feedback.

- Lecturers' methodology in which the focus on productive skills is not sufficient

Another problem which overshadowed the implementation of the program was the methodology used by the lecturers. In fact, the findings indicate that the majority of the students had remarkable concerns regarding the teaching methods implemented by English for tourism lecturers in Iranian universities. Table 4 shows students' satisfaction with the lecturers' teaching methods:

Table 4. *Students' Satisfaction of Teaching Methods*

Question	Completely Satisfied		Very Satisfied		Moderately Satisfied		Slightly Satisfied		Not at all Satisfied	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Teaching Methods	21	8.17	26	10.11	53	20.62	81	31.51	76	29.57

As indicated in t Table 4, just 18.28 percent of the students reported that they were completely or very satisfied with the teaching methods used in their classes. In an open-ended question, students' were asked the changes lecturers had better make in their teaching methods. Some students stated that lecturers had better make a condition under which students can have more interaction in their classes. A considerable number of the students (62.64%) stated that their teachers dominated classroom discussion, leaving little time for them to practice English. As a case in point, one student stated that "Our lecturer just provided us with the meaning of key words and translating key phrases. We did not have the opportunity to speak with each other and use the new words in practice." Another student reported that "We usually had pair work or group work in the General English classes I participated in language institutes when I was a high school student, but we did not have pair work or group work to practice speaking in English for tourism classes at the university." Most of the students stated that the activities that can help them to have more practice of the language and collaborative work are the best techniques and strategies in improving their linguistic proficiency in the English for tourism program.

The major concerns and obstacles mentioned by Iranian tourism students are excessive teacher talking time, lack of pair work and group work, lack of time for practicing speaking, and teachers' error

correction strategies in their classes. This finding is in harmony with that of Langroudi (1999) in which an English for Academic Purposes (EAP) program offered in Iranian universities was evaluated. In addition to the use of goal-free evaluation to investigate all aspects of the program, the researcher in this study utilized various strategies to collect his data for this evaluation process. He conducted a needs analysis and took into account the goals and objectives, materials, teachers and the assessment practices of the program. The results of his study revealed that the EAP materials did not sufficiently accommodate students' specific needs in the subject area. Classrooms were seen to be dominated by frontal teaching, in which students sit passively listening to their teacher's lecture, taking notes and completing individual worksheet task. The researcher found that this type of teaching was unlikely to prepare higher education students to practice the language and communicate successfully in English. In addition, the researcher was of the opinion that such classes could de-motivate higher education students from learning English and decrease their autonomy as learners. However, the small number of students who were satisfied with the teaching methods mentioned role play, teaching prefabricated patterns, and giving opportunities for weekly presentation by students as some of the constructive teaching methods used by their lecturers.

- The textbooks of the courses which are not rich in teaching communication

Findings of the study indicates that although the researcher believes that the content of the textbooks was in harmony with the syllabus defined by the Supreme Council of Programming in the Ministry of Science, Research, and Technologies, there were some minor problems from the perspective of students in this regard. In an open-ended question, more than half of the students (76.26%) believed that the lecturers had better add speaking materials to the content of the program. They stated that current materials do not necessarily help them to improve their interpersonal communication skills for their current and future profession. In addition, some students believed that writing materials had better be modified in the materials in English for tourism classes. One of them stated that "Although we need to write short pieces of writing in our workplaces, we did not have the opportunity to practice writing in our classes. In addition, some of our lecturers did not take the writing section of our textbook seriously."

- Lack of equipment related to educational technology

The researcher found out that one of the problems which affect the efficiency of the program was lack of the equipment in some universities in which English for tourism were taught. In some branches of the University of Applied Science and Technology, there was not enough equipment to use audio-visual materials especially video projector. In addition, lack of Wi-Fi was another problem that prevented using the English websites of hotels, tour and travel agencies and other tourist centers to practice reading and learning key vocabularies in tourism.

Regarding the beneficiaries of the program, the gathered data indicated that most of them are not satisfied with the English for tourism program currently implemented in Iranian universities. These beneficiaries were not satisfied mostly with the speaking ability students acquire after passing the program. Heads of the tourism studies departments as the program leaders of English for tourism program in Iranian universities also were not fully satisfied with the implementation of the program. They believe that there are some limitations and obstacles that decrease the efficiency of the program and are beyond their ability to solve. They believe that these obstacles are as follows:

- Students are not homogeneous regarding their English at the beginning of their university studies
- large number of students puts some serious time limitations on practicing productive skills in their classes
- Some students are not motivated enough to improve their English
- There is not enough equipment in some universities regarding educational technology
- Universities cannot hire qualified English lecturers because of the low payment they had to pay.

Regarding the teaching methods used in the program, most of the students stated that they were not satisfied with the teaching methods used by their teachers. They believed that their teachers dominated classroom discussion, leaving little time for them to practice English. Therefore, they did not have enough opportunity to practice and improve their speaking. Lecturers pointed out to some obstacles which put

some limitations to implement their favorite teaching methods, such as overcrowded classrooms, lack of equipment, having heterogeneous students in one class, and students' attitude and lack of motivation.
Regarding the teaching materials used in the program, most of the students were satisfied with the materials used in their classrooms. However, they believed that lecturers had better add speaking materials to the content of the program. They stated that current materials do not necessarily help them to improve their interpersonal communication skills for their current and future profession. Students' perception of the assessment used in the program was also asked. Most of the students believed that the exams were in harmony with the materials taught in their classes, and they were satisfied with the assessment used in the program.

3.4. Product

Gathered data related to the product component of the program indicated that although graduate students in tourism studies are expected to be competent in using English for tourism, the output of the program in practice is not in total harmony with the output expected from the program defined by the Supreme Council of Programming in the Ministry of Science, Research, and Technologies. In fact, students are expected to be equipped with enough competency in the listening, speaking, reading, writing, grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation of English and use the language in tourist centers to interact with their clients and guests. Table 5 shows students' satisfaction with their English competence after passing English credits at Iranian universities:

Table 5. *Students' Satisfaction of Their English Competence*

Language Skill/Subskill	Completely Satisfied		Very Satisfied		Moderately Satisfied		Slightly Satisfied		Not at all Satisfied	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Listening	42	16.34	77	29.96	53	20.62	17	6.61	68	26.45
Speaking	39	15.17	16	6.22	19	7.39	36	14.00	147	57.19
Reading	46	17.89	133	51.75	21	8.17	16	6.22	41	15.95
Writing	29	11.28	21	8.17	42	16.34	56	21.78	109	42.41
Grammar	38	14.78	16	6.22	48	18.67	61	23.73	94	36.57
Vocabulary	63	24.51	112	43.57	27	10.50	13	5.05	43	16.73
Pronunciation	32	12.45	19	7.39	37	14.39	41	15.95	128	49.80

As it is seen in t Table 5, students are to a great extent satisfied with some of their English competency after passing their courses. As a case in point, results from the close-ended questionnaire related to the listening in English for tourism indicate that more than half of the students (66.92%) were satisfied with their listening competency. This shows that the materials and teaching methods used to improve students' listening skill in English are effective. However, the data indicates that the program is not totally fruitful regarding improving students' listening skills because 33.06 percent of the students are slightly satisfied or not satisfied with their listening skill. It indicates that some measures had better be taken after analyzing the underlying reasons to refine and modify the materials and methods of teaching listening in the program. In addition, results from the close-ended questionnaire indicate that most of the students (68.08%) were satisfied with their lexical competency. This indicates that the materials and

teaching methods used to improve students' specific vocabulary in tourism are acceptable and effective. It also shows the success of the program in achieving the objectives defined in the lexical section of English for tourism program. No doubt, it can increase students' maneuverability in understanding and also using English at their workplaces in the tourism industry. Moreover, results from the close-ended questionnaire indicate that most of the students (69.64%) were very or completely satisfied with their reading competency. satisfaction level of 69.64% shows that the program is successful in improving students' reading skill to a great extent. This ability can arm students to read the literature on tourism industry around the globe and keep themselves updated.

On the other hand, there are some skills and subskills students are not satisfied with. The first skill is speaking. As it is seen in table 5, most of the students (71.19 percent) were slightly satisfied or not satisfied with their speaking competency. It indicates that the program is not fruitful regarding the speaking of the students. The reasons causing this deficiency should be pondered upon and solved because the most important language skill in the tourism industry is speaking. The ability to communicate with foreign tourists to meet their needs when they are visiting Iran is the most important thing expected from the human resources working in this section. Therefore, a close diagnosis and uprooting the obstacles in this case seems necessary. Moreover, results from the close-ended questionnaire indicate that more than half of the students (64.19%) were slightly satisfied or not satisfied with their writing competency. Similarly, results show that more than half of the students (60.3%) were not satisfied with their competency in grammar, and also most of the students (65.75%) were not satisfied with their competency in pronunciation.

In addition, in the open-ended part of the questionnaire, a question was used to ask students whether they think they have enough knowledge and competency in English to find a job and be successful in their career path. Some students (66.92%) stated that they did not acquire the competency to find a good job in a prestigious tourist center. 10.11% of the students were not sure about the sufficiency of their English skills. Only 22.97% of the students believed that they have enough English competency to find a good job after passing the English for tourism courses at university. This finding replicates the finding of Birjandi and Nostatinia (2009) in which they used Stufflebeam's CIPP Model for evaluating the M.A. English Translation Program in Iranian Universities. To conduct the research, all the universities having the program at the time of the study were chosen except Islamic Azad University, Chabahar Branch. The researchers used class observations, interviews, and questionnaires for a comprehensive needs analysis to clarify the needs and objectives of students, presenting their language problems and their inabilities in relation to translation. Surprisingly, results of the study revealed that the first and most important aim of establishing the program- "training the expert translators skilled in the fields of Human and Social Sciences, etc." to the great extent was ignored and the program did not meet its objectives.

The results of the study by Razi and Kargar (2014) is also in line with the results found in this study. They evaluated in-service Foreign Language Teacher Education (FLTE) program in Iran to help its improvement. The researchers conducted their study in Isfahan and used questionnaire to collect data from 56 English teachers. To analyze the data, the frequency distributions of responses accompanied by percentages were calculated. Results of the study indicated that the status of the in - service Foreign Language Teacher Education program was not satisfying regarding improving English teachers' language proficiency level, teaching skills, management skills, and evaluation skills. In other words, the program could not meet its objectives in practice.

All in all, the data gathered from the questionnaire and interviews indicated that the program did not meet the expected results especially in productive skills. In fact, the analysis of the students, lecturers, head of the departments, and employers' perception indicates that the program cannot completely meet tourism students' English needs in real life situation.

4. Conclusion

Taken together, the data gathered from the questionnaire and interviews indicated that the program did not meet the expected results especially in productive skills. In fact, the analysis of the students, lecturers, head of the departments, and employers' perception demonstrates that the program cannot completely meet tourism students' English needs in real life situation. In other words, graduate students majoring tourism studies in Iranian universities cannot be good at socializing with foreign tourists using English

just by passing English for tourism courses in Iranian universities. This shortcoming has its roots in some reasons such as overcrowded English for tourism classes, lecturers' methodology in which the focus on productive skills is not sufficient, the textbooks of the courses which are not rich in local tourism vocabulary, and lack of educational technology. All in all, the study showed that the type of English for tourism instruction these students received was unlikely to arm them sufficiently for their future careers in tourism industry in Iran. Findings of the study have a number of implications worth pondering upon and taking them into account by English for tourism policymakers in Iran in the future. The implementation of the program needs to be revised and some key measures need to be taken such as defining strategies, teaching methods, and techniques, decreasing the number of students in classes, providing enough equipment, decreasing teacher talking time, dedicating enough time for practicing speaking, improving students' motivation, recruiting more qualified lecturers, teaching local tourism vocabulary. Further research can be conducted to explore the implementation of English for tourism program in Iranian universities. These researches can further enhance pedagogical perspectives for improving the program in the coming years.

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NEEDS ANALYSIS OF SEVENTH GRADE OF HIGH SCHOOL (COURSE ONE) IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE CLASSROOM

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ABSTRACT
NEEDS ANALYSIS IS NECESSARY IN PLANNING EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS AND CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT. THE AIM OF THIS STUDY IS TO INVESTIGATE ENGLISH LEARNERS NEEDS BASED ON THEIR COURSE BOOK IN HIGH SCHOOL (COURSE ONE), THEIR ATTITUDES TOWARDS EFL LEARNING, AND THE PROBLEMS OF THE BOOK. THE METHOD USED FOR TEACHING ENGLISH LANGUAGE WAS COMMUNICATION LANGUAGE TEACHING. THIS STUDY EMPHASIZES ON THE LOCAL LEVEL, ON INDIVIDUAL TEACHERS AND THEIR CLASSES. THE PAPER IS BASED ON QUESTIONNAIRE SURVEY, INTERVIEWS, AND CLASSROOM OBSERVATIONS FOR COLLECTING DATA. THE FINDINGS OF THE STUDY IS ON TEACHERS' VIEWS, AND ALSO STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS ABOUT THE COURSE BOOK, AND THEIR ATTITUDES TOWARDS LEARNING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE. ALSO, IN THIS STUDY WILL BE DISCUSSED SYLLABUS DESIGN, MATERIAL DEVELOPMENT, AND CLT BRIEFLY IN LANGUAGE LEARNING.

KEY WORDS: NEEDS ANALYSIS, COURSE BOOK, CLT, TEACHER, STUDENT.

Introduction

Successful teaching need the consideration of learner factors such as knowledge, views of learning, learning styles and motivation (Richards,2012).Need analysis is useful for needs of learners at different levels of proficiency and with a variety of objectives in mind(Stern,1992). The purpose of this survey was to investigate the needs of a specific group of seventh grade students in high school. In follows a brief discussion of needs analysis, syllabus design, material development, CLT, and a brief literature review.

Needs Analysis

Needs analysis (also known as needs assessment) has an important function in designing and implementing any language course for both, English for Specific Purposes (ESP) or general English

course. Needs analysis refers to the activities for collecting information to develop a curriculum for the needs of a particular group of learners (Iwai et al, 1999). Students' needs in ESP are usually explained in terms of performance, what the leaner will be able to do with the language at the end of a study course, but in a general English course the aim is mastery of the language that can be tested on a global language test, in ESP course, learners are prepared to do a specific task or set of tasks (Richards, Jack C, 2001).

Furthermore, obtaining input from the students about a planning program through a needs analysis is essential to the design, implementation, evaluation, and revision of the program (Richards, 1990; Savignon, 1997). In needs analysis, needs are explained as; "objective and subjective (Briendly, 1989); perceived and felt (Berwick, 1989); target situation, goal oriented and learning, process-oriented and product-oriented (Briendly, 1989)".

Syllabus design

Syllabus is the nature of language and learning, it is useful for both teacher and learners. Hutchinson and Water (1987) define syllabus as follow:

> " At its simplest level a syllabus can be described as a statement of what is to be learned. It reflects language and linguistic performance".

The difference between syllabus and curriculum is that, curriculum covers all the activities are made by institutions to facilitate teachers and learners, but syllabus is limited to a specific subject of a particular class. Syllabus reflect a view of language and language learning, and curriculum refers to all aspects of the evaluation, implementation, and planning of a pedagogic syllabus (Richards, 2002).

Materials development

Materials development studies the principle and procedures of design, implementation and evaluation of language teaching materials. It is used by teachers for their own classroom. Materials are used to facilitate the learning of a language (Tomlinson, 2001).

Effective educational materials in language teaching are formed by consideration of a number factors such as; teacher, learner, and contextual variables. Teachers' factors include cultural background, language proficiency, training, experience, and their teaching style. Learners' factor such as; language learning needs, their learning style, interest, and motivations. Theory of language and language use, and theory of language learning are two factors which play an important role in determining what the materials will be look like and how they will work (Richards, 2005).

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

Principles of communicative language teaching include the aims of language teaching, how students learn a language, types of classroom activities to facilitate learning, roles of teachers and learners in the classroom. According to Richards (2006), the aim of teaching CLT is the teaching of communicative competence. Communicative competence include, using language for different purposes and functions, being able to produce and understand different kinds of texts, and "knowing how to maintain communication despite having limitations in one's language knowledge ".

Classroom activities for facilitating learning in communicative language teaching include pair work activities, role plays, group work activities and project work. Learners in CLT classroom must participate in pair work activities or group work activities, and the role of teacher is facilitating and monitoring language learning.

Communicative language teaching syllabus emphasis on the four skills of reading, writing, listening, and speaking. For example, skills of listening in communicative language teaching include "recognizing key words in conversations, recognizing the topic of a conversation, recognizing speakers' attitude toward a topic, recognizing time reference of an utterance, following speech at different rates of speed, identifying key information in a passage".

Communicative language teaching can facilitate second language learning by involving learners in interaction and meaningful communication, opportunities for learners to negotiate meaning, the goal of learning is to be able to use the new language both accurately and fluently, and learners can learn language through group and collaboration activities.

Research Questions

The research question of this study is:

1. What are the needs of students for learning English language according to their course book?

2. What is the students' motivation for learning English language?

Literature Review

Need assessment is the systematic collection and analysis of all information necessary for defining a defensible curriculum a defensible curriculum is one that satisfies the language learning and teaching requirements of the students and teachers within the context of particular institutions involved.

Need analysis can be seen as an instrument to find the deficit of students for better material adaptation, adoption or development in the teaching learning process. Basturkmen (1998) has uttered that needs analysis is using observation; interviews and questionnaires from participants functioning in a target situation to find problems, difficulties, and standard frameworks.

	Study	Country in which study carried out	Educational setting(s) of the study	Type of study	Topic of investigation	Proficiency level	Sample
1	Chang Jie (2013)	China	Chinese college students	Descriptive	English Learner Needs Analysis	NNS senior students	NNS= 141
2	Martin Balint	Japan	university in Western Japan	Descriptive	assessing students' perceived language needs	NNS first-semester university students	NNS=363
3	Mohammad Saber Khaghaninejad (2014)	Iran	Zabansara as a private English institute	Descriptive	pedagogical values of "Connect Series" as English course books	pre-intermediate level	NNS=40
4	Haseli Songhori Mehdi(2007)	Iran		Explanatory	Introduction to Needs Analysis		
5	Seedhouse poul(1993)	Barcelona	Three classes of students	Descriptive	Need analysis and general English classroom	Students 0f14-18 years old	NNS=29

	Researcher	Idea
1	Chang Jie (2013)	Students with different language proficiency need different time length and teaching plan to reach the learning goals.

2	Martin Balint	need analysis is important in the creating of English language programs, due to changing learner, societal, and institutional factors, need assessment should be a part of routine program review.
3	Mohammad Saber Khaghaninejad (2014)	Connect Series" appeared to be an effective textbook for language teachers to achieve their aims and also the language institutes' aims and offer visions for the authors, , syllabus designer, curriculum planning, materials development and also the learners who are interested in learning EFL.
4	Haseli Songhori Mehdi(2007)	today needs analysis should not be (and is not) of concern only within the field of ESP, but also that of General English because the needs of the learners is of paramount importance in any language process.
5	Seedhouse poul(1993)	Need analysis may be the preferred basis for design because of the concept of learner authenticity, and a direct link from needs to aims of course design, classroom implementation, and evaluation.

Stout, (1995, as cited in Elkiliç and et al, 2003), notes that need analysis is a systematic exploration of the way things are and the way they should be. Similarly, Dudley-Evans and St Johns (1998) have expressed that "Needs analysis is the process of establishing the and how of a course" (P. 121). The pervious definition emphasizes the content and methodology of a course. In addition, Nunan (1988, p.30) states that "…techniques and procedures for collecting information to be used in syllabus design are referred to as needs analysis". There is a more specific definition provided by Richards (1990), as cited in Elklic', Bayrak' and Parlac' (2003, p.61) which expresses that needs assesment emphasizes on "A specific language needs, such as the special kind of reading comprehension training that foreign students need in order to study engineering, biology, or veterinary medicine". The above definitions pinpoint the choice of the language is eminently left to the learning and language needs of the students. Nunan's definition of need analysis is to plan better syllabus that provides the students' subjective and objective needs. Based on Gardner and Winslow (1983, p.76), "to produce information which when acted upon makes courses better adapted to students' needs." Elklic' and et al. (2003), have asserted that the main goal of needs analysis is to engage learners, teachers, administrators and employers in the designing process to achieve essential input about the content, design and, implementation of a language program.

Chang Jie (2013) investigated the English learner needs of Chinese college students, trying to find out their learning style, skills priorities, current deficiency, and alternative methodologies. A total of 141 college students from 6 departments studying at Beijing Institute of Petrochemical Technology (BIPT) participated in the questionnaire. 12 of them participated in the structured interview. The methods of this needs analysis are as follows: the tests of placement, observation of classes, questionnaires, structured interviews, and network based interviews (i.e. chatting with the interviewees on internet).The type of study was based on descriptive statistic, and students in BIPT, due to different level of language proficiency, need different time length and fostering/teaching plan to reach the learning destination which is the basic College English Curriculum Requirements issued by Ministry of Education of P. R. China.

Martin Balint investigated about assessing students' perceived language needs in a needs analysis at university in Western Japan as a part of curriculum review. Participants of study were first-semester university students participated in the 45-item survey. The methods of this needs analysis are as follows: the survey was administrated for 363 first-semester university students during a reading course. The 6 instructors of the 18 classes were taught students to complete survey at the beginning of class. The result of the study was based on descriptive statistic and it was conclusive. That is, need analysis is important in the creating of English language programs, due to changing learner, societal, and institutional factors, need assessment should be a part of routine program review.

Mohammad Saber Khaghaninejad, Masoumeh Rahimi, and Zahra Vagheffard (2014), investigated the pedagogical values of "Connect Series" as English course books employed in the foreign language learning context of Iran. A needs analysis survey was also conducted to find the strengths and

weaknesses of the "Connect Series" as learners needs are concerned. 15 EFL teachers rated the series based on a checklist and a needs analysis questionnaire was given to 40 students studying at Zabansara as a private English institute in Iran at pre-intermediate level of proficiency. The study employed three kinds of instruments including "Connect Series" (second edition) authored by Richards, Barbisan, and Sandy (2009), a questionnaire by Spratt (1999) and the checklist by Chastain, 1971; Sheldon, 1988; Rivers, 1981; Cunningsworth, 1995; Skierso,1991. From the findings of the study it can be concluded that "Connect Series" appeared to be an effective textbook for language teachers to achieve their aims and also the language institutes' aims and offer visions for the authors of the textbook as well as those involved in educational administrations, syllabus designer, curriculum planning, materials development and also the learners who are interested in learning EFL.

Mehdi Haseli Songhori (2007), has explained about an introduction to need analysis. That is, how a researcher can do a needs assessment survey. Need analysis includes: Present Situation Analysis, Pedagogic Needs Analysis, Deficiency Analysis, Strategy Analysis or Learning Needs Analysis, Means Analysis, Register analysis, Discourse analysis, and Genre
Analysis. This article attempts to present an overview of the above approaches to needs analysis. The author believes that , today needs analysis should not be (and is not) of concern only within the field of ESP, but also that of General English because the needs of the learners is of paramount importance in any language process.

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Poul, Seedhouse (1993),investigated about need analysis and general English classroom in three classes of Barcelona. The age of students was 14-18 years old. A need analysis questionnaire was used in this research, the questionnaire was completed by three classes of students in Barcelona. Twenty-nine young students were participated in this study. A descriptive statistic was applied for analyzing the data. According to the findings, the writer concludes: need analysis may be the preferred basis for design because of the concept of learner authenticity, and a direct link from needs to aims of course design, classroom implementation, and evaluation.

Description of the Teaching Context

Course Book and Curriculum

The 7th grade course book (Alavi Moghaddam & et.al, 2013) is based upon the principles of literacy, educational activities, comprehensible and meaningful content, and feedback to learners' errors. The name of the book is **Prospect** 1 from the series English for Schools is part of a six-year program that is designed to help students learn English for communicative purposes using all the four skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing. The basis of the book is on pair/group work, that is cooperative learning will result in more effective learning. The course components of the book include:

- There are a student book and a workbook and that it is necessary for students to bring both books to class every session.
- There are a Welcome part and 8 lessons in both books and a Review part for every two lessons only in their student books.
- Every lesson is composed of communicative and literacy instruction activities.
- Every lesson will be covered in three sessions.
- There is a photo dictionary at the end of their student books.
- There are a handwriting booklet and the translations of exercise instructions in Persian at the end of their workbooks.
- Learners also have a CD in which there are audio files for the student book and an interactional software through which they can practice and learn more.

Welcome has been designed with the following purposes:
•To develop an initial positive attitude in the students toward learning English.
•To persuade students that they already know some English.
•To help teachers find out what their students know and are able to do at the beginning of the course in order to make appropriate decisions during the academic year.

Teacher's book is designed to guide teachers how to meet the above mentioned objectives. Teachers should know that students at this level might come from different language learning backgrounds with different levels of familiarity with English. Also they should keep in mind that positive feedback will encourage all students (including weak ones) to work more and better.

Every lesson in the book is consist of three sections

- Part 1, oral skills (listening, speaking) contain conversation and practice.
- Part 2, written skills (reading, writing), that can be strengthened by oral skills.
- Part3, role play of conversation.

Method of Teaching

Stages in teaching conversation and drill include warm-up, audio-visual presentation (two to three times), checking and explanation, introducing functions, audio-visual practice, and pair/group work.

Phases in teaching sounds and letters are warm-up, audio-visual presentation (two to three times), checking and explanation, initial teaching of letters, teaching letters for reading and writing (using flash cards), follow-up task, and assignment.

Steps in teaching listening and reading contain warm-up, audio-visual presentation (two to three time), checking and explanation (feedback).

Steps in teaching speaking and writing consist of warm-up, Pair/group work, checking and explanation (feedback).

The last part is teaching conversation and role play, this section include warm-up, pair/group work, student presentation, checking and explanation (feedback).

Methodology

Participants

The focus of present paper is to investigate the needs of the 7th grade learners of high school (course one). The participants of the study (n = 35) were EFL learners in the first year of high schools located in the city of Sabzevar and Ferdows in Iran. The participants are male and female aged from 12 to 13, with an elementary level of English proficiency.All the participants are native speakers of Persian.

Research Design

The aim of the present study was to determine the needs of the 7th grade high school students (course one). For this purpose, a mixed method design, including both quantitative and qualitative data collection tools, was employed. One of the instruments that were employed in this study was a researchers-made needs analysis questionnaire. The questionnaire including five parts Yes/No questions was developed to discover students' attitudes about the book (prospect one) and some questions about

language skills and activities that they were interested in language learning. The second instrument was another questionnaire developed to find out teachers' opinions about the course book and problem of it.

Data Collection and Data Analysis Procedures

This study has done in two cities, in Ferdows and sabzevar, the participants of the study were 35 students (male=12, female=23). First we explained about our observations in a high school in ferdows, and then an explanation about our observations in sabzevar. Both group were at the same level, seventh grade of high school (course one). In the first session of observation, teacher explained the lesson and wrote the new words on the whiteboard for students. Students had difficulty in spelling of words, reading, and writing, so the most of class time was on reading not speaking, while according to the method of teaching in the book, the most focus must be on speaking. However teacher practiced speaking with student pair work and also with the whole class. Another problem related to students ,was that, students committed error in the meaning of words that they had similar form to each other, for example, With and What.

Another observation was done in Izadi high school of Sabzevar. As we enter the classroom, the first thing we notice is that the students were attentively listening to a song. The song was about lesson 3 of the book: numbers; one, two, three, four, and five.

Once I caught a fish alive
Six, seven, eight, nine, ten
Then I let it go again

When song was finished, students asked again, again, then teacher played a video for the class. The video was about role plays that were performed by the students. During the program learners were excited, and watched their performance attentively.

Now teacher asked her students to display their power points to the class. The topic of the power points was about birthday:

-When is your birthday?
-in mehr

(Here, teacher criticized the answer to this question. She believed native speakers use the word birthday for the day of birth not the month).

In this study, we used questionnaire, interview, and a check list observation for evaluating observations of the class. Also there is a sample of questionnaire in appendix of the article.

Results

Teachers' attitudes

Although the book claims that is consist of all four skills, but the focus is on listening and speaking rather than reading and writing. The book has a proper beginning about reading skill as if students with different background knowledge can read easily, but reading take place through visual matching. In this book, development of writing skill is very weak and it is limited to writing first name and last name.

Considering grammar is omitted of the book and it is taught indirectly, students meet serious problems to writing. According to the book alphabet will be taught gradually while students need to read and write down a few words in some practices. For example, in the following practice; Martin is a student, he is ten years old…, but students could not read the passage correctly, because they did not know all the alphabets in the passage.

Teachers believe that the time of the class is limited for learning, furthermore, teaching English language according to communicative language teaching is not possible with the large number of students.

Teachers' expectation is students can read and write alphabet correctly, and they can introduce themselves and their family at the end of the course. Also, they can be able to communicate with each other in English.

Students' attitudes about their book and their problems

Students think the book lacks fun and pictures are not interesting and also they believe planned time is not enough for learning. Learners expressed, even though, English is as important as mathematic, but the planned time for English is not the same.

According to the collected data from learners' motives toward English language learning, most of them like to learn English in order to understand English films, songs, and be able to speak to foreign people

Table 1:

Learners' attitudes towards English language learning

Why do you like to learn English?	Yes	No
I can travel to other countries	41%	59%
I can understand English songs	77%	23%
I can understand English films	77%	23%
I can pass English exams	67%	67%
I can speak to foreign people	83%	17%

With regard to findings of the questionnaire, learner's favorite skills are arranged from more to least; speaking, reading, listening, and writing.

Table 2:

Favorite English language skills

Do you like	Yes	No
Speaking	88%	12%
Reading	83%	17%
Writing	77%	23%
Listening	77%	23%

The large number of students had difficulty at the area of listening, speaking, and reading and a few students had problem with other areas.

Table 3:

Area of difficulty

do you like to learn more on which part?	Yes	NO
Listening	67%	33%
Speaking	77%	23%
Reading	77%	23%
Writing	55%	45%
Vocab	50%	50%

Grammar	39%	61%
Spelling	50%	50%
Pronunciation	33%	67%

Learners' preferences for ways of learning were more based on using computer and internet, watching video, and reading texts than others.

Table 4:

Methods of Learning

Which method of learning do you prefer?	Yes	No
To read texts	77%	23%
To do written practice	50%	50%
To play game	72%	28%
To listen to CDs	67%	33%
To do home work	45%	55%
To use computer	88%	12%
To use internet	83%	17%
To study structural rules	45%	55%
To discuss about related topics	61%	39%
To watch video	88%	12%
Pair/ group work	76%	24%

Regarding the learning strategies, the majority of the students learn vocabulary by translating new vocabulary

Table 5:

Vocabulary Learning Strategies

How do you like to learn vocabulary?	Yes	No
To hear new vocabulary	55%	45%
To see new vocabulary	67%	33%
To translate new vocabulary	83%	17%
To spell new vocabulary	16%	84%

Discussion and Conclusion

Knowing students' needs is important and necessary in making informed decisions on the teaching methodology and materials to use (Davies, 2006) in order to achieve the best learning outcomes and persuade learners appropriately to be active participants in the EFL classroom and outside it as well. Effective language teaching and learning can only be achieved when teachers know their students' needs, abilities, potentials, and preferences in language learning. Need assessment is essential for curriculum development, course and materials design. (Nunan, 1988).

Need analysis is very crucial in EFL teaching as it helps specify, the content of the curriculum, the strategies used by students to learn English more effectively, Learners' problems or difficulties while learning English, and their motivations for learning English.

Since all student are not homogenies in a class, and some of them have back ground knowledge of English,while others students do not have enough back ground knowledge ,that is students at this level might come from different language learning backgrounds with different levels of familiarity with English, ,in order to solve this problem and creating a better educational atmosphere, remedial classes is suggested in schools.

As far as the student's competence in reading, writing, listening or speaking is concerned, we can suggest a student at the seventh grade of high school to make him /herself good at what is more related to her curriculum designs at school. Of course it depends on him/her English level as well. Our main point of concentration is on the average student of the seventh grade.We can also suggest some stages such as story books, simple English songs, famous quotations, play games, play roles, writing and editing English newspapers ,or run competitions and give the winner/s some presents or scores to let them feel the fun of English language. Give them presents, admire them, and don't blame a 13 year old student for her possible mistakes. Just give them your love and attention. The last one we mentioned is the most important factor.

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Appendix

Need Analysis Questionnaire of course book

1. What are the problems of the book?
2. What is your solution for solving these problems?
3. How do you practice four skills with students?
4. What are students' needs for these skills?
5. On which part of English, do you have more emphasis?
6. Do you use mother tongue, in teaching English? Why?
7. What do you need for better teaching to students in addition to the book?
8. What are the needs of students in learning?
9. How do you fulfill these needs?
10. How do you teach the book in the classroom?
11. What expectations do you have of your students at the end of course?

Learners' need analysis questionnaire

Why do you like to learn English?	YES	NO
I can travel to other countries		
I can understand English songs		
I can understand English films		
I can speak to foreign people		
I can pass English exams		
I can find a job when I leave school		
Favorite English language skills		
Do you like	YES	NO
Reading?		
Speaking?		
Listening?		
Writing?		
Area of difficulty		
Do you like to learn more on which part?	YES	NO
Reading?		
Speaking?		
Listening?		
Writing?		
Vocabulary?		
Grammar?		
Spelling?		
Pronunciation?		
Methods of Learning		
Which method of learning do you prefer?	YES	NO
To read texts		
To do written practice		
To play game		
To listen to CDs		

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To do home work		
To use computer		
To use internet		
To study structural rules		
To discuss about related topics		
To watch video		
Vocabulary Learning Strategies		
How do you like to learn vocabulary?	YES	NO
To hear new vocabulary		
To see new vocabulary		
To translate new vocabulary		
To spell new vocabulary		

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ON THE IMPACT OF INTERACTIVE AND NON-INTERACTIVE POWERPOINT SLIDES ON IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS' SPEAKING ABILITY

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ABSTRACT
THIS STUDY WAS DESIGNED TO INVESTIGATE THE EFFECTS OF INTERACTIVE AND NON-INTERACTIVE POWERPOINT SLIDES ON THE SPEAKING ABILITY OF IRANIAN UPPER-INTERMEDIATE EFL LEARNERS. TO THIS END, 60 FEMALE LEARNERS STUDYING IN SAADAT ENGLISH LANGUAGE INSTITUTE IN LAHIJAN, WITH THE AGE RANGE OF 18 TO 26, WERE SELECTED FROM 70 PARTICIPANTS BASED ON THEIR PERFORMANCE ON QPT. THE PURPOSE OF QPT WAS TO HOMOGENIZE THE PARTICIPANTS BASED ON THEIR PROFICIENCY LEVEL. THE PARTICIPANTS WERE RANDOMLY ASSIGNED TO EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS. EACH GROUP CONSISTED OF 30 PARTICIPANTS. A PRE-TEST WAS ADMINISTERED TO ALL THE PARTICIPANTS, AND THEN THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP RECEIVED INTERACTIVE POWERPOINT SLIDES FOR 10 SESSIONS WHILE THE CONTROL GROUP RECEIVED ITS NORMAL CLASSROOM TEACHING WITH NON-INTERACTIVE POWERPOINT SLIDES. A POST-TEST WAS THEN ADMINISTERED TO BOTH GROUPS. FINALLY, IT WAS REVEALED THAT THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP WHO RECEIVED INTERACTIVE POWERPOINT SLIDES OUTPERFORMED THE CONTROL GROUP IN SPEAKING ABILITY. THEREFORE, THE RESULTS OF THIS STUDY CONFIRMED THAT INTERACTIVE POWERPOINT SLIDES CAN SIGNIFICANTLY IMPROVE THE PARTICIPANTS' SPEAKING ABILITY. THE FINDINGS ALSO INDICATED THAT BOTH EFL TEACHERS AND LEARNERS CAN BENEFIT FROM PROFITABLE IMPLICATIONS OF THIS RESEARCH TO MAKE THEIR CLASSES INTERACTIVE AND MOTIVATING, AND PROVIDE A MEANINGFUL LEARNING FOR THE LEARNERS.

KEY WORDS: CALL, COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE, EFL LEARNERS, POWERPOINT PRESENTATION

1. Introduction

Speaking is a crucial part of second language learning and teaching. Despite its importance, for many years, teaching speaking has been undervalued and English language teachers have continued to teach speaking just as a repetition of drills or memorization of dialogues. However, today's world requires that the goal of teaching speaking should be improving students' communicative skills, because, only in that way, students can express themselves, and to achieve this goal, teachers need to encourage students to communicate in a second language.

The use of Technology has had an enormous impact on the world of education. The use of technology has many advantages for the field of education and particularly for foreign language education. Technology can build substantial interest by adding variety and bringing new experiences to the classroom. That is why technology is increasingly being promulgated as a powerful mechanism which can transform education (Deville, 2001).

Educational technology and Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) provide many benefits in EFL classrooms for teaching the Language skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing as well as vocabulary and grammar. Various CALL programs involve the use of computer and their application to teach and learn language in variety of ways. PowerPoint Presentation is also considered as a part of CALL. PowerPoint Presentation is a type of presentation software (PS) that allows users to show colored text and images with simple animation and sound. It helps to create audio, visual as well as audio-visual

effects in the classrooms while teaching and can be highly effective in attracting and sustaining students' attention.
PowerPoint Presentation has been in existence for many years, it has just begun to spread to schools and ESL classrooms and must be exploited to its fullest while teaching a foreign language like English (Fisher, 2003). In this regard, the present study attempts to provide an insight into the value of using PowerPoint Presentation to present various instructions while teaching English as a foreign language in classrooms.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Speaking

Effective use of English as a second language (ESL) or foreign language (EFL) in oral communication is, without a doubt, one of the most common, but also highly complex activities people need to learn for their interpersonal communication. For most people, learning how to speak in a second language (L2) is seen to be much more important than reading and writing (Ya-ni, 2007).
However, foreign language learners, despite spending years developing their semantic and syntactic competences, have all probably, at some point, experience the frustrating feeling of not being able to participate effectively in L2 oral communication. According to Ur (1996), there are many factors that cause difficulty in speaking, and they are as follows:
1. Inhibition. Students are worried about making mistakes, fearful of criticism, or simply shy.
2. Nothing to say. Students have no motive to express themselves.
3. Low or uneven participation. Only one participant can talk at a time because of large classes and the tendency of some learners to dominate, while others speak very little or not at all.
4. Mother-tongue use. Learners who share the same mother tongue tend to use it because it is easier and because learners feel less exposed if they are speaking their mother tongue.
In addition, Rababa'h (2005) pointed out that there are many factors that cause difficulties in speaking English among EFL learners. Some of these factors are related to the learners themselves, the teaching strategies, the curriculum, and the environment. For example, many learners lack the necessary vocabulary to get their meaning across, and consequently, they cannot keep the interaction going. Inadequate strategic competence and communication competence can be another reason as well for not being able to keep the interaction going.
Some learners also lack the motivation to speak English. They do not see a real need to learn or speak English. Actually —motivation is the crucial force which determines whether a learner embarks in a task at all, how much energy he devotes to it, and how long he preservers (Littlewood, 1984, p. 53). The development of communicative skills can only take place if learners have the motivation and opportunity to express their own identity and relate with the people around them (Littlewood, 1981).

2.2. Technology-enhanced language teaching

The incorporation of technology into school-wide teaching pedagogy means that students will also develop digital literacy skills at the same time as acquiring a second language. It can be argued that because 'the ever expanding connectivity of digital technology is recasting social arrangements and relations in a more open, democratic and ultimately empowering manner' (Selwyn, 2013, p. 2), so 'teaching our students language in its traditional media is no longer enough' and 'increasingly, in everyday and professional life, people need the skills of electronic literacy.' (Healey, 2011, p. 9).

There are many definitions of digital literacy. Literature widely accepted Mike Levy's definition of Computer-Assisted Language Learning as "the search for and study of applications of the computer in language teaching and learning" (1997, p. 1). In his 2003 book, Teaching and Researching: Computer-assisted Language Learning, Tom Beatty defined CALL as "any process in which a learner uses a computer and, as a result, improves his or her language" (as cited in Hubbard, 2009, p. 1).
Stephen Bax (2003) identified the end goal of CALL as 'normalisation,' the "concept relative to any kind of technological innovation and refers to the stage when the technology becomes invisible, embedded in everyday practice and hence 'normalised'" (p. 23). He further suggested that as of 2003, CALL had not achieved this goal, but would when computers … are used every day by language students and teachers

as an integral part of every lesson, like a pen or a book. Teachers and students will use them without fear or inhibition, and equally without an exaggerated respect for what they can do. They will not be the centre of any lesson, but they will play a part in almost all. They will be completely integrated into all other aspects of classroom life, alongside course books, teachers and notepads.
As CALL has evolved, there have been numerous studies to explain possible reasons for obstacles facing the normalization of computers in language education, including issues involving the teacher (Maftoon & Shahini, 2012). Through a qualitative and part ethnographic study at two sites in England, Andrea Chambers and Stephen Bax (2006, pp. 477-478) found four issues to be addressed if CALL was to be normalized:

1. Logistics (facilities incorporated with teaching space, classroom setup to facilitate easy transition between CALL and non-CALL activities, and teachers having enough planning and time to integrate computer use into their daily repertoire).
2. Stakeholders' (teachers and administrators) conceptions, knowledge and abilities (need to feel confident, realization that computer use is conductive to learning, and avoidance of 'technical fallacy' – the notion that hardware or software is the single factor of success or failure).
3. Syllabus and software integration (proper amalgamation of CALL into the syllabus, with sufficient teacher support and use of open source CALL materials to adapt them to better align with the syllabus).
4. Training, development and support (should be offered through a top-down – expert-novice collaborative approach, reliable support and encouragement to address and overcome fears and lack of skills, and pedagogical support).

2.3. Interactive PowerPoint slides

PowerPoint Presentation is one of the multimedia technologies. One of the most important uses of this technology is that it makes it easy for instructors to incorporate various multimedia into their teaching and instructions. It is a Presentation Software (PS) which is easy to use and easily available. It offers a complete presentation graphics package. It gives you everything you need to produce a professional-looking presentation. Presentation software (PS) is a computer application that makes it possible to combine text, graphics, images, and sound to create sophisticated multimedia presentations (Gordon, 2007, P. 192). Many teachers today, from elementary school to college and university level, are enthusiastically embracing PowerPoint Presentation as an instructional tool. It is argued that PowerPoint Presentation "enhances instruction and motivates students to learn" (Harrison, 1998, P. 9). Many believe that using PowerPoint Presentations with students is a productive learning activity (Alster, 2002; Mason & Hylnka, 1998). Yet many detractors believe that its rigid format stifles not only students' creativity, but also their ability to understand and convey information (Tufte, 2003; Keller, 2003). Wright (2009) also suggests that PowerPoint is a convenient prop for poor speakers. It can reduce complicated messages to simple bullet points. It also elevates style over substance. All these three things definitely contribute to its popularity and should therefore be exercised and practiced.

Researches exploring the effect of preparing PowerPoint presentations by students seem to be very limited. Gunel (2006) compared the effectiveness of writing summary report and preparing PowerPoint presentation on students achievements on two units in physics lesson .The results indicated that students preparing the PowerPoint presentation scored significantly better on achievement test than the summary report format group .In another study, Gunel (2006) investigated the students' ability to choose the material and the content of PowerPoint presentations on professional topics via the internet as well as the ability to prepare and deliver the presentation in front of the audience . As the result, it was reported that preparing and delivering PowerPoint presentation improved students listening, speaking, reading and writing skills.
Other studies have shown that color is a factor in memory representation .For example, Hanna and Remington (1996) found that color, as a stimulus, is a part of memory representation. Allen (1990) submitted that colors are encoded as a verbal representation as well as in the perceptual mode in the form of a visual image. Proponents of power point presentations believe they improve learning through

enhanced attention (Luna & McKenzie, 1997) improved recall through multimodal benefits, a matching of technologically learning styles with the latest technology. Catherina (2006) indicates that students think PowerPoint based lectures are more interesting than traditional lectures. Miltenoff (2003) indicates that PowerPoint can be used as a multimedia and interactive tool. Pictures, animation, sound effects, and music can greatly enhance the quality of the presentation. It is much easier to use attractive fonts, photos, clipart, tables, and graphs in PowerPoint. According to Coulthard and Hutchinson (1996), ―On the one hand, PowerPoint presentations are more effective and they can take less time and effort to create. On the other hand, teachers can improve the quality of PowerPoint presentations while dramatically reducing their production time and budgets.

2.4. Objective of the Study

This study aimed at examining the effects of PowerPoint presentations which contain various graphic, visual and audio-visual features on students' attention and their speaking skill in EFL classes, and how this technology makes it possible for instructors to incorporate various multimedia into their teaching and instructions.

The use of PowerPoint for teaching presentations has considerable potential for encouraging more professional presentations. Some studies can be found in literature which aimed to probe into the role of PowerPoint slides in ESL/EFL learners' proficiency around the world, such as impacts of PowerPoint presentations on EFL academic writing, the effect of Power Point on reading comprehension improvement, etc., but no comparative study has yet been conducted to find out the effect of interactive vs. non-interactive PowerPoint slides on different skills and components of language.

So, this study aspired to find answer to the following research question:

RQ: Is there any statistically significant difference between the effects of interactive and non-interactive PowerPoint slides on Iranian EFL learners' speaking proficiency?

3. Method

3.1. Participants

In order to fulfill the objectives of this study, 60 female upper-intermediate EFL learners who are enrolled at Saadat Language Institute in Lahijan, participated in this study. Their age range was between 18 and 26. All participants' mother tongue was Persian. Four intact classes were randomly selected and the number of students was between 16 and 18 in each class. Two intact classes were randomly assigned as experimental group and another two were randomly assigned as control group. To keep the homogeneity of the participants, QPT was run. Among those participants who passed the exam the ones who obtained a score within the range of 31-40 were selected for the study. The rest of the students were in the classrooms but their scores were excluded in the data analysis phase. The first group (i.e. the experimental group including 30 participants) received a 10-session treatment in which they encountered interactive PowerPoint slides to engage them for an effective conversation. The second group (i.e. the control group including 30 participants) received a 10-session placebo in which the participants encountered non-interactive PowerPoint slides.

3.2. Materials and Instruments

To answer the research question and to test the hypothesis of this study, the following instruments and materials were used:

1- **Quick Placement Test (QPT)**: QPT sheds light on the learners' language level. They provide the instructors with a reliable and efficient means of placing the learners at the start of a course. This means that usually before taking part in one of the English courses, EFL learners take QPT which helps the teachers to identify their proficiency level.

At the early stage of the study, learners were called to take QPT. From all the learners who participated, 60 who got a score within the range of 31-40 were recognized as being at the upper-intermediate level and were selected as the participants of this study. QPT was a test of 40 items including grammatical structures and vocabulary knowledge. The participants were allowed 30 minutes to complete it. Quick

Placement Test measures a test taker's ability to communicate in English. The questions of the test were taken from 'Oxford University Press and University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate'.

2- **Pretest**: The purpose of this test administered before the treatment was to find the possible initial differences between the English speaking ability of the experimental and control groups. The speaking section of Preliminary English Test (PET) including four parts was used as the pre-test of this study. There were two raters (i.e. the researcher herself and an expert teacher), but each participant interacted with one of them. The rater asked the participant questions in turn, using standardized questions. The questions included giving information of a factual and personal kind. The participants responded to questions about present circumstances, past experiences, and further plans. In the second task, the candidates interacted with each other. Visual stimulus was given to candidates to aid the discussion task.

3- **Posttest**: This test which was administered after the treatment sessions was equal in all respects to pre-test except for the arrangement of the four speaking parts. This rearrangement was done to control for the probable testing effect. The participants were again required to participate in the four parts of the speaking section of PET. The questions were responded by the participants and rated by the same raters of the pre-test phase. Inter-rater reliability was calculated, and the average of the scores given by the two raters was considered as the final score of each participant.

3.3. Procedures for Data Collection and Analysis

This study was conducted in August and September 2015. Four intact classes including 16 to 18 students at Saadat English Languag Institute were randomly assigned as the experimental and control groups. To make sure of their homogeneity, all participants sat for QPT. Among these participants who passed the exam the ones who obtained a score within the range of 31-40 were selected for the study. Therefore, 60 participants remained and the scores of other students were excluded from the data analysis in the remaining phases of this study (i.e. pre-test and post-test). A pre-test piloted before with a reliability index of 0.79 was then administered. It required the participants to respond to questions of four speaking parts of Preliminary English Test. Two raters (i.e. the researcher herself and an expert teacher) rated the answers. To make sure of the consistency of the scores, inter-rater reliability was calculated. The score of each participant then was the average of the scores given by the two raters. Then, the experimental group received a 10-session treatment through which the participants in this group encountered interactive PowerPoint slides in their speaking classes. Meanwhile, the participants in the control group received a 10-session placebo in which the participants encountered non-interactive PowerPoint slides in their classes. At the end of these 10 sessions, a post-test of speaking was administered. It was equal in all respects to pre-test except for the arrangement of the four speaking parts. This rearrangement was done to control for the probable testing effect. The participants were again required to respond to the questions of the four speaking parts of Preliminary English Test. The responses were rated by the same raters of pre-test phase. Inter-rater reliability was calculated again, and the average of the scores given by the two raters was considered as the final score of each participant. An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the means of the experimental group and control group on the post-test with the alpha set at 0.5. It should be mentioned that an independent samples t-test for the pre-test scores and two paired-samples t-tests were also used in this study. The next chapter includes the descriptive and inferential statistics results of the current study by using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS).

4. Results

To select a homogenous sample, a total number of 70 EFL learners were selected among them 60 students who scored within the range of 31- 40 in QPT were selected for the main study and were divided into two groups (one control and one experimental). The rest 10 students were in the class but their scores were excluded in the data analysis phase. Descriptive statistics of QPT that was employed for sampling is presented in the following table.

Table 1.

Statistics for QPT scores

N	Valid	70
	Missing	0
Mean		34.70
Std. Error of Mean		.265
Median		35.00
Mode		32
Std. Deviation		2.216
Variance		4.909
Skewness		.326
Std. Error of Skewness		.287
Kurtosis		-.543
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.566
Range		9
Minimum		31
Maximum		40
Sum		2429

As it can be seen in table 1, Measures of central tendency (mean, median, and mode) and measures of dispersion (range, variance, standard deviation) along with measures of distribution (Skewness and Kurtosis) were presented for QPT. 60 students out of 70 who passed the exam and obtained a score within the range of 31-40 were selected as the main sample for the present study. Based on Quick Placement Test direction, scores within the range of 0-15 are considered Beginners, 16-23 (Elementary), 24-30 (Lower intermediate), and 31-40 (Upper intermediate). To determine whether there was any statistically significant difference between the scores of the two groups in pretest, an independent samples t-test was run. The results are presented in tables 2 and 3.

Table 2.
Group statistics for the pre-test

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Experimental	30	14.90	2.057	.376
Control	30	14.60	2.268	.414

Table 3.
Independent samples t-test on pre-test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Pre-test	Equal variances assumed	.401	.529	.537	58	.594	.300	.559	-.819	1.419

	Equal variances not assumed			.537	57.454	.594	.300	.559	-.819	1.419

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the speaking skill scores for experimental and control groups. Table 2 and 3 indicate that there was no significant difference in mean scores for experimental group (M = 14.90, SD = 2.057) and control group (M =14.60, SD = 2.268; t (58) = .537 ρ = .594 two-tailed). The magnitude of the differences in the means (mean difference = .300, 95% CI: -.81 to 1.41) was very small (eta squared = 0.004).
To determine whether there was any statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the two groups in posttest, another independent samples t-test was run. The results are presented in tables 4 and 5.

Table 4.
Group statistics for the pre-test

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Experimental	30	15.73	1.964	.359
Control	30	14.43	2569	.469

Table 5.
Independent samples t-test on post-test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Post-test scores	Equal variances assumed	2.916	.093	2.202	58	.032	1.300	.590	.118	2.482
	Equal variances not assumed			2.202	54.270	.032	1.300	.590	.117	2.482

Table 4 and 5 indicate that there was a significant difference in mean scores for experimental group (M = 15.73, SD = 1.964) and control group (M =14.43, SD = 2.569; t (58) = 2.202 ρ = .032 two-tailed). The magnitude of the differences in the means (mean difference = 1.300, 95% CI: .118 to 2.482) was moderate (eta squared = 0.07).
In order to investigate students' progress within groups from pretest to posttest two paired-samples t-tests were also run. The results are shown in tables 6 and 7.

Table 6.
Paired samples statistics for the speaking test

Groups			Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Control group	Pair 1	Total pre	14.60	30	2.268	.414
		Total post	14.43	30	2.569	.469
Experimental group	Pair 1	Total pre	14.90	30	2.057	.376
		Total post	15.50	30	1.996	.364

The mean score of the control group for the speaking test decreased from (M= 14.60) in pre- test to (M=14.43) in post- test, while that of the experimental group increased from (M= 14.90) in pre- test to (M=15.50) in post- test.

Table 7.
Paired samples t-test for the speaking test

Groups			Paired Differences					T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
			Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
						Lower	Upper			
Control group		pretest – posttest	.167	1.724	.315	-.477	.810	.530	29	.600
Experime--ntal group		pretest – posttest	-.600	.894	.163	-.934	-.266	-3.674	29	.001

As depicted in tables 6, and 7, only experimental group had a progress in the speaking posttest. Based on the results of paired samples t-tests, this mean difference was statistically significant simply for the experimental group but not for the control group (P<.05, and P>.05 for experimental and control group respectively). The eta squared statistic (.05) indicated a moderate effect size.

5. Discussion

This study was set out with the aim of assessing the importance of interactive and non-interactive PowerPoint slides in teaching of English language speaking to Iranian EFL learners. At first, one research question was proposed asking whether interactive PowerPoint slides have any significant effects upon EFL learners' speaking ability. Furthermore, on the basis of this research question, a null hypothesis was also proposed assuming that "interactive PowerPoint slides do not lead to a better speaking ability than non-interactive PowerPoint slides among Iranian EFL learners."

As it was mentioned in chapter four, based on the results of independent-samples t-tests, there were no significant differences in speaking ability between the groups at pretest, while there were significant differences among them at the speaking skill posttest. Therefore, the differences may be attributed to the presentation and non-presentation of interactive PowerPoint slides to the participants. The obtained mean score by each of the two groups on the speaking skill posttest indicated that the experimental group obtained a higher mean than the control group (15.50 versus 14.43), which turned out to be significant. Therefore, the findings of this study revealed that there was a statistically significant difference between experimental group working with interactive PowerPoint slides and control group dealing with non-interactive PowerPoint slides. On the other hand, based on the findings of this study, the hypothesis of this study was rejected. The use of PowerPoint slides had significant impact on Iranian EFL learners' speaking skill.

Regarding the effect of PowerPoint slides use on the English speaking ability of the EFL learners, the results of data analyses revealed that PowerPoint slides use had significant effects on EFL learners' English speaking ability. The findings showed that the use of PowerPoint slides enhanced English speaking ability of experimental group. Also, the findings revealed a significant difference between the groups in the posttest.

This study produced results which corroborate the findings of the previous work in this field. These findings are in agreement with Luna and Mckenzie's (1997) findings which showed PowerPoint presentations improve learning through enhanced attention. These findings also accord with Catherina's (2006) findings, which indicated that students think PowerPoint based lectures are more interesting than traditional lectures.

The results of the present study are in line with Nouri & Shahid (2005) too. Nouri and Shahid (2005) reported that students receiving PowerPoint presentation (with graphics, color, and animation) outperformed the traditional group receiving only a text-based, black-and-white presentation, because students in such a class have more opportunities to make referential connections between imagery and verbal representation than in traditional presentation.

Providing novel, attractive, and simplified tools for grasping and understanding certain difficult and complicated topics and motivating students to speak on them helps them improve their speaking performance and have a meaningful learning. Teachers need to attract and sustain the attention of the learners if they want to have more effective and efficient classrooms. Therefore, PowerPoint presentation helps in making EFL classrooms highly interactive by using of various graphic, visual and audio-visual features. This is consistent with the results of other studies such as Elen & Willems, (2004), Miltenoff, (2003), Reynolds & Baker, (1987), Rose (2001).

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MJLTM

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MOTIVATIONAL GOAL ORIENTATIONS AND LANGUAGE LEARNING ANXIETY BASED ON MAEHR'S PERSONAL INVESTMENT MODEL

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ABSTRACT
THIS STUDY AIMED AT EXAMINING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MOTIVATIONAL GOAL ORIENTATIONS AND FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING ANXIETY OF IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS. FOR THIS PURPOSE, TWO QUESTIONNAIRES WERE ADMINISTERED TO THE STUDENTS, NAMELY, THE INVENTORY OF SCHOOL MOTIVATION AND FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASSROOM ANXIETY SCALE. IN TOTAL, 305 STUDENTS OF JAHROM, KAZERUN, AND SHIRAZ UNIVERSITIES PARTICIPATED IN THIS STUDY, 74 MALE STUDENTS AND 231 FEMALE STUDENTS RANGING FROM 18 TO 30 YEARS OF AGE. IN ORDER TO ANSWER THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS, PEARSON PRODUCT-MOMENT CORRELATION WAS USED. THE DATA WERE ANALYZED USING STATISTICAL PACKAGE FOR SOCIAL SCIENCES VERSION 19. THE RESULT OF THE STUDY INDICATED THAT THERE WAS A WEAK POSITIVE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MOTIVATIONAL GOAL ORIENTATIONS AND FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING ANXIETY. THE IMPLICATIONS ARE DISCUSSED AT THE END OF THE STUDY.

KEYWORDS: LANGUAGE LEARNING ANXIETY, MOTIVATIONAL GOAL ORIENTATIONS, MAEHR'S PERSONAL INVESTMENT MODEL

1. Introduction

Second language (L2) refers to a language an individual learns that is not his/her mother tongue, but is of use in the area of the individual. It is not the same as a foreign language, which is a language learned that is not generally spoken in the individual's area. In research on motivation, it is considered to be an internal process that gives behavior energy, direction and persistence in research (in other words, it gives behavior strength, purpose, and sustainability) (Reeve, 2013). Learning a new language takes time and dedication. Once you do, being fluent in a second language offers numerous benefits and opportunities. Learning a second language is exciting and beneficial at all ages. It offers practical, intellectual and many aspirational benefits. In learning a language, there can be one or more goals – such as mastery of the language or communicative competence – that vary person to person. There are a number of language learner motivation models that were developed and postulated in fields such as linguistics and sociolinguistics, with relations to second-language acquisition in a classroom setting. The different perspectives on L2 motivation can be divided into three distinct phases: the social psychological period, the cognitive-situated period and the process-oriented period (Dörnyei, 2005).

Since foreign language learning is a stressful activity (Hewitt & Stefenson, 2011), many researchers have investigated the role of anxiety in learning a foreign language (e.g., Phillips, 1992). Foreign language anxiety has been defined as negative emotional reaction that is caused when using or learning a foreign or a second language (MacIntyre, 1999). Several studies have been carried out on language anxiety. Although few of them have revealed that there is a positive relationship between language anxiety and language achievement (e.g., Liu, 2006; Oxford, 1999), most of them have shown that language anxiety and

language achievement are negatively related (e.g. Horwitz, 2001, MacIntyre, 1999, MacIntyre, Noels, Clement, 1997). Put it another way, learners who are more proficient in a foreign language, experience less anxiety in learning it in comparison with other learners who are not that proficient. Foreign language learning anxiety is a great barrier to foreign language achievement (Young, 1991), so the low achievement of learners can be attributed to negative effects of anxiety (Horwitz, 2000, 2001; MacIntyre, 1999, 2002; Tóth, 2007).

Considering the pivotal role of motivational goals in learning foreign languages and their relationships with effective behavioral and affective variables in learning English, this study investigates the relationship between achievement goal orientations and foreign language learning anxiety in an Iranian EFL setting.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Anxiety in Second Language Acquisition

In second language research, anxiety is considered as an affective variable (Dörnyei, 2005; Horwitz et al, 1986). Anxiety is composed of some parts which have different features (Dörnyei , 2005). According to Dörnyei (2005), there are different categorizations for anxiety. Two of the most popular classifications of anxiety are debilitating-facilitating (Scovel, 1978) and state-trait (Speilberger, 1983) views of anxiety. In the former dichotomy, the facilitating or beneficial anxiety does not hinder performance but it can facilitate it whereas debilitating anxiety can deter performance when an individual is under excessive worry. In the latter classification, trait anxiety is rather stable with the passage of time, whereas state anxiety is a transitory and changing feeling (Dörnyei, 2005).

Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) identified three types of foreign language anxiety: test anxiety, communication apprehension, and fear of negative evaluation. In order to measure foreign language classroom anxiety, they developed a 33-item questionnaire. Several studies have been done on language anxiety most of which have shown a negative relationship between language learning anxiety and language achievement (e.g., Horwitz, 2001; MacIntyre, 1999;; MacIntyre, Noels, Clement, 1997) and only a few of them have shown that language achievement is positively related to language learning anxiety (e.g., Liu, 2006a; Oxford, 1999). Put it another way, the more proficient the learners, the less anxious they become.

According to Dornyei (2005), trait anxiety is related to an individual's anxiety in different situations. He maintains that this is because of the disposition of the individual. MacIntyre (1999) believes that situation-specific anxiety is similar to trait anxiety for both of them refer to the possibility of being anxious in a specific situation. For example, language learners might have situation-specific anxiety when a teacher calls them to speak English in the classroom. Another kind of anxiety is state anxiety which is the emotional reaction to the present situation and is considered as a moment-to-moment experience (MacIntyre, 1999; Dornyei, 2005). MacIntyre (1999) differentiates situation-specific anxiety and trait anxiety from state anxiety. Situation-specific anxiety and trait anxiety refer to the possibility of getting anxious in a specific situation, while state anxiety refers to the way an individual experiences anxiety. MacIntryre (1999) suggests that state anxiety has impacts on cognition, emotions, and behavior. An example for state anxiety can be a person who tries to abandon a situation and the bodily effects including a rapid heartbeat and a seating palm. This might result when making a speech in front of a large number of people. Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) maintained that language anxiety is an identifiable variable in foreign language learning. Krashen (1981) discussed the influence of affective filter in second language acquisition with regard to input. He suggested that when the affective filter is high, an individual is less likely to process the input. The affective filter involves emotional reactions like language anxiety.

Many studies have been done investigating the relationship between anxiety and language learning indicating that anxiety can have an adverse effect on the performance of those who speak English as a foreign language (e.g., Chen & Lee, 2011, Stroud & Wee, 2006). Some studies related to the scope of the present study are reported here. In a study by Liu (2006b), it was revealed that students who had advanced English language proficiency had less anxiety. In a recent study, Chakrabarti and Sengupta (2012) studied the language learning anxiety of Indian students. They found that the students' test anxiety was high among other components of anxiety.

Rezazadeh and Tavakoli (2009) conducted a study in Iran investigating the relationship among academic achievement, gender, years of study, and levels of test anxiety. One hundred and ten Iranian EFL students participated in that study. The findings showed that the female students had a higher level of anxiety. And there was no relationship between years of study and test anxiety. In another study by Sadighi, Sahragard and Jafari (2009) on eighty Iranian EFL learners, it was found that there was no statistically significant relationship between years of study and the level of anxiety. In a recent study by Mesri (2012a), it was shown that there was a statistically significant relationship between gender and Foreign Language Class Anxiety (FLCA). According to these studies, language learning anxiety of EFL learners was on a high range. However, since the number of participants in the Iranian context is low (n=52), more research on this issue should be done.

2.2 The interface between motivation and language learning anxiety

Every language learner makes use of a combination of affective and cognitive factors which affect the process of second language learning. Among the affective factors are motivation and anxiety. Krashen's affective filter hypothesis states that when there is lack of motivation, anxiety is high and self-esteem is low, the filter is up and the input does not become intake (Krashen, 1981). He established a connection between anxiety and motivation. Gardner et al. (1992) claim that anxiety and motivation are two separate dimensions which have overlapping behavioral consequences meaning that although they are correlated, they are still distinguishable. However, the causal sequence cannot be established and it differs from person to person. It is quite possible that a motivated learner might experience low or no anxiety and an unmotivated learner might be very anxious. Researchers who work in the field of affective variables believe that anxiety and motivation can predict language proficiency. MacIntyre and Gardner (1991) maintain that language aptitude and motivation are the two most dominant factors at the earliest stage of language learning and anxiety plays a small role in proficiency but at the later stages of language learning, anxiety plays a significant role in determining learners' success. They believe that language learning anxiety of learners who have negative experiences might affect their performance.

Khodadady and Khajavi (2013) examined the relationship between language learning anxiety and motivation of Iranian EFL learners and found that amotivation and less self-determined types of external motivation are positively related to language anxiety. Also, intrinsic motivation and identified regulation were negatively related to language anxiety.

In another study, Zarei (2014) investigated the effect of reading anxiety and motivation on EFL learners' choice of reading strategies and found that there was a significant low positive relationship between reading anxiety and motivation.

Gomari and Lucas (2013) examined the relationship between students' language learning anxiety and their motivation and found a significant and negative correlation between language learning motivation and anxiety among Iranian EFL learners in the Philippines.

2.3 Motivation in Second Language Acquisition (SLA)

Comprehensive studies on second language acquisition theory and research (e.g., Ellis, 2004; Gass & Selinker, 1994; Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991; Spolsky, 1989) list several factors which explain success in learning foreign languages. These factors include the age of exposure to foreign languages, cognitive or learning style, language aptitude, personality, learning strategies, the environment of learning, as well as motivational and attitudinal factors.

As Bley -Vroman (1989) mentioned in the Fundamental Differences Hypothesis, adult second and foreign language learners not only consciously study linguistic features like pronunciation and grammar, but they also think about non -linguistic matters such as their goals, anxiety, learning beliefs, and strategies to learn the language effectively. Among these non-linguistic factors, motivation has been considered as the most important factor in learning a second language successfully which can influence other factors as well (McInerney & McInerney, 2000). On the other hand, the issue of achievement goals has attracted many motivation researchers' attention too (Uebuchi, 1995).

2.4 Achievement Goal Theory

Achievement goal theory states that learners bring different types of goals like performance goals and mastery goals into the classrooms (Elliot, 2005). Students who follow a mastery goal tend to develop academic competence, while learners who seek a performance goal would like to show their competence

relative to others. The modified versions of this theory have included the approach-avoidance dimensions (see Elliot, 2005) which led to four kinds of achievement goals: performance approach, mastery approach, avoidance, and performance avoidance.

Although the standards of success might be different, mastery and performance goals focus on the attainment of personal competence. The emphasis on personal competence can be seen in items which are used to utilize these two goals. Learners are asked whether the reason why they would like to study is because the material is interesting to them (mastery approach) or because they want to show that they outperform other students (performance approach) (Dowson & McInerney, 2004). It is agreed upon that the goals of mastery approach are adaptive which lead to deep learning strategies, investment of more effort in school, and motivational engagement (e.g.,Wolters, 2004). A recent study has shown that mastery goals are associated with outcomes of beneficial learning across different cultures (Hulleman et al. 2010).

2.5 The role of social goals in school

Studies on achievement goal have provided a vast body of knowledge on how performance and mastery goals influence achievement-related behaviors (Elliot, 2005), but the limitation of achievement goal framework is that it focuses on performance goals and competence-related mastery and ignores other kinds of goals like social goals which can motivate students (King, 2012). Dowson and McInerney (2001) maintain that students' goal orientations are not peripheral to academic performance and achievement; on the contrary, these goal orientations might impact students' psychological processes directly when they try to gain academic achievement.

In the present study, Maehr's Personal Investment Model (PIM) was used as the theoretical framework which assumes a multidimensional conceptualization entailing social goals as well as performance and mastery goals (Maehr & McInerney, 2004). Personal Investment Model will be explained below.

2.6 Maehr's Personal Investment Model

Maehr's Personal Investment Model is a comprehensive model of motivation. It states that students' behaviors are the result of what they perceive of their context, their academic tasks, the events that happen around them, and many other factors. The personal meaning that an individual makes of the context comes from their goals, their sense of self, and what they perceive as action possibilities. In order to depict the present context of study, the components of the model are expanded on. Four contributing factors, namely, the Sociocultural Context, the Teaching-Learning Situation, Personal Experiences, and Information affect these three concepts which determine Personal Investment. Personal incentives refer to four kinds of achievement goals: social solidarity, ego goals, extrinsic rewards, and task goals. Sense of Self is comprised of: Sense of Purpose, Sense of Competence, and Self-Esteem. This model is used as the theoretical framework for this study in order to identify the variables that were most successful at predicting academic success of Iranian EFL university students.

This model examines a wide range of goals across different cultural settings. It offers a more generative framework for investigating the influence of different kinds of goals including social and achievement goals on learning outcomes. It is a cross-culturally relevant theory of achievement motivation presenting a multidimensional model of motivational goals in learning contexts. It is in contrast to achievement goal theory in that achievement goal theory has been criticized for having a narrow and restricted conception of goals since it mainly focuses on performance and mastery goals. Personal investment theory provides distinct advantages in comparison with other theories of achievement motivation, and it has minimized the role of culture in achievement motivation (McInerney & Liem, 2009). Since its conception, personal investment theory has been devised to be culture-sensitive by including several goals which are important to students from different cultures (McInerney & Liem, 2009). This theory characterizes three categories of motivational goals as significant for understanding achievement-related behaviors: performance goal, social goal, and mastery goal (Watkins et al. 2002).

Goal theory had some major shortcomings. Firstly, it assumes a bipolar continuum which has mastery goal at one end and performance goal at the other end whereas research studies suggest that these goals are not incompatible and an individual might have both goals simultaneously (Maehr, 1984). The second limitation of goal theory was that little attention was paid to the group oriented goals and it mainly had an individualistic flavor rather than a collectivist essence. Maehr's Personal investment model is an

extension of goal theory aiming at focusing on the limitations mentioned above. This model assumes that motivated behavior is determined by three goal variables: beliefs about self, perceived goals of behavior, and action possibilities.

The first component of the model is beliefs about self or sense-of-self. It refers to perceptions, beliefs, and feelings of an individual. It comprises several components such as sense of purpose, sense of autonomy, and sense of competence each of which plays a role in the motivational orientation of individuals and interacts with the motivational goals. The second component of the model as described by Maehr is perceived goals of behavior which refers to what an individual considers as failure or success in a specific situation. Maehr suggested four universal goal systems: social solidarity, task, ego, and extrinsic rewards. It is assumed that each of these goal structures plays a role in the motivational orientation of an individual. The third component of the model is action possibilities which refers to behaviors that a person considers appropriate in a specific situation.

Based on Maehr's personal investment model, McInerney and his colleagues (Mclnerney, Yeung, & McInerney, 2000, 2001) devised a hierarchical and multidimensional model of goal orientations which reflects a wide range of goals. There exist eight goals in this model: competition, social concern, task, praise, effort, social status, affiliation, and extrinsic rewards which can also be classified into four more general goals: performance, mastery, social, and extrinsic goals at the pinnacle of which is general motivation. Therefore, an instrument called the Inventory of School Motivation (ISM) was developed to assess the constructs of this model (Mclnerney, Roche, McInerney, & Marsh, 1997). This instrument has been used in various studies which have examined the motivational factors in academic achievement in different cultures (Mclnerney et al., 1997). Table 2.1 provides information on the three types of achievement goals of the Personal Investment Model.

2.7 The Inventory of School Motivation

The Inventory of School Motivation (ISM) was devised by McInerney and Sinclair (1991) in order to measure motivational goal orientations. The ISM was formulated to describe motivational characteristics of individuals and groups to investigate the discrepancies and similarities among groups, explain outcome variables, and predict future behavioral outcomes in terms of individual and group characteristics. It measures the central aspects of Personal Investment in an educational environment. The ISM is not a standardized inventory but an exploratory one which can be adapted to a particular cultural context (McInerney & Sinclair, 1991). This study attempts to answer the following research question:

What is the relationship between motivational goal orientations and foreign language learning anxiety?

3. Method

3.1 Participants

In order to collect the required data, three Iranian universities were selected using cluster sampling. The universities included Shiraz, Jahrom, and Salman Farsi Universities in Shiraz, Jahrom and Kazerun, respectively. The participants were female and male students of English language. In total, 305 students participated in this study, 74 male students and 231 female students ranging from 18 to 30 years of age. All of them were native speakers of Persian studying English as a foreign language at university.

3.2 Instruments

Two questionnaires were used in this study namely, the Inventory of School Motivation (ISM) and Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL). The items were scored on a 5-point Likert scale from Strongly Disagree (1) to Strongly Agree (5). Each questionnaire will be discussed below.

3.2.1 Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS)

The first instrument used in this study was Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) designed by Horwitz et al. (1986) consisting of 33 items on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from strongly agree (1) to strongly disagree (5). It aimed at examining students' anxiety pertaining to foreign language learning in classroom contexts. One of the reasons for using this scale was that it has been one of the most comprehensive and valid instruments for measuring students' anxiety in classroom contexts. Another reason was that it showed favorable reliability coefficients with the samples of population to which it had been administered (Horwitz, 1991). Nowadays, it is a frequently used scale which is often shortened or adapted in studies which are concerned with similar purposes. This scale is a self-report measure which

assesses the level of anxiety, as indicated by social comparisons and negative performance expectancies, psycho-physiological symptoms and avoidance behaviors.

Nakayama (2005) reported the Cronbach's alpha of this questionnaire as follows: Future Use Anxiety (a= .929) and In Class Anxiety (a= .770). The reliability coefficient of the FLCAS in this study was .918.

3.2.2 Inventory of School Motivation

The second questionnaire was the Inventory of School Motivation (ISM) developed by Ali and McInerney (2004). The ISM was devised in order to measure motivational goal orientations of students. It was designed to describe the motivational characteristics of individuals and groups to investigate the discrepancies and similarities between groups, explain outcome variables like performance, and predict future behavioral outcomes (McInerney & Sinclair, 1991). McInerney and his colleagues (McInerney, Marsh and Yeung (2003) proposed a hierarchical and multidimensional model of goal orientations based on Maehr's Personal Investment Model (PIM). The questionnaire consisted of 43 items and had four dimensions each of which had two subscales which are as follows:

Mastery: Task, Effort, Performance: Competition, Power, Social Affiliation: Social Concern, Recognition, External Goals: Token/ Rewards.

They are grouped into three more general goals which are social goals, mastery goals, and performance goals. General motivation is on the top of the hierarchy. According to Azadikhah (2012), the internal consistency of the questionnaire was 0.93; the Cronbach's alpha for Task was 0.70, Effort 0.72, Competition 0.82, Social Power 0.85 Social Affiliation 0.79, Social Concern 0.78, and Token/Rewards 0.87. In this study, the reliability coefficient of the ISM was calculated by coefficient alpha to be .918.

3.3 Data Collection and Analysis Procedures

First, the students were informed about the objectives of the study. Then, they were given the instructions regarding how to answer the items of the questionnaires. They were also assured about the confidentiality of the information that they were supposed to provide.

Having received the questionnaires from the students, the researcher scored, and entered the data into a spread sheet in the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 19. Then, descriptive statistics were computed and reported. The data underwent some descriptive statistics such as frequencies, mean, and standard deviation together with correlational analyses. Then, further inferential analyses were performed to find answers to the research questions.

To investigate the relationship between motivational goal orientations and language learning anxiety, Pearson Product-Moment correlation was run.

4. Results

a. The relationship between motivational goal orientations and language learning anxiety

Table 1. Results of Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient for Motivational Orientations and Scores on FLCAS

		School motivation	Language Learning Anxiety	Language Learning Belief	Language Learning Strategies
School Motivation	Pearson Correlation	1	.199**	.381**	-.054
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.351
	N	305	305	305	305
Language Learning Anxiety	Pearson Correlation	.199**	1	.474**	.266**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000
	N	305	305	305	305

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

According to Table 1, there was a weak positive relationship between goal orientations and language learning anxiety [r = 0.199, n = 305, p<.01]. This finding is in contrast to that of Khodadady and Khajavi (2013), Zarei (2014), and Gomari and Lucas (2013). However, this finding is in line with that of Shinge (2005) who found no relationship between motivation and language learning anxiety.

5. Conclusion

Thus far, an overall picture of the study has been presented. Now, it is time to recapitulate briefly on the research questions and the findings derived from the data. With respect to the relationship between goal orientations and language learning anxiety, there was a weak positive relationship between them. Although, the relationship between them was positive, the correlation coefficient was rather low (r = .199). This means that anxious students were not necessarily unmotivated. In other words, since students have different personality traits to react to situations differently, signs of anxiety in the classroom do not necessarily imply that students are unmotivated and even anxious students might still have enough motivation to learn effectively. Therefore, instructors ought not to give up on their anxious students assuming that anxious students tend to be less motivated to learn. However, teachers should try to increase their students' motivation as well as reduce their level of anxiety. This finding can also minimize the confusion the teachers have regarding active and motivated students who are anxious in the classroom. When teachers recognize that motivated and enthusiastic students experience a feeling of anxiety in the class, they can utilize anxiety-reducing techniques to calm them down.

6. Implications

Findings of this study can be beneficial for teachers and learners as well as educational psychologists. The findings of this study can prove helpful for teachers to pay more attention to the affective factors of learners. These findings can also help instructors to predict their learners' anxiety, beliefs, and behaviors. Teachers can adjust their teaching plans according to their students' characteristics to facilitate their learning.

7. Limitations and suggestions for further research

There were some limitations to this study. Inferences drawn from the results of this study cannot be generalized to other contexts because of cultural differences. Another limitation was that the sample was not evenly distributed since there were 74 males and 231 females and this could affect the results of the study. Therefore, generalizing the findings of this study to other contexts and situations should be exercised with caution. Since this study was a quantitative one and just made use of questionnaires, more longitudinal and qualitative studies with in-depth interviews are needed to understand individual differences in greater detail.

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Appendices

Appendix I The Inventory of School Motivation

NI	D	SD			SA	A
1	I like being given the chance to do something again to make it better.					
2	I try harder when university tasks are more interesting					
3	I like to see that I am					
4	I need to know that I am getting somewhere with my university tasks.					
5	I don't mind working a long time at university tasks that I find interesting.					
6	I try hard to make sure that I am good at my university tasks.					
7	When I am improving in my university tasks I try even					
8	The harder the problem the harder I try					
9	I try hard at university because I am interested in my					
10	I work hard to try to					
11	I am always trying to do better in my university tasks.					
12	Winning is important to me					

13	Coming first is very important to me.					
14	I like to compete with others at university.					
15	I work harder if I'm trying to be better than others.					
16	I want to do well at university to be better than my classmates.					
17	I am only happy when I am one of the best in class.					
18	I work hard at university so					
19	I want to feel important in					
20	At university I like being in charge of a group.					
21	It is very important for me to be a group leader.					
22	I work hard at university					
23	I often try to be the leader of a group.					
24	I do my best at					

Appendix III: Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale

I			D	SD	SA	A	N
1	I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my foreign language class.						
2	I don't worry about making mistakes in language class.						
3	I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on in language class.						
4	It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in the foreign language						
5	It wouldn't bother me at all to take more foreign language classes.						
6	During language class, I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do with the course.						
7	I keep thinking that other students are better at languages than I am.						
8	I am usually at ease during tests in my language class						
9	I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in language class.						
10	I worry about the consequences of failing my foreign language class						
11	I don't understand why some people get so upset over foreign language classes.						

12	In language class, I can get so nervous when I forget things I know.					
13	It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my language class.					
14	I would not be nervous speaking in the foreign language with native speakers.					
15	I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is correcting.					
16	Even if I am well prepared for language class, I feel anxious about it.					
17	I often feel like not going to my language class.					
18	I feel confident when I speak in foreign language class.					
19	I am afraid that my language teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.					
20	I can feel my heart pounding when I'm going to be called on in language class.					
21	The more I study for a language test, the more confused I get.					
22	I don't feel pressure to prepare very well for language class.					

MJLTM

A SOCIOLINGUISTIC STUDY OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LANGUAGE LEARNING AND IDENTITY

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ABSTRACT
THE PRESENT STUDY IS A SOCIOLINGUISTIC STUDY, WHICH ADDRESSES THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LANGUAGE LEARNING AND IDENTITY. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN IDENTITY AND LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT HAS BEEN INVESTIGATED IN ITS DIFFERENT ASPECTS, PERSONAL ASPECTS, I.E. THE INTERNAL AND EXTERNAL ASPECTS OF IDENTITY, CULTURAL ASPECTS, NATIONAL ASPECT, ETC. THE CONNECTION BETWEEN LANGUAGE AND IDENTITY HAS BEEN INVESTIGATED AS WELL. PEOPLE FROM AN EARLY AGE; CONSCIOUSLY OR SUBCONSCIOUSLY CATEGORIZE THEMSELVES, AS WELL AS OTHERS, INTO SOCIAL GROUPS ACCORDING TO ETHNICITY, NATIONALITY ETC. THE VALUES ASCRIBED TO THE INDIVIDUAL THROUGH THEIR MEMBERSHIP OF A CERTAIN GROUP, CAN BE SEEN AS CONTRIBUTING TO THEIR PERSONAL IDENTITY. WHEN AN INDIVIDUAL LEAVES THAT GROUP, THE IDENTITY CAN BECOME INSECURE, BECAUSE THE INDIVIDUAL IS NO LONGER WITH HIS/HER SOCIAL GROUP. THIS IS HOW IDENTITY CAN CHANGE THROUGH NEW CONSTELLATIONS, CONSISTING OF BOTH NEW PEOPLE AND A NEW LANGUAGE.

KEY WORDS: IDENTITY, LANGUAGE LEARNING, DIMENSIONS OF IDENTITY, AGENCY

1. Identity

Looking up the Oxford Dictionary (Hornby, Gatenby, & Wakefield, 1963) for short and concise definitions of self and identity, we find two definitions for the word identity: "1. state of being identical; absolute sameness; exact likeness. 2. who sb. is; what something. is"; and for the word self we can find: "1. person's nature, special qualities; one's own personality; 2. one's own interests or pleasure." Now, this is a beginning, and we may turn then to the latest edition of the APA Dictionary of Psychology (Vandenbos, 2006). This dictionary defines identity as "an individual's sense of self defined by (a) a set of physical and psychological characteristics that is not wholly shared with any other person and (b) a range of social and interpersonal affiliations (e.g., ethnicity) and social roles" (p. 312); and for sense of self: "an individual's feeling of identity, uniqueness, and self-direction" (p. 542). Reading deeper in the APA Dictionary of Psychology, we see a broad range of references to terms such as self-concept, self-image, or sense of identity, focusing on issues of separation and individuation, and the feeling of being unique and alike. Often, the attempts to define self and identity focuses on self-representations, i.e., mental constructions about us as persons in terms of what we are identifying with and how we are identified (usually by others). Identity is something we are said to have, i.e., they are properties of an internal make-up as "who-we-are" as people, not easy to shake off. None the definitions given by these dictionaries claim that self-reports or self-narrations are in any way central to "who-we-are." Rather than trying to enumerate the (internal) properties for self or sense of self and identity, and believing that we can arrive at the distinguishing features between these terms, it is proposed to start off by giving definitions in terms of what self and identity— functionally speaking—are supposed to accomplish. Broadly, identity is a label attributed to the attempt to differentiate and integrate a sense of self along different social and personal dimensions.2 Consequently, identities can be differentiated and claimed according to various socio-cultural categories, e.g., gender, age, race, occupation, gangs, socio-economic status, ethnicity, class, nation states, or regional territory. Any claim about the notion of identity encounters three dilemmas: (i) sameness of a sense of self across time in the face of constant change; (ii) uniqueness of the person vis-à-vis others in the face of being the same as everyone else; and (iii) the construction of agency as constituted by self (with a self-to-world direction of fit) and world (with a world-to-self direction of fit). It is assumed that identity takes off from the continuity/ change dilemma, and from here ventures into issues of uniqueness (self–other differentiation) and agency. In contrast, concepts of self and sense of self begin

from the self/other and agency differentiation and from here can filter into the diachronicity of continuity and change.

2. Introduction to Identity Through Language

Identity has been an object of academic study for a long time. However, recently, there has been an increasing interest in the approach of studying identity, for example through the escalating awareness of self-identity as a result of modernity (Giddens6, 1991). Many new concepts and perspectives on identity have developed during the last 50 years. It is thus important to take these different and constantly developing perspectives into account, when conceptualizing identity.

Identity comprises many different aspects as well as fields; it includes for instance "social identity, ethnic identity, cultural identity, linguistic identity, sociocultural identity, subjectivity, the self and the voice" (Miller, 1999: 150). Our focus on identity is concerned with a combination of different forms of identity. We will try to confine our investigation to social and personal identity first and foremost, and examine its relationship with language and, additionally, through a foreign language. Due to different subject matter, we will have to circle within some other fields of identity, such as national identity and identity crisis.

As Thornborrow (2004) describes, one's identity is not always fixed. Instead it is considered as 'something which we are constantly building and negotiating all our lives'. As long as language is one of the most basic ways people can build their own identity and shape others' views of them; it is natural that people will apply language as a tool to do just that, although often this happens unconsciously. Chambers (1995) believes that people unconsciously express their identity through their dress, manners, possessions and speech. He tries to explain that speech is much less manipulable and much harder to control consciously, and it is much more revealing of our identity. People are consciously and unconsciously aware of this and they will therefore adapt the way they speak as far as possible to portray a specific version of their identity. The language that is used by speaker is decoded by others, which allows them to read the identity of the speaker.

3. You Are What You Are

The traditional concept of identity can be associated with the humanistic and essentialist comprehension of a core, something which is permanent. An essence that was final, not negotiable, as a result of that particular person's socialisation, i.e. the social, economic and cultural backgrounds all were necessary during the upbringing and would determine the result of the person's identity. The idea was, that while going through life, though having many experiences, one would still own the same identity; have the same views on a matter and act as always. This perception is challenged by social constructionism by being anti-humanistic and anti-essentialistic (Burr, 1995: 40). According to the social constructionist perception, one's feelings, behavior and thoughts change depending on who one is interacting with. Nonetheless, "… it makes no sense to ask which of these is the real you. They both are, but each version of "you" is a product of your relationship with others" (Burr, 1995: 27).

Social constructionism especially insists that one is critical towards taken for granted knowledge, as for instance the idea about a stable core within the identity (Burr, 1995: 3). The understanding of identity as possessing an unchangeable core has been criticized and discarded, previously. However, the discussion whether there exists some Polish sociologist (born 1925) permanent part of the identity, with the likeliness of changing, is still an ongoing debate.

4. Identity as a Process

Per Shultz Jorgensen9 (1999) understands identity as something one tries to create or construct, which takes place when interacting with others, through life experiences by doing something, and during everyday life. The construction of identity is a constant process that never stops. "

Identity agrees with others and with itself. The social identities represent different options that are being tested, assessed, contemplated, and involved/implicated in the core one gradually constructs as a sufficient image of oneself: the personal identity" (Brorup et al, 2003: 179).

Furthermore, Schultz Jorgensen describes identity as having two dimensions: the personal (internal) and the social (external) identity. Every construction of identity consists of both dimensions. Although, they are not inseparable, they are intertwined processes that are continuously in interaction (Schultz Jorgensen, 1999: 48-62). Thus, the construction of identity is highly dependent on society and hereby culture, happening both within and around the individual.

5. Internal and External Dimensions of Identity

The internal conditions are based on everything that is occurring within us (psychological factors); how we perceive ourselves, what we stand for, how we want to be, etc. The external conditions are based on everything that is taking place around us (society and culture), what social group and/or community we are included in, how others perceive us etc. Identity is thus both the personal "life story" and also the social role one acquires or is ascribed within the community one is a part of (Ibid.).

However, although identity should be percieved as a process, Schultz Jorgensen still claims the existence of a core within the identity. The core includes a permanent Per Schultz Jorgensen (1933) Danish professor at Danmarks Padagogiske Universitet (Danish School of Education), earlier chairman for Borneradet (Children's Council).

Own translation part that is transferred from arena to arena and interacts with the rest of the influential factors. However, he dissociates from the traditional perception by stating that this core undergoes changes and can be effected throughout life.

5.1. Personal Aspects of Identity – Internal Conditions

Jan Tonnes Hansen(11) identifies the internal conditions of identity as the individual's personal story in that it includes everything from experiences to adventures. He differentiates between the "I" and the "me". The "I" denotes the part of the individual that performs, reflects, thinks etc. and furthermore embodies the conscience. The "me" is comprehended as the inner "essence," the persona within the individual, the part that is shown outwardly that others relate to. This causes the belief of being "good enough" and moreover it also causes self-esteem (Tonnes Hansen, 2000: 17). Tonnes Hansen argues that it is not enough to want to be oneself, one also has to act accordingly to oneself, it is thus not only the aspiration of wanting to be someone, one also has to actually act and be that person. He emphasizes the importance of nurture within the relation between the "I" and the "me," or even between how one acts and the persona one is (Ibid.). Furthermore, he accentuates the fact that the distinction between the "I" and "me" enables the understanding that some people can be "I"-strong, as they describe a strong identity without a nurtured relationship between the "I" and "me". This can be understood as a restricted presentation of someone's identity in that the actions are carried out without any reflections upon, whether the actions equal with the "me", what the person stands for and who that person is. Moreover, it is important within the "…daily production of oneself" (Brorup et al, 2003: 179) to present a fairly cohesive image that can be accepted by others, but also that proves correct to oneself, i.e. that the identity owns consistency. This is portrayed within the lifestyle, ideas and specific choices. These are the essential matters that will transmit who one is (Ibid.).

5.2. Sociological and Cultural Aspects of Identity – External Conditions

Thomas Ziehe assums, from a socio-psychological perspective, that today it is up to the individual him-/herself to create his/her own world (Ziehe, 2003: 88). This means that one is the creator of his/her own identity. The constructed "private world" hence becomes a collection of private and contemporary culture's norms and values, which the individual will see as the most important in his/her life (Ibid.). The individual alone has to ascribe artefacts and situations different values, interpret signs within culture in order to realize the worth of oneself, and furthermore, what s/he stands for and represents. Giddens attracts attention to the fact that the construction of identity is a process that constantly must be created and developed by the individual.

The individual is thus continuously encounter new decisions that have to be made, where the consequences are pre-calculated and/or unknown. And moreover, he argues that the close relations become the object of reflexivity;

"A person only becomes committed to another when, for whatever reason, she or he decides to be so" (Giddens, 1991: 91-3) and has the time for it – one exclusively has to choose who to be with, and when this will fit with one's "private world". These are the "pure relations" according to Giddens (1991).

Giddens distinguishes between two kinds of reflexivity. The first kind of reflexivity is a common trait in people; thinking when acting, called a reflexive act regulation. The other is a distinctive characteristic concerning modernity, which takes place at two levels: at an institutional and at a personal level. Giddens argues that reflexivity in the modern society, is understood as the steady use of obtained knowledge about conditions for modern systems and social organisation forms. The augmentation in self-reflection is

mostly by means of mass communication where the past, present and future become noticeable and are used as a mirror in relation to reflection. The social praxes, the actions performed by the individual, are continually being studied. The mirror is supposed to symbolize how a person can see him-/herself through the eyes of Thomas Ziehe (1947) professor at the institute of pedagogy at the university in Hanover. others, and hence become self-reflexive upon own actions. It is a type of cause and effect, where an individual's actions cause an effect that the individual will later reflect upon. The result can then consequently change due to new acquired information, where the preceding actions can be perceived as linked to traditions, and furthermore were not able to be thought beyond those traditions.

However, reflexivity does not imply a superior or more reliable knowledge. In contrast, it causes insecurity, and doubt due to the constant reflexivity, which means that everything is being rethought and revised independently of traditions (Kaspersen, 2001: 125-127).

6. Agency, identity and language use

While our social identities and roles are to a great extent shaped by the groups and communities to which we belong, we as individual agents also play main part in shaping them. However, unlike the more traditional 'linguistics applied' view, agency which views agency as an inherent motivation of individuals, a sociocultural perspective views a as the 'socioculturally mediated capacity to act' (Ahearn, 2001: 112), and thus places it in the discursive spaces between individual users and the conditions of the moment. While we are using language we represent a particular identity at the same time that we construct it. The degree of individual attempt we can exert in shaping our identities, however, is not always equal. Rather, it is 'an aspect of the action' (Altieri, 1994: 4) negotiable in and growing up from specific social and cultural circumstances constituting local contexts of action. From this perspective, individual identity is always in production, a result of agentive moves rather than a given. When we start a communicative event, we do so as individuals with particular constellations of historically laden social identities. While these social identities affect our linguistic actions, they do not determine them. Rather, they predispose us to participate in our activities and perceive the involvement of others in certain ways. At any communicative moment there exists the possibility of taking up a special stance towards our own identity and those of others, and of using language in unexpected ways towards unexpected aims. As with the meanings of our linguistic actions, however, how linguistically pliable our identities depend to a largely on the historical and sociopolitical forces embodied in them. Thus, while we have some choice in the ways we select to create ourselves, our every action occurs within a social context, and thus can never be understood apart from it. So, individual agency is neither inherent in nor separate from individual action. Rather 'it exists through reutilized action that consists of the material (and physical) conditions as well as the social actors' experience in using their bodies while moving through a familiar space' (Duranti, 1997: 45).

7. Connection Between Language and Identity

Identity can be perceived as self-defined. One defines his/her own identity, the self-perception; who one is along with other's perception of him/her. It is through interaction and hereby language that one "finds" oneself, and thus makes one's identity. In this relationship, language plays an essential role, given that it is through language we can explain to others who we are and what we represent, but also understand how others perceive us. People try to achieve the acceptance of others.

At the same time this acceptance creates breeding ground for the development and construction of identity, because it is within this group or community that we are a part of, and at the same time identify with. Furthermore, Ziehe argues that people select who they want to be within their own "private world" or community and, by this, show what community they belong to, and hereby how they want to be perceived (Ziehe, 2003: 89). The social group and community one is present in, is therefore highly important in relation to identity. However, it is not only the social aspect that is meaningful to our identity, but also the verbal behavior, given that it is through this one is actually able to express themselves and describe who they are, what they think, and their idea on different aspects of life (Uldal Christensen, 2004). Hence language becomes a tool, as a means of expression, and additionally, choice of words and how they are used is essential when presenting oneself.

Intonation, voice, and choice of e.g. divergence or convergence are all a part of identity, and all these aspects are important to a complete understanding of a person.

Identity is an inevitable part of everyday life e.g. in school, when acquiring a new language, at the workplace and so on. One is always more or less forced to perform who they are through interaction with others, thus also through language.

Lastly, language and identity are two terms that constantly interacting within every aspect of everyday life (university, job, sport activities etc.). Social communities within specific contexts (language school, among friends or family etc.) play a great role for the individual's usage of language as well as for the construction of identity (Uldal Christensen, 2004).

8. Identity through a Foreign Language

8.1. Language Identity

Language inevitably contributes to defining a individual's identity through interactions. So, it is a symbolic marker of identity, and constructed through language. therefore identity is socially constructed.

Within one language, it can be possible to have several identities, or roles, as they also can be seen as. For example, certain words or a certain language are used with parents, while another is used among friends. This variation is usually not something that anyone attaches any significance to. This exemplifies how one undertakes different roles during the day in just one language and often without even noticing it. Nevertheless, one might develop a completely different identity when expressing something through another language than one's native language. In relation to this, David Block13 (2007) defines language identity as "...the assumed and/or attributed relationship between one's sense of self and a means of communication which might Senior lecturer in languages at the Institute of Education, University of London. be known as a language, a dialect or a sociolect14" (Block, 2007: 40).

8.2. National and Bicultural Identity

One may both be obliged to speak a foreign language in a foreign country or even in one's own country. In relation to this, the issue of whether or not a foreigner acquires a national identity, from the specific country that s/he currently lives in, arises. Even though everyone has their own personal identity, there will most likely always be overall identities of a country consisting of widespread common views and opinions related to lifestyle and values. As Breakwell, stresses: " *[t]here is no such thing as a 'national identity' in an absolute sense. Every nation has many national identities since each individual, in social context, negotiates what the meaning of his or her national identity is and can renegotiate moment by moment*" (Breakwell in Oakes, 2001: 39).

These national identities, lifestyles, values, etc. could play an important role in acquiring a new language. This is mainly because the degree of agreement and sympathy of these subjects can affect the approach of the learning processes. This issue is, according to Block, pointed out by Wallace E. Lambert, when he treats bicultural identity, which takes the individual's affiliation to a certain country into consideration. Consequently, a bicultural identity is dependent on the feelings concerning a country, be that of its language, people or culture in general (Block, 2007: 50, quoting Lambert, 1972). This is important, if moving to another country, going abroad or travelling for a long period of time.

8.3. Crisis-stricken and Insecure Identities

Identity can ultimately become unstable when individuals are in a position where they cannot use their mother tongue as means of expression, for instance because it is not spoken in the given social setting or country. This is a result of not being "...the first A sociolect is a variety of a language that the members of a particular social class or social group speak (Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary). Former Canadian professor of social psychology and bilingualism (1922-2009). One who possesses two cultural identities. language self", which is defined as "...the self that could make itself known, to the world and to itself, in its first language" (Granger, 2004: 56). As an example, native English speaker Richard Schmidt carried out a five months study in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil in the 1980s. While learning Portuguese, he experienced frustrations due to the inability to be himself. While teaching in a university he found the breaks in the staff room particularly embarrassing due to the silence caused by his lack of Portuguese small talk skills. Even though they progress, the same experience emerges on several occasions. These observations can be seen as changes in identity, because he is incapable of expressing his thoughts, and thereby acting as he usually would or as his native language identity usually would.

However, Schmidt does not lose his courage and feels incited to learn more, whenever he starts speaking and finds out that he is unable to finish the sentence or express exactly what he wants to. Encouragement

thus eases the learning process and speeds up the regaining of his lost identity. At the end of his stay, Schmidt concludes that he never did feel "… as though he was a whole human being in Portuguese" (Block, 2007: 71). Schmidt is trying hard both to learn the language and socialize with the Brazilians, so it seems thought provoking that he still cannot seem to "find" himself in the language. Nevertheless he experiences "noticing" which describes "… the phenomenon whereby language learners register that particular language features occur or are used in particular ways where previously their occurrence and use would have gone undetected" (Ibid.). Firstly, this confirms that identity primarily is created through language, and secondly, that he has explored how difficult it can be to express identity through a foreign language when one usually does not consider one's everyday life vocabulary very thoroughly (Day 2004, according to Block 2007: 69-71).

In relation to this, Bauman stresses how a confused or torn identity can be seen as a "language specific disorder". It is explained as an abrupt feeling of discomfort, felt due to the inability "...to read the situation properly and to choose between alternative actions" (Bauman, 1991: 1). For instance, when both surroundings and language(s) are unknown, it can be difficult to know how to act, especially if the language is a hindrance. In addition, Georg Simmel17 (1908), according to Kurt H. Wolff, provided a discussion about "the stranger", which can be used in order to examine how foreigners are perceived in groups. How one is perceived by others, together with own perception, highly influences identity. A foreigner could differ in skin colour, nationality, religion and so on while a group could be a work place, five friends, a different country etc. The only requirement was that the group must have something in common with the individual such as religion, work, age etc. and the individual must never have been a part of the group before. In relation to the stranger, Simmel drew attention to the two terms "nearness" and "remoteness" (Wolff, 1964: 402), which describe the ambivalence about "… being intimate with one's surroundings while remaining metaphorically outside them" (Simmel, according to Block, 2007: 22). In other words, being physically part of a group without feeling or actually being equal with the other members.

Hence, in relation to our assumption, when being situated in a foreign country among people with a different native language, the national identity changes as well as the role played by the individual, even if the individual is part of a social group in the country. This is mainly due to language and cultural hindrances, because it is not possible for the individual to present him-/herself as s/he does in the native language. Even if it was possible, the foreigner might still be perceived as a stranger.

Ultimately, this can create a feeling of being left out. It is then highly possible that a usually outgoing personality becomes an introvert (Block 2007: 169).

8.4. An Unstable Sense of Self

Bauman emphasizes that, "[n]o thoughts are given to identity when "belonging" Former German philosopher and sociologist (1858-1918). comes naturally, when it does not need to be fought for, earned, claimed and defended" (Bauman, 1999: xxx). By natural, he means a gesture or speech act performed without a thought, because it is carried out as it usually is, more or less subconsciously. For instance, one rarely thinks when adapting language according to social context. However, when being situated in a foreign country or simply when being obliged to speak a foreign language (as in the example above from Brazil), a conflict can arise. Identity thus "...becomes an issue when it is in crisis, when something assumed to be fixed, coherent and stable is displaced by the experience of doubt and uncertainty", as stressed by Kobena Mercer (Block, 2007: 21, quoting Mercer 1990). So identity can stop being natural caused by many, and often new, impressions, because they can shake an otherwise stable identity. As a result, the individual is forced to think before performing an otherwise normal and well-known act that usually would not acquire much, if any, consideration. Therefore, being situated in this new context generates new thinking patterns for the individual. Thus, "...when individuals move across geographical or sociocultural borders" (Block, 2007: 20) they might suddenly and unexpectedly find themselves in a position, where previously known feelings of a stable self disappear. Hence, a conflict can arise caused by the individual entering "...a period of struggle to reach a balance" because "...any feelings they might have of a stable self are upset..." (Ibid.) Thus, the individual suddenly starts to consider things that used to be taken for granted.

Paradoxically, the individual tends to require a certain level of social interaction in such a situation, where s/he is taken out of known everyday life. Since humans are gregarious beings, they function best in interactions and when the possibility to express themselves is present. Consequently, a person might both need and want to be able to express feelings or thoughts that s/he might not be capable of, due to a potential lack of language skills. In the end, this hindrance can provoke annoyance or even anxiety and a feeling of being lost. This means that usually one finds him-/ herself in well-known surroundings, but as emphasized by Block; if the "sociohistorical, cultural and linguistic environment" suddenly changes and becomes indefinable it can cause a destabilization of the individual's sense of self (Block, 2007: 21).

8.5. Identity Loss and Declassing

Another aspect of identity is declassing (Block 2007: 91). This concept emphases how an otherwise skilled and intelligent person can end up being perceived as incompetent or unintelligent person, due to misperception because s/he is incapable of speaking the language (Broeder et al., 1996, according to Block 2007: 81). This is a clear misunderstanding of not just abilities, but also of identity. It can cause a loss of known identity, because the individual suddenly finds him-/herself in unfamiliar positions that s/he are actually over-qualified to exercise, or in between foreign people that are far from their known and safe lives. Therefore, the social status can change hierarchically, even though the person might have been of important matter in her/his home country. However, it is not only the social status but also the identity that is influenced by this in that one also measures oneself from one's job, social circle economy etc. This means that what is also important for the construction of an identity is social and cultural capital, to employ Bourdieu's fruitful terms18. How one comes across and consequently is perceived by the natives in a foreign country can ultimately be of great importance in relation to the formation of a 'new' identity in a foreign language.

8.6. Identity, Culture and Surroundings

Identity is thus also linked to culture, and usually a persons' identity is socially constructed through the culture that s/he is brought up in. If the person is then taken away from the particular culture, it might invoke a confused identity. Language constitutes, as mentioned, the identity to a high degree. This is also stressed by French sociologist Pierre Bourdieu describes the phenomenon cultural capital as the educational, social and intellectual knowledge as well as high cultural knowledge that can be possessed by an individual (Andersen & Kaspersen, 2007: 352).

Brown (1980), who states that "… your self-identity is inextricably bound up with your language, for it is in the communicative process – the process of sending out messages and having them "bounced" back – that such identities are confirmed, shaped and reshaped" (Brown, 1980: 53-54). This supports how creating an identity is all about communication, independently of how bad the language is. As long as something comes out, people will be able to perceive the individual in one way or the other, which they cannot do, if nothing is communicated. This also means that if a person usually is funny at home but cannot master the foreign language well enough, s/he might not be as funny in the foreign country as s/he usually is, thus a change of identity. The more one's identity changes, the more confused one can get. This is especially relevant if one cannot recognize him-/herself in the foreign language.

9. Conclusion

From an early age, people consciously or subconsciously categorize themselves, as well as others, into social groups; that are according to ethnicity, nationality etc. The values ascribed to the individual through their membership of a certain group, can be seen as contributing to their personal identity (Oakes 2001: 35). Thus, when an individual leaves that group, the identity can become insecure, because the individual is no longer with his/her social group. This is how identity can change through new constellations, consisting of both new people and a new language.

However, in a second language it is not solely about the identity that is inhabited or has developed in the individual, for instance through belonging to a social group. It is very much also the identity that is ascribed or attributed by others through interactions. In other words how one is perceived. This is crucial in new surroundings, where perception easily can be based on misunderstandings for instance if the subject is not capable of expressing what s/he aimed for. This can ultimately result in misperceptions where individuals can develop a feeling of not belonging (Block 2007: 157). Hence, it requires reflection to

interact in new constellations, because the individual is forced to consider how to present him-/ herself and his/her identity in a new linguistic setting.

Consequently, when learning to speak a new language, it is not simply a matter of "...adopting foreign norms of behavior but about finding an acceptable accommodation between one's first culture and the target culture" (Block, 2007: 116, quoting Liddicoat & Crozet, 2001). It is thus important to find a balance in order to develop a stable identity and a feeling of self-confidence in the given language and country.

As shown, it seems that a new language identity is tied to the individual's already existing identity, the new language and the new surroundings. Thus, it is the interrelationship that determines how the new language identity evolves.

Furthermore, it seems impossible to maintain one's own identity in new surroundings, because it will automatically change through new social constellations.

In this section, it has become evident that it seems pivotal to actively engage in the new social constructions. By actively participating, it should be easier to improve one's language skills and, through that, become more self-confident in the language and therefore also more confident around the speakers of another code. This could help generate a feeling of acceptance, which is why the identity should develop stably. This said, the individual might still feel slightly different in a foreign language because it requires thinking before talking and because cultural differences can complicate verbal interaction. Thus, as Schmidt also found in his study, it will be difficult to feel as a whole human in the foreign language, as long as it is not mastered to perfection where it is possible to respond instantly without giving the language a thought.

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ON THE IMPACT OF METADISCOURSE FEATURES INSTRUCTION ON IRANIAN FEL LEARNERS' LISTENING COMPREHENSION

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ABSTRACT
THE AIM OF THE PRESENT STUDY WAS TO GAIN INSIGHTS INTO THE EFFECT OF EXPLICIT INSTRUCTION OF METADISCOURSE MARKERS ON IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS' LISTENING COMPREHENSION. TO DO SO, 60 INTERMEDIATE EFL STUDENTS AT ERFAN LANGUAGE INSTITUTE IN ROUDSAR, WERE RANDOMLY SELECTED TO PARTICIPATE IN THE STUDY. IN ORDER TO ASSESS THE STUDENTS' LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY AND HAVE A HOMOGENOUS SAMPLE, QUICK PLACEMENT TEST WAS USED. THEN THE SUBJECTS WERE RANDOMLY DIVIDED INTO TWO GROUPS. THE LISTENING SECTION OF PET WAS THEN ADMINISTERED AS A PRE-TEST. DURING 10-SESSIONS, THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP RECEIVED TREATMENT WHICH WAS DIRECT INSTRUCTION OF METADISCOURSE MARKERS, AND THE CONTROL GROUP RECEIVED A 10-SESSION PLACEBO NAMELY TRADITIONAL STRUCTURAL INSTRUCTION. A POST-TEST EQUAL IN ALL RESPECTS TO PRE-TEST EXPECT FOR THE ARRANGEMENT OF THE ITEMS WAS ADMINISTERED AFTER THE TREATMENT SESSIONS. THE FINDINGS OF THE STUDY REVEALED THAT THE PARTICIPANTS OF THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP OUTPERFORMED THOSE OF THE CONTROL GROUP, WHICH INDICATES THAT EXPLICIT INSTRUCTION OF METADISCOURSE MARKERS SIGNIFICANTLY IMPROVES EFL LEARNERS' LISTENING ABILITY. BASED ON THE RESULTS OF THIS STUDY, METADISCOURSE MARKERS SHOULD BE REINFORCED THROUGH EXPLICIT INSTRUCTION IN EFL COURSES, AS IT WILL HAVE A POSITIVE EFFECT ON LEARNERS' LISTENING ABILITY.

KEY WORDS: EAP, EFL LEARNERS, METADISCOURSE, TEFL

1. Introduction

The notion of metadiscourse firstly was introduced by Harris (1959; 1970) and then developed by other scholars. Hyland (2005) defined metadiscourse as "the cover term for the self-reflective expression used to negotiate interactional meaning in a text, assisting the writer (to speak) to express a view point and engage with readers as members of a particular community".

According to Crismore (1983), metadiscourse is a level of discourse where the author or speaker intrudes into the ongoing discourse to direct rather than inform the reader or listener. Metadiscourse is generally divided into two types, informational and attitudinal. Informational direct readers and listeners how to understand the primary message by referring to its content and structure or author or speakers purpose or goal. Attitudinal metadiscourse direct readers or speakers how to understand the author or speaker perspectives or stance towards the content or structure of primary discourse.

The use of an international or second language such as English grows nowadays, and it will be more noticeable when speakers with different native language try to communicate with each other. It may be recognize English to have standard rule, but if we consider conversational by listeners with different native language, synchronic differences can be recognized. This happens because of listening is an individual act.

Some scholars studied about the lecture discourse. They recognize some factors such as speech act, cultural variation, listening methods and discourse alignment. Listening to the lecture is one of the significant assignments for second/foreign language learners. The notion of listening, in language refer to a complicated process that allows people or learner to recognize and understand lingua.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Metadiscourse

Metadiscourse (MD) is a widely used term in current discourse analysis and language education. Zellig Harris was the first researcher who coined the word "metadiscourse" in 1959 and his aim was to elaborate on text elements playing some role in conveying the information of the text (Hyland, 2005).

Linguists' interest in discourse in recent years is gradually shifting from the traditional focus on ideational dimension of texts and speech to the ways they function interpersonally (Hyland, 2004). Such a view argues that writers or speakers do not simply produce a text to convey information and to represent an external reality. They, however, seek to ensure that the information they present is understandable and acceptable. In this regard, they draw their addressees in, and try to motivate them to follow along. To communicate effectively, they anticipate their receivers' expectations, requirements and resources, and try to engage them in their texts and affect their understandings of them. Writing or speaking is, therefore, viewed as a social and communicative process between writers or speakers and readers or listeners (Hyland, 2005; Hyland & Tse, 2004).

The social perspective that metadiscourse entails has significant implications for language classes, and language teachers are gradually becoming aware of its' significance. Until recently, language teachers focused on the content and how ideas were conveyed by speakers or writers, and writing was specially taught by just focusing on grammatical points or application of rules. Even today, these views still prevail and underlying rhetorical feature sand strategies are rarely taught (Hyland, 2005; Mauranen, 1993). "Metadiscourse embodies the idea that communication is more than just the exchange of information, goods or services, but also involves the personalities, attitudes and assumptions of those who are communicating" (Hyland, 2005, p. 3).

Early studies of metadiscourse mainly focused on textual meaning (e.g. coherence and cohesion) (see Connor, 1984; Enkvist, 1990; Hinds, 1990; Kaplan, 1966; Scollon, 1991). Metadiscourse studies have also been conducted to examine the use of metadiscourse on both textual and interpersonal meanings (see e.g. Abdollahzadeh, 2007; Hyland, 2000; Marandi, 2002; Mauranen, 1993; Simin, 2004; VandeKopple, 1985). Some studies of metadiscourse have pedagogical implications for the teaching of compositions (Crismore et al., 1993) as well as academic writing (Hyland, 2010; Jalilifar & Alipour, 2007). There is also burgeoning past contrastive research comparing the use of metadiscourse in writing of different languages and cultures. Such research has shown that the use of metadicourse is language- and culture-specific (e.g. Crismore et al., 1993; Mauranen, 1993).

Hyland (2005) proposed a new model for classification of MD markers. He believes that "metadiscourse embodies the idea that communication is more than just the exchange of information, goods or services, but also involves the personalities, attitudes and assumptions of those who are communicating"(p. 3). Metadiscourse is essentially an open category which can be realized in numerous ways. There are huge range of linguistic items from punctuation and typographic markers (like parentheses and underlying) and paralinguistic cues which accompany spoken messages (like tone of voice and stress) to whole clauses and sentences which are used to reveal ourselves and our purposes in our texts(written or oral) (Hyland, 1999, 2005).

Since the emergence of metadiscourse, it has been investigated from different aspects. Some studies have focused on the role of metadiscourse in pedagogy. These include the effect of MD awareness on learners' writing abilities (Dastjerdi & Shirzad, 2010; Steffensen & Cheng, 1996) and reading comprehension (Jalilifar & Alipour, 2007). Steffensen and Cheng (1996) conducted an experiment to investigate the effect of targeted instruction on metadiscourse on the writing abilities of native-speaker university students. An experimental group that had been taught the form, function and purpose of metadiscourse learned to use it effectively and produce compositions that earned significantly higher scores than those of a control group, which had received no instruction on metadiscourse.

Dastjerdi and Shirzad (2010) investigated the impact of explicit instruction of metadiscourse markers on advanced, intermediate, and elementary English as a foreign language (EFL) learners' writing performance. The participants of their study were under graduate students majoring in English Literature at the University of Isfahan. Their findings indicated generally that explicit instruction of metadiscourse markers significantly improves EFL learners' writing ability, however, in their study the learners at the intermediate level improved significantly greater than those at the advanced and elementary levels that shows that the practitioners should pay more serious attention to metadiscourse markers in making EFL curricula.

Metadiscourse, as discussed, is a central pragmatic construct which enables writers or speakers to interact with their receivers to achieve a successful communication (Hyland, 2004). It is, however, believed to be an integral part of text which cannot be ignored or varied at will (Hyland, 1998). Hyland (1998) based on a textual analysis of 28research articles in four academic disciplines acknowledged the importance of metadiscourse in attaining persuasion.

The quantitative analysis of his study showed an average of 373 metadiscourse occurrence per paper; about one every 15 words. Hyland (1999) in his textual analysis of 21 textbooks in three disciplines found exactly the same results. The quantitative analysis revealed the importance of metadiscourse with an average occurrence of 405 per text; about one every 15 words.

2.2 listening

The main sources available to the listener can be grouped under bottom-up and top-down processes. A component listener uses both of this kinds of processes in order to fully comprehend spoken language, and a key factor in successful listening is the individual's ability to integrate information gathered from two:

- *Bottom-up processing:* Bottom-up processing involves piecing together the parts of what is being heard on a linear fashion, one by one, in sequence. Anderson and Lynch (1988) described this view as listener as tape recorder. Bottom-up processing is indispensable, listeners always have to do some bottom-up processing of what they hear at the acoustic level.

- *Top-down processing:* Top-down processing is in some ways the converse of bottom-up. Holistic, going from whole to part, and focused on interpretation of meaning rather than recognition of sounds, words and sentences, listeners actively formulate hypotheses as to speakers' meaning, and confirm or modify them where necessary. Top-down processing has been called listener as active model builder. In Top-down processing we rely on what we already know to help make sense of what we hear.

2.3. Metadiscourse and listening

The term listening is used in language teaching to refer to a complex process that allows us to understand spoken language. Listening, the most the most widely used language skill, is often used in conjunction with the other skills. Listening is not only a skill area in language performance, but is also a critical means of acquiring a second language. Listening in language teaching has undergone several important influences, as the result of developments in anthropology, education, linguistics, sociology, and even global politics. From the time foreign languages were formally taught until the late nineteenth century, language learning was presented primarily in a written mode, with the role of descriptive grammars, bilingual dictionaries and problem sentences for correct translation occupying the central role. In the late 1960s and early 1970s applied linguists recognized that listening was the primary channel by which the learner gains access to L2 data, and that it therefore serves as the trigger for acquisition. Since 1980, listening has been viewed as a primary vehicle for language Learning (Richards, 1985). Listening involves making sense of spoken language, normally accompanied by other sounds and visual input, with the help of our relevant prior knowledge and the context in which we are listening. However, rather than thinking of listening as a single process, it is more accurate to conceive of it as a bundle of related

processes recognition of the sounds uttered by the speaker, perception of intonation patterns showing information focus, interpretation of the relevance of what is being said to the current topic and so on.

Traditionally, listening was viewed as a passive process, in which our ears were receivers into which information was poured, and all the listener had to do was passively register the message. Today this issue is being recognized that listening is an active process, and that good listeners are just as active when listening as speakers are when speaking. Active listening is also an interpretive process. Listening used to be thought of as the exact decoding of the message. In fact, listening involves subtle interpretation. This interpretive notion has long been recognize in reading, but it has taken a long time for it to be accepted in terms of listening. Its acceptance directly affects our notions of correctness it requires an acknowledgement of the inherent variation in listener comprehension of what they hear, and of the importance of context and non-linguistic variable in this interpretation.

2.4. Objective of the Study

This study hopes to have an effective outcome to improve and facilitate the Iranian EFL learners' listening ability. This study tries to investigate to what extent the presence or absence of metadiscourse features effects Iranian EFL learners' listening abilities. More specifically, this study attempts to investigate the impact of explicit instruction of metadiscourse markers on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' listening ability.

So, this study aspired to find answer to the following research question:

RQ: Does explicit instruction of metadiscourse markers have any statistically significant effect on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' listening ability?

3. Method

3.1. Participants

In this research, the participants were 60 female lower intermediate Iranian EFL Learners studying English at Erfan language Institute, in the North of Iran, Guilan, Roudsar. Their age range was between 18 and 23. To keep the homogeneity of the participants, QPT was run. Among those participants who passed the exam the ones who could obtain the score within the range of 28-36 were selected for the study. Then they were randomly divided into two groups (i.e. experimental & control). The experimental group including 30 participants received a 10-session treatment in which they encountered direct instruction of metadiscourse markers. The control group including 30 participants received a 10-session placebo.

3.2. Materials and Instruments

To answer the research question and to test the hypothesis of the study, the following instruments and materials were used:

1- **Quick Placement Test (QPT):** Notably, QPTs cast light on the learners' language level. In other words, QPT is a quick way to assess the learners' English level. In order to make up a homogeneous group in terms of the participants' general proficiency, QPT (Version 1) was administered. The test consisted of 60 items including vocabulary, grammar, and reading questions. A total number of 90 learners took QPT and among them 60 learners who got the scores within the range of 18-23 were recognized as being at lower intermediate-level and were selected as the participants of this study. The questions of the test were taken from 'Oxford University Press and University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate'.

2- Pretest: The goal of this test that was given before the treatment was to discover the possible initial differences between the listening ability of the experimental and control groups. The listening test used in this study as a pretest was the listening section of a sample of the Preliminary English Test (PET) adopted from "Objective PET" by Louise Hashemi and Barbara Thomas (2010). The listening section included 4 parts (25 questions):In part one, i.e. questions 1 to 7, there were 3 pictures for each questions and a short recording and students had to choose the correct picture and put a tick in the box below the pictures. Part two formed questions 8 to 13. Again students listened to a recorded text and selected the right answers by putting a tick. With respect to Part three (i.e. questions from 14 to 19) the students listened to a recorded tape and filled in the blank. And to complete part four including questions from 20 to 25, the students

listened to a conversation between two people and decided if the sentence of the question was correct or incorrect. They were then asked to put a tick in the box under Yes if it was correct, and if it was not correct they had to put a tick in the box under No.

3- Posttest: This test which was administered after the treatment sessions was equal in all respects to pretest expect for the arrangement of the items. This rearrangement was done to avoid any probable testing effect.

3.3. Procedures for Data Collection and Analysis

This research was conducted in December, 2015. At the outset, a homogeneity test in terms of the participants' general proficiency was administered. In regard to making a homogeneous group, the researcher used QPT (Version 1) for the overall number of 90 learners who were studying English as a foreign language in an institute in Roudsar, Iran. Notably, the learners were comprised of female learners, in the 18-23 age range. The test consisted of two parts: part one (questions 1-40), and part two (questions 41-60). The items included vocabulary, grammar, and reading questions. The allowed time for this test was 30 minutes. Among the total number of learners who sat for this test, 60 learners got the scores within the range of 28-36 and were considered for being in the lower intermediate-level and were selected as the participants of this study. Therefore, these 60 participants remained and the scores of other students were excluded from the data analysis in the remaining phases of this study. A pretest piloted before with reliability index of 0/76 was then administered. It required the participants to respond to questions of four listening parts of a Preliminary English Test (PET). Then, experimental group received a 10-session treatment through which the participants in this group encountered direct instruction of metadiscourse markers in their classes. Meanwhile, the participants in control group received a 10-session placebo in their classes. At the end of this 10-session period, a posttest of listening was given to students. This post-test was equal in all respects to pretest expect for the arrangement of items. The participants were again required to respond to the questions of four listening sections of a preliminary English Test (PET). An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare the means of the experimental group and control group in the posttest with the alpha set at 0/05. It should also be mentioned that an independent samples t-test for the pretest scores and two paired samples t-tests to find out the progress of groups from pretest to posttest were also used in this study.

4. Results

To select homogeneous participants for the present study, the Quick Placement Test was administered to (n = 90) EFL learners. The participants took three parts that included items related to structure and vocabulary and reading comprehension with a maximum possible score of (60) points. Sixty students whose score fell within the domain 28-36 were chosen as the main sample for the present study. Based on Oxford Placement Test Direction, scores in the area of 1-17 are considered Beginners, 18-27 (Elementary), 28-36 (Lower- intermediate), 37-47 (Upper- intermediate), 48-55 (Advanced), and 56-60 (very advanced). The results of the QPT for (n = 90) students are available in the following table:

Table 1.

Descriptive statistics for the **QP**T scores

QPT		
N	Valid	90
	Missing	0
Mean		26.6000
Median		28.5000
Mode		29.00
Std. Deviation		4.83154
Variance		23.344
Skewness		-1.318
Std. Error of Skewness		.254
Kurtosis		1.029
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.503
Range		21.00

Minimum	11.00
Maximum	32.00
Sum	2394.00

Table 1 presented the findings of group statistics and numerical information for the QPT scores which was carried out for selecting homogeneous sample out of (n = 90) EFL students. Measures of central tendency such as the mean, the median, the mode and measures of dispersion particularly the variance, and the standard deviation together with measures of distribution such as Skewness and Kurtosis were calculated for the QPT. For the present study, the main sample included (n = 60) lower- intermediate participants who were selected based on QPT direction in order to select a group of lower- intermediate EFL learners. To examine the possible initial differences between the two groups regarding their listening ability before introducing the specific treatment for the experimental group. Tables 2 and 3 display the results of an independent samples t- test used to analyze the students' scores in the pretest of listening.

Table 2.
Group statistics for the pre-test scores of the listening test

	groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
pretest scores	Control Group	30	15.0000	3.02860	.55294
	Experimental Group	30	15.6333	2.91823	.53279

Table 3.
Independent samples test for the pre-test scores of listening test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances			t-test for Equality of Means						
	F		Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
pretest scores	Equal variances assumed	.118	.732	-.82	58	.41	-.63	.76	-2.17	.90
	Equal variances not assumed			-.82	57.92	.41	-.63	.76	-2.17	.90

The independent samples t-test was conducted to compare the performance on pretest of listening for the two groups. There was no significant difference in scores for control group (M =15, SD = 3.02) and experimental group (M = 15.63, SD = 2.91; t (58) = -.82, p = .41, two-tailed). The magnitude of the differences in the means (mean difference = .63, 95% CI: -2.17 to .91) was small (Eta squared = .011).
To determine whether there was any statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the two groups in posttest, another independent samples t-test was run. The results are presented in tables 4 and 5.

Table 4.
Group statistics for the two groups on posttest of listening

	groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
posttest scores	Control Group	30	15.2000	2.88157	.52610
	Experimental Group	30	19.6667	2.66954	.48739

For the posttest of listening ability that was administered at the end of the study, the mean scores for the control and experimental groups were (*M*= 15.20) and (*M*= 19.66), respectively. Furthermore, the extent of the deviation of the scores for the control group was slightly higher than that of the experimental group (SD control group = 2.88; SD experimental group=2.66).

Table 5.
Independent samples test for the two groups on posttest of listening

		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
posttest scores	Equal variances assumed	.22	.63	-6.22	58	.00	-4.46	.71	-5.90	-3.031
	Equal variances not assumed			-6.22	57.6	.00	-4.46	.71	-5.90	-3.03

In Table 5 above, the significance level for Levene's test was (.63). This was larger than the cut-off of (.05). This meant that the assumption of equal variances had not been violated. Since the value in the Sig. (2-tailed) column was less than 0.05, there was a significant difference in the mean scores on the dependent variable (posttest scores) for each of the two groups.In this study, the Sig. (2-tailed) value was (.00). As this value was lower than the required cut-off of (0.05), it could be concluded that there was a statistically significant difference in the mean of posttest of listening ability for the control and experimental groups. The mean difference between the two groups was also shown in this table; along with the 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference showing the Lower value and the Upper value.
In order to investigate the participants' possible progress within groups, two paired samples t-tests were also run, which showed the subjects' progress in pre-test and post-test of listening ability test that are shown in Tables 6, and 7.

Table 6.
Paired Samples Statistics for the Pre and Posttest of Listening ability for the Two Groups

Groups			Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Control Group	Pair 1	pretest scores	15.0000	30	3.02860	.55294
		posttest scores	15.2000	30	2.88157	.52610
Experimental Group	Pair 1	pretest scores	15.6333	30	2.91823	.53279
		posttest scores	19.6667	30	2.66954	.48739

The mean score of the control group for the listening test improved from (*M*=15) in pre- test to (*M*=15.20) in post- test; that of the experimental group increased from (*M*= 15.63) in pre- test to (*M*= 19.66) in post-test.

Table 7.
Paired samples test for the pre and posttest of listening for the two groups

Groups			Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
			Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
						Lower	Upper			
Control Group	Pair 1	pretest scores - posttest scores	-.20	.88	.16	-.53	.13	-1.23	29	.22
Experimental Group	Pair 1	pretest scores - posttest scores	-4.03	.99	.18	-4.40	-3.66	-22.10	29	.00

As it was depicted in the Tables 6 and 7, both groups progressed in the post-tests of listening ability. Based on the results of paired samples t-tests, this improvement was statistically significant simply for the experimental group ($P \leq .05$). In other words, the experimental group made a noticeably higher advance as differentiated to the control group in the posttest of listening ability. The mean difference between pre and posttests for the control group was (.20) for the listening ability test. In contrast, the mean difference between pre and posttests for the experimental group amounted to (4.03). This suggested that the experimental group outperformed the control group in posttest of listening ability and the progress within the group for the experimental group was higher than that of the control group. This suggested that direct instruction of metadiscourse markers has statistically significant effect on Iranian lower- intermediate EFL learners' listening ability.

5. Discussion

The main point of this study was to examine the effect of explicit instruction of metadiscourse markers on the Iranian EFL learners' listening comprehension. First, one research question was proposed asking

whether teaching explicit instruction of metadiscourse markers would have any statistically significant effects on the students' listening ability. In addition, on the basis of this research question, a null hypothesis was also proposed assuming that explicit instruction of metadiscourse features would have no significant effect on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' listening comprehension. Based on the results of this study, this null hypothesis was rejected, which shows that explicit instruction of metadiscourse markers has statistically significant effects on the intermediate EFL learners' listening ability.

Based on the findings of this research, metadiscourse markers play a facilitating role in the listening ability. The number of metadiscourse markers can be effective in further facilitating and smoothing of the listening process. That is to say, a rise in the number of metadiscourse markers can increase the revelation of the rhetorical structure of the text and thereby increase the level of facility these markers equip the listeners with. In fact, the lack of metadiscourse markers seems not to hinder the comprehension of a text, but it may hinder expansion of the possibilities for the semantic relationship between the elements they associate.

In summary, metadiscourse is recognized as an important means of facilitating communication, supporting a writer's position and building a relationship with an audience. Importantly, while there is a tendency to focus on surface forms and the effects created by writers, metadiscourse is not an independent stylistic device which authors can vary at will. It is integral to the contexts in which it occurs and is intimately linked to the norms and expectations of particular cultural and professional communities. Although not explicitly stated in the models of communicative competence proposed to date, one of the core properties of discourse is its ability to refer to itself, that is, it involves a metadiscourse dimension.

Metadiscourse can therefore be seen as one means of facilitating the social interactions which contribute to knowledge production within academic disciplines. Moreover, if metadiscourse is a type of rhetorical activity whose use and meaning is only relevant to and operative within a particularsocio-rhetorical situation, it is likely to vary between such communities.

On the other hand, interactional markers allow the speakers to create a dialog with the listeners and to style their listening. Different types of interactional markers by their various functions in the texts make them friendly and interesting for the listeners. For example, attitude markers can prompt students to contribute their own ideas and thus critically react to the text. Metadiscourse has a pragmatic function in that it establishes a link between speaker and listener and shows the speaker's intention so that the listener grasp the meaning of sentences better and the text becomes coherent and the omission of metadiscourse in the text would blur the separation of content, making the text less cohesive and less considerate of listeners.

This is in line with studies of Cheng and Steffensen (1996) and Intraprawat and Steffensen (1995) who have come to the point that students' listening is improved when they listen with an awareness of textual metadiscourse, one of the two types of metadiscourse markers taught explicitly in this research. The findings also support Simin and Tavangar's (2009) statement that,"metadiscourse instruction has a positive effect on the correct use of metadiscourse markers", although there is no report in their study of explicit teaching of metadiscourse markers to their participants. The findings are also in line with Perez (2003), who conducted research on the effect of metadiscourse techniques on learners' communication skills in university courses of English for Academic Purposes (EAP), and observed that students became successful communicators with regards to metadiscourse strategies.

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L2 TEACHERS' BELIEFS ABOUT GRAMMAR INSTRUCTION VIS-à-VIS THEIR ClASSROOM PRACTICES

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ABSTRACT
THIS PAPER REPORTS ON A STUDY THAT INVESTIGATED THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TEACHERS' BELIEFS ABOUT TEACHING GRAMMAR AND THEIR ACTUAL PRACTICES IN THE CLASSROOM. TO ELICIT THE DATA ON THEIR BELIEFS, BELIEFS ABOUT LANGUAGE LEARNING INVENTORY (HORWITZ, 1987) WAS MODIFIED AND DISTRIBUTED AMONG 35 ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHERS CHOSEN FROM DIFFERENT LANGUAGE INSTITUTES IN ISFAHAN. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICAL ANALYSES WERE USED TO ANALYZE THE DATA GERMANE TO THEIR BELIEFS. TO UNVEIL THE TEACHERS' CLASSROOM PRACTICES, THE REQUIRED DATA WERE OBTAINED THROUGH OBSERVATION. THE OBSERVATION DATA WERE RECORDED IN A CHECKLIST AND ANALYZED DESCRIPTIVELY. THE ANALYSES INDICATED THAT THERE WERE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN TEACHERS' BELIEFS AND THEIR ACTUAL PERFORMANCES WITH REGARD TO ERROR-CORRECTION AND TESTING PROCEDURES IN THE CLASSROOM; NEVERTHELESS, THEIR BELIEFS, AND PERFORMANCES IN OTHER ASPECTS, E.G. TEACHING TECHNIQUES AND TEACHING APPROACHES, WERE NOT SUBSTANTIALLY DIFFERENT.

KEY WORDS: TEACHERS' BELIEF, GRAMMAR INSTRUCTION, TEACHING PRACTICES

1. Introduction

It is important to recognize the fact that teacher beliefs are conceptual systems arisen from teachers' prior experiences, school practices, personality, educational theory, reading and other sources (Richards, Gallo, & Renandya, 2001). Furthermore, understanding the teachers' beliefs is vital because it is said that what teachers do in the classroom is governed by what they believe and these beliefs affect their judgment shaping their classroom behavior (Pajares, 1992; Shavelson & Stern, 1981). It is observed that in the realm of TESOL, there is a need to understand this belief system and its impact on classroom practices (Borg, 1998b, 2003; Farrell, 1999; Golombek, 1998). Some studies have been conducted in the field of second language teaching in which they examined ESL teachers' knowledge and focused on teachers' beliefs and grammar teaching (Breen, 1991; Farrell, 1999; Ng & Farrell, 2003; Richards, Gallo, & Renandya, 2001; Yim, 1993). Following the importance of teachers' belief in education, researchers in second language acquisition have examined how teachers construct their theories and beliefs (Cumming, 1993; Leinhardt, 1990), how teachers conceptualize their work (Berliner, 1987; Shulman, 1987), and the extent to which teachers' theoretical beliefs influence their classroom practices (Johnson, 1991). Others still have investigated the decisions teachers employ while teaching (Nunan, 1992). Attitudes to the nature of teaching seem to be significant in the process of teaching practices. The beliefs about teaching and learning held by teachers, reflect their ideas and attitudes in this area (Richards, 1996; Verloop, 2001). The study of teacher beliefs has indicated that it is these beliefs that construct teaching practices and create an interaction between thoughts and behaviors. Nunan (2004) asserted that whatever teachers do in the classroom is influenced by beliefs about the nature of language, the nature of the learning process, and the nature of the teaching act. In the area of language teaching, teacher beliefs is to see personal beliefs and knowledge of teaching, and the impact they have on instructional practices and teachers' decision (Dunkin, 2002; Hativa, 2002).

Research on teachers' practices in grammar teaching has focused on how teachers' beliefs and practices in grammar instruction interact with each other. Burgess and Etherington (2002) note that "It is becoming clearer that it is the choices made by teachers in their individual contexts which play a large part in determining the kind of teaching which takes place" (p. 436).

Concerning teachers' beliefs and their actual practices in teaching grammar, some studies were conducted by Borg (1998a, 1999, 2001) and Johnston and Goettsch (2000) in which the real classroom events and teachers' viewpoint on grammar teaching were described clearly. As mentioned above,

teachers' beliefs are related to their classroom practices; therefore, changes in practices follow changes in beliefs. Thus, it is needed to recognize teaching from teachers' perspectives by understanding the beliefs they hold in their work. Educational research has indicated that much can be learned about the extent to which various factors related to the cognition and contexts play a significant role in the development of teachers' beliefs which have a substantial impact on teachers' classroom practices. Unlike several studies into teachers' beliefs towards grammar teaching in ESL contexts, the number of studies in the Iranian EFL contexts is few. The present study may enhance the awareness of perceiving the factors about teachers' cognition in relation to grammar teaching by the examination of teachers' beliefs about grammar.

2. Literature Review

There are different beliefs in favor of and against grammar teaching in the field of applied linguistics (Hawkins, 1984; Newmark, 1979). The place of grammar in language teaching and a range of views for and against such teaching within language methodology is a controversial topic to many researchers.

The necessity of grammar instruction has been proved and undergone changes over the past few decades. At one point grammar instruction was central then it was absent and again it regained significance and was reconsidered as an important part in second language classrooms. The place and the role of grammar in language teaching have changed over the years; however, there is still debate over the role of grammar in language teaching and learning. In spite of the fact that there are various views over the role of grammar, the importance of grammar is undeniable since it has been accepted that grammatical competence is vital for communication. Ellis (2005) asserts that L2 learners are required both to achieve rich expressions for their fluency and to know grammatical rules for the accuracy within L2 acquisition.

There are some studies which focused on pre-service and in-service language teaching (e.g., Altan, 2012; Galiniene, 1999; Vibulphol, 2004). The studies of teachers' beliefs have indicated that ESL teachers' instructional practices and decisions have been influenced by personal beliefs and knowledge of pedagogical systems of teaching and the process of recognizing teachers' work have been examined as well. (Burns, 1992; Golombek, 1998; Richards, Gallo, & Renandya, 2001).

Over the past 25 years, teacher education research has made significant effort in studying the relationship between teacher beliefs and classroom practices. A great deal of evidence has established the influence of teachers' beliefs on their classroom practices and has found the relationship of these two with each other (Calderhead, 1996; Heath, Kane, & Sandretto, 2002). Cronin-Jones (1991, cited in Khader, 2012) suggested that curriculum implementation process was influenced by beliefs about the ways learners acquire knowledge, the teacher's role in the classroom, the level of the learners' ability, and the importance of content topics. However, teachers' inability in describing their beliefs would affect their behaviors in the classroom effectively.

There is also some research which indicates that teachers' behaviors are not always consistent with their beliefs. The connection between constructive classroom practices and teaching beliefs of social studies teachers in the New York were found in the study of Bisland, O'Conner and Malow-Iroff (2009). Observation and group interviews were the instruments of this study: No relationship between teachers' beliefs and constructive classroom practices in the social studies was found.

Through these studies, it is noticed that the primary source for teachers' classroom practices is teachers' belief systems–the information, attitudes, values, theories and assumptions about teaching and learning which teachers build up over time and bring with them to the classroom. Realizing teachers' beliefs is essential for developing teaching practices and teacher education programs; it plays a role in understanding how information on teaching is translated into classroom practices.

Teachers' beliefs mostly shape their behaviors and affect classroom practices. As Wright (1987) stated, the way teachers choose for teaching is influenced by their thinking and beliefs. Thus, even though there have been some changes in teaching methods and the ways of teaching languages, it is still the teachers who decide how to teach, when to teach, and how much to teach in class based on their own beliefs.

The study set out to investigate the following research questions:

1. What beliefs do teachers hold towards grammar teaching in language institutes?
2. What are the differences between teachers' beliefs about teaching grammar and what they actually teach in language classrooms?

3. Method

3.1 Participants

The participants of the study were 35 English language teachers who were randomly selected from several English language institutes in Isfahan. Out of 35 language teachers, 30 of them completed the questionnaires. They taught English to language learners with different levels of proficiency. Their average years of experience as teachers of English were 20 years. The teachers were both male and females (13 males and 17 females) and had Masters and Bachelor degrees in different majors.

3.2 Instrument

The data collection tool used in this study was a Likert-type questionnaire in which the participants indicated their preferred answer on a 5-point scale. This scale is the most widely used scale in survey research. When responding to a Likert questionnaire item, respondents specify their degree of agreement/disagreement with a statement and the responses ranges from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The validity of the questionnaire was confirmed by three experts. In order to evaluate the reliability of the tool, Cronbach's Alpha was calculated. The alpha coefficient for the items was .80, suggesting that the items had a high internal consistency. The teachers' questionnaire consisted of 5 background questions, 2 open-ended questions, and 45 belief items which were categorized into 7 categories including the definition of grammar, importance of grammar, reasons for teaching grammar, teaching approach, error correction, test, and teaching techniques. The purpose of these two open-ended questions was giving a chance to teachers and learners to present those beliefs and ideas which were not included in the questionnaires.

Another instrument used to collect data was observation. Some of the classes at each institute were randomly selected and each of these classes was observed by the researcher three times and all the details of the teachers' and learners' activities were observed using a checklist. The items of the checklist were taken from teachers' questionnaire to see the difference between teachers' beliefs and their actual performance in the classroom. The checklist consists of four parts including teaching approach, error correction, test, and teaching techniques. The number of items in the checklist was 23 in which teaching approach consists of 5 items, error correction consists of 6 items, test consists of 2 items and teaching techniques consists of 10 items.

3.3 Procedures

The teachers were asked to fill out the questionnaires in their free time. Some of them gave answer to the questionnaires during their class time. Others devoted their time to replying it during one week.

Each class was observed three times in which the researcher's role was that of a non-participant observer during the observation. The details of the activities occurred in the classes were also recorded and the recordings were examined to see if there is any difference between the checklists' data and the recordings. The result showed no difference between them.

4. Results

Teachers who participated in this study were asked to respond to a 5-point Likert scale questionnaire in order for the researcher to evaluate their beliefs. In the following tables all the items of teachers' questionnaire are listed and the mean score and standard deviation of teachers' responses to the items are computed. The tables show the results of teachers' beliefs about teaching grammar in language institute classes.

Table 1. *Teachers' Beliefs about the Definition of Grammar*

The Definition of Grammar	Mean	SD
1. Grammar is a set of structures and rules of a language.	4.40	.49
2. Grammar is concerned with using the correct tenses.	3.86	.86
3. Grammar means to produce language structures accurately.	4.16	.87
4. Grammar helps better understand different meanings.	3.93	.98
5. Grammar means the appropriate use of language in different situations.	3.93	.86
6. Grammar facilitates communication.	3.73	.94

In Table 1, the highest mean belonged to item 1 with the mean of 4.40, and the lowest mean belonged to item 6 with the mean of 3.37. They indicated that teachers mostly concurred with the first definition of grammar which stated "grammar is a set of structures and rules of a language".

Table 2. *Teachers' Beliefs about the Importance of Grammar*

The Importance of Teaching Grammar	Mean	SD
7. Grammar is important and has to be taught in language institute courses.	4.40	.56
8. It is not needed to teach grammar to learners because they've already had it in high school.	1.56	.56
9. It is good to dedicate some time to teaching grammar in language institute classes.	4.30	.53
10. Grammar should be the main part of language institute syllabus.	3.10	1.15

Reasons for Teaching Grammar	Mean	SD
11. Learners need to know the grammar rules for writing.	4.33	.54
12. Grammar is important to improve learners' communication ability.	3.80	.80
13. Without a good knowledge of grammar, learners' language development will be severely constrained.	3.60	1.00
14. Grammar looks tidy, teachable and easily testable so it's desirable to be taught in language institute courses.	3.56	.81
15. Teaching grammar gives power to teachers by showing that they know more than the learners do.	3.00	1.17
16. Learners generally need to understand the grammatical rules of English in order to improve their reading skill.	3.46	1.00
17. Learners need grammar for future occupation.	3.00	1.01

According to Table 2, teaching grammar in language institute courses was significant. Teachers also considered it as a need for learners, regardless of whether they had already learnt it in high school or not.

Table 3. *Teachers' Beliefs about Reasons for Teaching Grammar*

From teachers' point of view, "writing" with the mean of 4.33 was the best reason for teaching grammar in language institutes. Items 15 and 17 with identical mean scores had the lowest mean among this category items.

Table 4. Teachers' Beliefs about Teaching Approach

Considering Table 4, it was concluded that teachers believed in both inductive and deductive teaching approaches, and it was learners' proficiency level in the English language which should be considered as a key factor in choosing a teaching approach. The lowest mean belonged to item 25 with the mean of 2.56 which meant that they did not believe in large and complex amount of exercises and practice.

Table 5. Teachers' Beliefs about Error Correction

Error Correction	Mean	SD
26. When learners make errors, I correct them and later I explain it to them.	3.53	1.13
27. When learners make errors, I ignore them.	2.23	1.00
28. I only correct learners' errors if it interferes with communication.	2.96	1.06

Teaching Approach	Mean	SD
18. Grammatical structures taught depend on learners' needs.	3.56	1.10
19. The approaches to grammar teaching depend largely on the learners' proficiency level in the English language.	4.10	.75
20. Grammar should be taught explicitly.	3.16	1.17
21. Grammar should be taught implicitly.	3.80	1.03
22. Teacher should present grammatical rules at sentence level.	3.76	.89
23. Teachers should teach grammatical structures not only in discrete sentences but also in texts.	4.00	1.08
24. Both inductive and deductive approaches should be used.	4.13	.81
25. There is an essential need to provide a large number of complex exercises for learners to master the grammatical structures.	2.56	1.13
29. I provide learners with an opportunity to think about their performance.	3.96	.88
30. I encourage learners to correct each other.	3.90	.84
31. I correct local errors.	3.26	1.04
32. I correct global errors.	3.83	.79

As for error-correction, teachers mostly provided learners with an opportunity to think about their performance and they also believed in peer-correction. The results also indicated that teachers preferred global-correction rather than local-correction. Item 27 with the mean of 2.23 had the lowest mean in this category

Table 6. *Teachers' Beliefs about Tests*

Test	Mean	SD
33. I test grammar at sentence level.	3.53	.86
34. I test grammar in context (text or at discourse level)	3.93	.63
35. Grammar is one of the most important parts of language institute exam.	3.66	1.06

In Table 6 concerning test, teachers preferred to test grammar items in context with the mean of 3.93 which was the highest mean of the category. The second highest mean was 3.66 showing that grammar was one of the most important parts of language institute exam for teachers.

Table 7. *Teacher's ' Beliefs about Teaching Techniques*

Teaching Techniques	Mean	SD
36. Using story-telling	2.66	1.02
37. Using role-play	3.33	1.26
38. Using pictures and images	2.76	1.30

39. Using teaching devices and aids (balls, boxes, dolls and so on)	2.03	1.12
40. Using tables, figures, charts and diagrams (such as tense tables)	2.90	1.09
41. Using music, songs and poems	2.03	1.21
42. Playing games	2.20	1.06
43. Making learners participate in real life tasks in order to develop their grammatical knowledge	3.93	1.01
44. Using contextualized practice	4.00	.98
45. Using form-focused practice (such as substitution drills)	3.90	1.12

For the last table, which was related to techniques of grammar teaching, the use of techniques entailing teaching aids, music, songs, and poems had the lowest mean of 2.03. However, contextualized practice technique had the highest mean of 4.00. Real life tasks and form-focused practice techniques had the second and third highest means of the category with the mean scores of 3.93 and 3.90, respectively.

Referring to the second research question which was concerned with the difference between teachers' beliefs and their performance in the classroom, the items of the checklist were compared to teachers' questionnaires. The results are presented in the following table.

Table 8. *Descriptive Statistics of Teachers' Beliefs and Their Practices in the Classroom*

Items		
1. Grammar is taught explicitly.	Frequency	17
	Percentage	56%
	Mean	3.16
2. Grammar is taught implicitly.	Frequency	27
	Percentage	90%
	Mean	3.80
3. Teacher presents grammatical rules at sentence level.	Frequency	30
	Percentage	100%
	Mean	3.76
4. Teacher teaches grammatical structures not only in discrete sentences but also in texts.	Frequency	22
	Percentage	73%
	Mean	4.00
5. There is an essential need to provide a large number of exercises for learners to master the grammatical structures.	Frequency	8
	Percentage	26%
	Mean	2.56
6. When learners make errors, teacher corrects them and later she/he explains it to them.	Frequency	23
	Percentage	76%
	Mean	3.53
7. When learners make errors, teacher ignores them.	Frequency	-

	Percentage	-
	Mean	2.23
8. Teacher provides learners with an opportunity to think about their performance.	Frequency	27
	Percentage	90%
	Mean	3.96
9. Teacher encourages learners to correct each other.	Frequency	9
	Percentage	30%
	Mean	3.90
10. Teacher corrects local errors.	Frequency	22
	Percentage	73%
	Mean	3.26
11. Teacher corrects global errors.	Frequency	23
	Percentage	76%
	Mean	3.83
12. Teacher tests grammar at sentence level.	Frequency	27
	Percentage	90%
	Mean	3.53
13. Teacher tests grammar in context.	Frequency	7
	Percentage	23%
	Mean	3.93
14. Using story-telling	Frequency	14
	Percentage	46%
	Mean	2.66
15. Using role play	Frequency	23
	Percentage	76%
	Mean	3.33
16. Using pictures and images	Frequency	8
	Percentage	26%
	Mean	2.76
17. Using teaching devices and aids	Frequency	-
	Percentage	-
	Mean	2.03
18. Using tables, figures, charts and diagrams (such as tense tables)	Frequency	7
	Percentage	23%
	Mean	2.90
19. Using music, songs, and poems	Frequency	5
	Percentage	16%

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	Mean	2.03
20. Playing games	Frequency	5
	Percentage	16%
	Mean	2.20
21. Using real life tasks	Frequency	28
	Percentage	93%
	Mean	3.93
22. Using contextualized practice	Frequency	22
	Percentage	73%
	Mean	4.00
23. Using form-focused practice	Frequency	30
	Percentage	100%
	Mean	3.90

Out of 23 items mentioned in the table above, only in two items there were differences between teachers' beliefs and their performance in the classroom. Item 9 showed that teachers mostly believed in peer-correction (3.90); however, only 30% of them encouraged learners to correct each other in the classroom. Item 13 also indicated that testing grammar in context was favorable among teachers (3.93), while only 23% of them were willing to test grammar in this way. Accordingly, the comparison of teachers' beliefs and their performance in actual classroom showed that there existed a relationship between the stated beliefs and their grammar teaching activities in the classroom.

The data collected from open-ended questions in the final part of the survey generally support the ideas reflected in questionnaires; however, some impressions and suggestions made by teachers are presented in the following.

Teachers' Beliefs

The teachers who participated in this study suggested the utilization of the following teaching techniques in language classrooms:

(1) Teaching grammar by using story books, (2) Setting a situation for students to discover the new grammar, (3) Teaching grammar using Grammar-Translation method, and (4) Teaching grammar using drama and pantomime.

Moreover, they alleged to hold the following beliefs about teaching grammar in language classes:

(1) Teaching grammar should not be done through boring and serious methods. Instead, it can be taught by providing a fun and tempting atmosphere, (2) It is incumbent upon every English instructor to provide students with a sufficient amount of grammar instruction. Not only does it help students to talk and write correctly, but also it helps them to understand English language better in different contexts. Therefore, it has to be an inseparable part of institutes' curriculum, (3) Teaching grammar helps learners to put the words in the correct place of the sentence, (4) Teaching grammar develops learners' reading skill and improves their comprehension, and (5) Teaching grammar should be taught based on learners' level and age.

5. Discussion

The items of the questionnaire were designed to elicit teachers' beliefs about the role of grammar in language teaching. Of these items, teachers' definition of grammar was more form-based. Considering the structural view as the most tangible aspect of grammar, this idea could be formed that traditionally the term grammar was often used by linguists as a set of rules of a language, and the other aspects were not prevalent among them. Consequently, this belief reflected people's attention about the structural definition of grammar. This attitude is obvious in Lado's (1961) definition of grammar who viewed grammar as a set of structures in which the words are arranged to show certain kinds of meaning.

In this research, teachers hold positive opinions on the importance of grammar teaching in language institutes. It could be inferred that the knowledge of grammatical rules was perceived as the key to gain mastery over a language. As English language teachers in this study, some researchers took positive view about the importance of teaching grammar (Subasini & Kokilavani, 2013).

From teachers' viewpoint, writing was considered as a major reason for grammar teaching in language institutes. The basis of this idea may probably be that writing can help learners make use of the grammar knowledge effectively. Irmscher (1979) believed that grammar instruction develops learners' consciousness in making a diagnosis of writing problems. However, several studies revealed evidence against the relevance of the teaching grammar and writing. They suggested that grammar instruction has not to do with learners' writing development and cannot be applied in larger parts of composition (Hillocks, 1986; Shaughnessy, 1977; Andrews, Torgerson, Beverton, Freeman, Lock, Low, Robinson, & ZHD, 2006).

In choosing teaching approach, teachers had more preference for contextualized approach and learners preferred decontextualized teaching styles. The teachers' positive attitudes towards contextualized teaching grammar might come from the idea that language is context-sensitive in which a sentence can be fully and easily understood within a text. Moreover, teaching grammar through contextualization could increase learners' motivation in learning grammatical items. The study conducted by Nasrin Khan (2007) supported the findings regarding contextualization. She reported that teaching grammar through the texts would help learners to use grammatical structures in real life context. However, the results of the present study run counter to Al-Mekhlafi and Nagaratnam's (2011) finding, which denoted the fact that one of the teachers' difficulty in applying contextualized approach arose from the amount of time needed for producing and using suitable tasks for them.

Error correction was most often cited as a technique that had been used by language teachers and that had inhibited learners from speaking. It could be because of negative experiences of being corrected that teachers chose not to interrupt their learners' flow of speech in the classroom to correct errors. Kavaliauskienė and Anusienė (2012) in their survey on error-correction notified that the teachers' negative attitude towards interrupting students originated from the premise that learners would lose their confidence and motivation.

Regarding testing grammar in language institutes, teachers agreed more on contextualized grammar testing. This may probably be due to the fact that testing grammar through isolated sentences is non-communicative from teachers' viewpoint, while communicative testing would challenge learners' competence in learning the language and provide the opportunity for them to create their own message to a given text. These explanations were in accordance with Ahangari and Barghi (2012) who pointed out that if test items seek to be contextualized, assessing learners' knowledge of grammar will be more valuable since their ability of using this knowledge are challenged in a meaningful way.

Teaching and learning techniques were another issue under investigation in this study. Celce-Murcia and Hilles (1988) explained that to have an effective teaching, it is needed to use some techniques in the classroom including problem solving activities. This is so because these techniques not only improve teachers' teaching of grammar, but also motivate learners in a comfortable setting. In case of using teaching techniques in the present study, Teachers reported to use contextualized techniques often. It could be inferred that teachers valued the application of communicative activities which improve learners' grammatical knowledge. This inference seems to be in agreement with Baleghizadeh and Farshchi (2009) who expressed whereas communicative activities developed learners' grammatical performance, the majority of teachers did not see using decontextualized techniques valuable.

6. Conclusion

The research intended to examine the relationship between teachers' beliefs about teaching grammar and their practices in language institute classes. To fulfill this goal, a modified BALLI questionnaire was distributed among 35 English language teachers to gain an understanding of grammar teaching from teachers' perspective. Moreover, the classes were observed using a checklist to see the difference between teachers' beliefs and their performance. The comparison of teachers' beliefs and their actual performance in classroom showed that there existed a relationship between the stated beliefs and their grammar

teaching activities in the classroom. In fact, most of the teachers' ideas of grammar teaching were found to be convergent with their performance. Considering those who proved themselves to be slightly divergent from their beliefs, the differences were found to lie in testing grammar in context and peer-correction. As teachers' views on grammar teaching influence their practices in the classroom, it is concluded that consistency between teachers' beliefs and their behaviors results from the necessity of grammar teaching from teachers' viewpoint suggesting that teachers intend to support their beliefs about grammar teaching in the area of language teaching/learning , while the inconsistency between these two underpins the notion that teachers intend to change the teaching process into a beneficial and pleasurable experience in the classroom.

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THE CONFORMITY BETWEEN THE EVALUATION METHODS OF ENGLISH AND THE IRANIAN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS` LINGUISTIC NEEDS

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ABSTRACT
EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS ARE IN CONSTANT NEED OF DECISIONS TO BE MADE AS TO THE EFFECTIVENESS OF THE PROGRAM. TEACHERS ARE THE MAIN USERS OF THIS INFORMATION, PRIMARILY TO MAKE DECISIONS ABOUT ONGOING INSTRUCTION, ABOUT STUDENTS' CURRENT LEARNING NEEDS, INSTRUCTIONAL ACTIVITIES AND SO ON. LEGITIMATE AND TRUSTWORTHY PROGRAM EVALUATION STUDIES OF TEACHERS AND STUDENTS DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS ARE ESSENTIAL FOR EDUCATION IN GENERAL AND FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING IN PARTICULAR. WHAT CAN BE WITNESSED AS A MAJOR MODEL ALL OVER THE LITERATURE ON PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT IS THAT, ONLY PARTIAL AWARENESS IS GIVEN TO EVALUATING THE PROGRAM IN SPITE OF THE FACT THAT A LOT OF VALUE IS DEDICATED TO THE PROGRAM DESIGN AND ITS EXECUTION PROCESS. TO BE USEFUL AND EFFECTIVE, ANY EVALUATION REQUIRES PLANNING. ALDERSON AND GENESEE ON THE ONE HAND AND UPSHUR ON THE OTHER, MAINTAIN THAT THE RESULT OF ASSESSMENT CAN BE USED BY DIFFERENT PEOPLE FOR DIFFERENT PURPOSES. THESE ASSESSMENTS CAN MEASURE THE MATCH BETWEEN THE NEEDS OF LEARNERS AND THE EVALUATION SCHEME, WHICH IS THE RESULT OF A PROGRAM EVALUATION AND THE VERY TOPIC UNDER STUDY HERE. THE SAMPLE POPULATION IN THIS STUDY CONSISTED OF THE STUDENTS AGED 13 TO 15 AND INCLUDED BOTH MALES AND FEMALES AND THEIR RESPECTIVE TEACHERS. A CIPP-BASED QUESTIONNAIRE WAS USED IN THIS STUDY. THE DATA COLLECTED THROUGH THE QUESTIONNAIRES WERE COMPILED AND THE STATISTICAL PACKAGE FOR THE SOCIAL SCIENCES [SPSS] 21.0 WAS EMPLOYED TO ANALYZE THE DATA. THE CHI SQUARE RESULT INDICATED DISCONFORMITY OF THE STUDENTS` EVALUATION METHODS WITH THEIR LINGUISTIC NEEDS.

KEY WORDS: PROGRAM EVALUATION, STUDENTS` LINGUISTIC NEEDS, ACHIEVED KNOWLEDGE, IRAN`S JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL, STUDENT EVALUATION

Introduction
Educational programs are in constant need of decisions to be made as to the effectiveness of the program. In every context, educational or non-educational ones, the positive feeling as a result of accomplishing a task known as satisfaction is a sufficiently interesting subject which means that the learners goals and also needs have been met. To help educationalists and stakeholders revise and reconsider the context of education and the decisions, students' satisfaction information can present good hints (Witowski, 2008). To make the program more efficient, researchers should evaluate the program repeatedly and regularly (Aman, 2009). This can be materialized through using direct performance criterions such as comprehensive exams or by indirect ones like students' satisfaction with the curriculum (Jamelske, 2009).

To be useful and effective, any evaluation requires planning. Alderson (1992) and Genesee and Upshur (1996) maintain that the result of assessment can be used by different people for different purposes. Teachers are the main users of this information, primarily to make decisions about ongoing instruction, about students' current learning needs, instructional activities and so on. As cited by Mal Amiri (2008), Alderson and Scott (1992) believe that both insiders and outsiders should be involved at all stages in the process. However, as Alderson (1992) points out, there are situations where it is acceptable that an outsider be asked to evaluate a program. He believes that the content of any evaluation must relate to its purpose. There is a wide range of content that an evaluation can focus on, like the learning outcomes of the program, or attitudes to the language, its speakers and culture, etc. Alderson (1992) asserts that how one is to evaluate will depend upon what is to be evaluated. There is no one-to-one relationship between the content and the method of evaluation.

Legitimate and trustworthy program evaluation studies of teachers and students development programs are essential for education in general and foreign language teaching in particular. What can be witnessed as a major model all over the literature on professional development is that, only partial awareness is given to evaluating the program in spite of the fact that a lot of value is dedicated to the program design and its execution process. This is problematic since evaluation is a fundamental module in specifying the advantages of any professional development process. This discrepancy is ascribed to the stakeholders by Guskey (2000), in which it is believed that evaluation as waste of time and considering its impact as trivial on the daily tasks. Dufour and Eaker (1998) believe most of evaluation efforts lack a strong structure and framework in design and planning and are far from meaningfulness. Just mere perceptions of "happiness quotient" are quoted inadequately. Guskey (2000, p.92) puts it clearly:

A lot of good things have been done in the name of professional development; so have a lot of rotten things. What professional developers have not done is provide evidence to document the difference between the good and the rotten. Evaluation is the key, not only making those distinctions, but also to explaining how and why they occurred. To do this, we must recognize the important summative purposes that evaluation serves, as well as its vital planning and formative purposes.

Schools are required to get involved in systematic and ongoing evaluation of programs which may provide relevant information for the policy making educational authorities.

Program evaluation produces a sort of formative feedback that helps the implementation of the curriculum as it was intended (Madaus G.F. & Stufflebeam 2002). It simultaneously assists the administrators of the curriculum to see if they are progressing in the path which was anticipated and determined by the objectives, and whether the learners themselves are satisfied with the course outcome. Without effective evaluation, the program staff may fail to document important impacts the program has on its participants (Llosa, & Slayton, 2009). It may also fail to recognize how different components in the program are affecting the participants or participating institutions. In addition, evaluation helps focus staff `s efforts and project resources on the specific goals of the program. Without written goals and specific objectives, the staff members often direct their individual efforts toward slightly different goals, thereby reducing the efficiency of the overall program. Program evaluation has long been a useful technical tool for determining if programs are meeting their stated goals. Specialists submit reports that help administrators to decide changes in curriculum content or direction.

An Analysis of Students` Need

Among the key concepts underlying the considerations of curriculum that are believed to be essentially fundamental is the application of the principles of students` needs analysis. The notion of taking learners' needs into consideration, which has evolved in a close tie with the instruction of language courses for specific purposes, better known as the ESP, came into vogue in the 1970s as a result of the interest in providing language programs which had the capability of satisfying learners` personal and societal needs (Martínez, 1992). Later in 1978, the CNP model by Munby was proposed to the world. This, being a very strong and persuasive model, suggested that if a design is going to work properly, needs of the learners should be incorporated into it and certainly analyzed carefully. What Munby tried to do was related to the linguistic aspects of the learners; however, Mayo in 2002 insisted on adding and including other features to the list of desired characteristics. When stakeholders are informed about the needs the learners might have, they will be able to enhance both the content to be taught and the potential

goals of the course. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) mentioned that the sophisticated mission of needs analysis has to consider and/ or differentiate between target needs and learning needs. The former refers to what the learner aims at performing in the real life circumstances. The latter takes into account the strategies that help the learners to learn. What has been mentioned covers the objective aspect of the learners` needs, while, as Nunan (1988) believes, in a more modern methodology learners` subjective information should be recorded and attended to. That aspect will include affection and feeling, their interests, needs, and preferences. To achieve what we need to carry out the analysis, information is obtainable through numerous tools as proposed by Martinez (1994). As mentioned below in this article, surveys, language tests, questionnaire, content analysis, observation, etc. can be used as the tools for achieving the essential data. Something which is extremely important to bear in mind is that what is done as a needs analysis is not just a preparatory stage in designing a course syllabus; as a matter of fact, this continues during the study and through the whole business. As White (1998) continues it can be an evaluation technique too for enhancing language courses.

In an attempt to explain the process of needs analysis, Brown strives to convey an established and widely acknowledged description and delineation of needs analysis by stating that it involves gathering the data which play a substantial role in evolving a curriculum which helps the realization of students` learning objectives and needs(1995, p.35). Needs analysis has also been touched upon by other scholars and researchers in much the same way. To Richards (1983), for instance, needs analysis assists to obtain the three main objectives of a) providing a gateway to acquire a more extensive input into the content, its scheme and application of the language instruction b) proliferating it in goal setting and content selection c) paving the way for continual revision and assessment of the instructional course. Richards (2001, p52) further noted and illustrated that needs analysis serves multiple purposes among which the following can be mentioned:

-distinguishing the necessary skills students need to assume a social role such as manager, teacher, nurse in the real authentic world,

- to specify if the current program satisfies the needs of the learners sufficiently,
- specifying who needs what kind of training more than other students in a course regarding the skills,
- Respecting the need for changes that are felt urgent and significant by the participants,
- determining the gap between learners` present level and what they are supposed to reach, and
- gathering data regarding the obstacles which students face up with throughout the course.

It is very profitable to think of developing a scheme to perform needs analysis. Experts such as Robinson buttressed the idea of performing needs analysis; however, they tended to merge their emphasis on both the learners` needs and the course objectives (1991, p. 3). This will facilitate the future real world performance of the learners.

The idea that needs are multidimensional and are of a dynamic nature has been stressed by Graves (2000, p. 98- 100). He further noted that as long as needs analysis forms a constant part of classrooms and educational programs, it can facilitate learning and developing a source of authority in the learners to manage their own learning process through identifying their needs at different stages of learning.

As can be estimated from the above discussion, the proliferation of needs analysis and benefitting from its findings can be done at different stages, namely before, during, and even after the course begins. The knowledge about the assets available to the learners, their goals and what their favorites can be are the pieces of information revealed by the needs analysis done prior to the beginning of the course. Occurring during the course, this process can confirm or disconfirm whether things are going on as they were planned, and in the case of disapproval is that methodology, assessment or even the resources which are responsible for learners' failure or attainment of goals. All the above necessitates a careful and well planned procedure. In so doing, a few suggestions were made by Brown (1995). He contends that a sound procedure must follow the procedure of a) making substantial decision to initiate the process, b) data collection and c) using the information (p. 36). The first phase of the procedure requires the policy makers and stakeholders to make major decisions regarding the participants, what sort of information is expected, the viewpoints, how to merge and interrelate the viewpoints and theoretical aspects of the course. Brown(1995) stated that four more groups of people are engaged in the story, that is the needs analysis. The target group is the first. It refers to the people from which the information is supposed to be

collected which is usually the students, though teachers and administrators might be involved, too. Next is the audience. This embraces the people ultimately required to follow the upshots of the analysis and benefit from it in one way or another. Third comes the analysts themselves. All those who tie up themselves in the factual process of analysis. Who these people will be hinges on the nature and certain steps taken in the process. These may be instructors from universities who play the role of advisors. This partnership makes the process more workable and achievable. Finally, there is the resource group. Considering the situation, this group is a very heterogeneous one and may range from family member to even future employers.

This model presented by Brown is rather sophisticated; however, with some minor variations, it could turn into a more feasible model.

This study aims at investigating the extent to which students feel happy when they are said to have finished the course and their needs are said to have been met. An all-inclusive program evaluation in Gilan`s Junior High School was carried out to find out if the evaluation methods, used during the three years of schooling are in line with learners` needs.

Research Question

Based on the last stage of CIPP, which is *product* the question "*Is there any conformity between the evaluation system of English and the students` linguistic needs in the Junior High School, as perceived by teachers?*" has been put forward.

Review of literature

Using Grave`s analogy (2000), a comprehensible definition for what constitutes the goal and objectives can be given (p. 75). He uses the analogy of a trip in which the trip itself is the educational course and the destination is the goal while objectives are the rest areas where people stop for a while. The final outcomes of a needs analysis form the cornerstones for the development of goals and objectives. In so doing, Brown (1995) proposes some consideration in devising the goals (p.71) when the needs are understood. First, he emphasized that the purposes should be general. He, next, mentioned that purposes should be futuristic and real-life based. Then he strives to say that goals help us set the objective, as well. Finally, he goes on saying that goals are of a dynamic nature and are not fixed. Confusion might have arisen by the above mentioning of goals and objectives. To distinguish between the two, Brown views goals as a more general concept and labels them as the final, anticipated, and achievable ends as far as the curriculum is regarded; whereas, objectives are more specific. Furthermore, certain knowledge, behavior and skills are expected as a result of illustrating the objectives. A learning outcome is specified in terms of objectives. In Richard`s words, "objectives are thought of as the changes which are expected to be brought about as a result of the instructional program" (2001, p. 122-3). In other words, objectives help operationalize the goals and let them become teachable. Once the objectives are attained, goals will be achieved, as well. It can be concluded that there is a causal relationship between objectives and goals in which the first causes the second. Graves also believes in generality of goals and specificity of objectives (2000). To further distinguish between goals and objectives, Brown (1995) believes the major distinction between them is the level of specificness. He continues to say that objectives are rather short term, and that the objectives constitute the goals.

Testing and Evaluation

Upon setting the objectives, testing should inevitably be the next concern in devising the curriculum (Brown, 1995). He contends that testing plays a substantial role since it can be used to make consecutive decisions and changes in the program when the deficiencies have been revealed as a result of the evaluation system. From the above discussion on tests, it can be concluded that for the purpose of correction and developing the components of a curriculum, tests and testing play an invaluable part.

To have a sound and comprehensive assessment, some points have to be made clear. A definition of evaluation is mandatory here. It is claimed that three different types of evaluation are in vogue. The research on evaluation in intellectualization and planning of intervention is the first. Next is evaluation research proposed by Pancer and Westhues (1989). They believe that it is quite helpful to conceive of theorizing the educational program according to a series of developmental steps where different

evaluation questions are addressed. It is now high time we talked about two types of evaluation. The first one in which the concentration is on the culpability takes place for the purpose of making sure the stakeholders have reached their ends in their program. However, the second type of evaluation is carried out to make sure things are on the right path and everyone including the learners and teachers are doing their jobs as expected to achieve the ends. The former is a summative evaluation and the latter is a formative one. Formative evaluation is developmental, complementary in nature, and has no precondition in its performance. Mackay (1994) stresses on the harmonizing and complementary nature of formative evaluation which will eventually provide the input for the summative evaluation. In the next section evaluation will be investigated with its various models among which CIPP is the selected model for the present study.

Performing CIPP Evaluations

The CIPP, which stands for context, input, process, and product, benefits from a checklist combined by Stufflebeam`s Model and the Joint Committee Program Evaluation checklist. Researchers can have their own versions of checklist or even follow this checklist without a question. It is composed of eight separate sections. At the beginning, it starts with elaborating and having a consensus for executing the study. The rest deals with designing and planning the four elements reflected in the acronym CIPP, impact, continuity, and transportability, and usefulness from which the last three are the components of the product evaluation. Based on what the needs are, these seven stages can be proliferated individually and selectively or concurrently and collectively. To put it in different words, evaluation in this model is regarded and treated a synonym for concurrence and liability (i.e. evaluation is considered as a comprehensively conducted undertaking). It is aimed at activating and directing a methodical and all-inclusive study that intends to assess the real world condition in which the evaluation takes place rather than in a laboratory or artificial situation. There is no question regarding the great contributions that Stufflebeam has made to the realm of program evaluation (Stufflebeam, 2003). He, however, recommends that within the enormous universe of evaluation model one can sometimes amalgam different models and arrive at the best and most appropriate one depending on the context of study.

Method

This study, in general, was to evaluate the effectiveness of Iran`s formal English teaching program in the province of Gilan from the instructors` and students` perspectives, and in particular, finding out if there is a match between students` linguistic needs and the evaluation methods used at school. The Stufflebeam`s (1971) CIPP (context, input, process, and product) evaluation model was used as the framework of the present study. Quantitative techniques of data collection was applied in this evaluation study. As for quantitative data, a self-reported questionnaire for students' needs analysis consisting of 15 items, a questionnaire on students` needs as perceived by teachers comprising of 15 items. To evaluate and analyze the data obtained through the questionnaire, descriptive and inferential statistics were used.

Participants

Since the present study was going to take place in the province of Gilan, Iran, the participants were students and teachers of Junior High Schools in the same province. The population in this study consisted of two separate groups. The first was the students aged 13 to 15 and included both males and females. The second group included teachers of the Junior High Schools in Gilan, both male and female. Generally, the sample size required for a survey partly depends on the statistical quality needed for survey findings; this, in turn, relates to how the results will be used (Scheuren, 2004). Even so, there is no simple rule for sample size that can be used for all surveys. Much depends on the professional and financial resources available (ibid). Analysts maintain that a moderate sample size is sufficient statistically and operationally.

Five hundred students and one hundred teachers, out of whom five teachers were left out for their personal reasons, were **randomly selected schools** throughout thirteen cities in the province of Gilan. The students and teachers, who were considered to form the population of this study, were chosen through **cluster sampling** procedure. The student participants were both boys and girls with age range between thirteen and fifteen. The students in Iran at the Junior High School level do not study any special field of science; they receive general education. Cluster sampling is a probability sampling in which making

random sampling is more practical especially when the target population is widely dispersed (Dornyei, 2007). The dispersion in this study might be due to many factors such as the geographical location, students` entry level of knowledge, that is, their background knowledge in English, and also teachers` teaching experience which may vary from one to several years. Since the subjects were all Junior High School students and their teachers, such factors as age and sex were not accounted for in this study.

3.6 Instrumentation

As it has become evident so far, the present researcher intended to investigate and evaluate the Junior High School English evaluation methods in Gilan by using CIPP. To do so, a CIPP-based questionnaire was needed right at the beginning of the study. This became possible by using the ideas and views of experts in the field of education in general and language teaching and learning in particular. Some other CIPP-based questionnaires that had previously been used such as the ones by Birjandi and Nosratinia (2009) and Karatash (2011) were also consulted by the researcher. The questionnaires were designed with some subcategories consisting language needs, course book content, pedagogic tasks, and students` satisfaction from the program. The questionnaires were given to both students and teachers but with different

The student questionnaires were all prepared in their native Persian, so that respondents would feel more comfortable in expressing their ideas precisely

Questionnaire

After an extensive study of the literature, the data collection instrument, namely the questionnaires, was developed by the researcher himself. The researcher made an inclusive examination about the points posed through the analysis of the related articles, books, journals and theses conducted both in Iran and worldwide. Afterwards, in accordance with the relevant literature, the researcher designed a self-reported questionnaire for the students

Upon the researcher`s developing the questionnaire, it was evaluated by four English instructors and one statistics expert from the Department of Foreign Languages of Tabriz and Astara Islamic Azad Universities so as to ensure its content and face validity. Thirty students, who did not attend in the sampling, participated in a pilot testing, once the views of the professors were considered, to measure the reliability coefficient using alpha Cronbach`s Alpha.

Procedure

To gather data in such studies different techniques can be employed. These include asking the learners themselves through interviews or questionnaire, each of which is accompanied with merits and demerits. Interviews are greatly susceptible to being subjective and personal and therefore so varied from learner to learner. Consulting the teachers is also very time consuming. Other ways consist of reading the manuals and observing the classrooms where language instruction is taking place. However collected, such data will work as the foundation for designing a curriculum and framework for teaching that includes course objectives, methodology to be used, learner needs, course book and the tasks to be implemented. In this study, however, quantitative data were collected for evaluation purpose. Quantitative research is one of the research methodologies relying heavily on numbers in reporting results, sampling and provision of estimated instrument, reliability and validity. Similarly, quantitative researchers seek to establish relationships between variables and look for and sometimes explain the causes of such relationships (Fraenkel and Wallen, 2005).

To gather the data, the researcher-made questionnaire was piloted, consequently validated. Its reliability concerns also had to be determined through the pilot study of the questionnaires as well. As it was mentioned before, previously produced questionnaires such as the ones applied by Birjandi and Nosratinia (2009) and Karatash (2011) were used to form new questionnaires to elicit information from both students and the teachers. To get the information needed, it was essential to get the permission from the Education Organization in Rasht, the capital city of Gilan province. After determining the nature of the questions, the researcher prepared the final draft of the questionnaires to be delivered. Getting the consent of the teachers was another step before the questionnaires were delivered to both teachers and students. Then the questionnaires were presented to the participants of this study by either the researcher or by the team cooperating with him. The participants in turn were required to fill and return the

questionnaire to the researcher and his team. Using SPSS software the data were analyzed and findings were reported.

3.8 Data Analysis

The data collected through the questionnaires were compiled and the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences [SPSS] 21.0 program was employed to analyze the data. The students' answers in the questionnaire were examined for abnormalities and missing data. Since the data gathered from 9 students who participated in the study were incomplete, they were excluded from the analysis. Subsequently, the data were analyzed through both descriptive and inferential statistics.

To begin with, the researcher used descriptive statistics to describe the identified features of the data in the study. The frequencies, means, percentages, and standard deviations for the items were demonstrated. The researcher also employed inferential statistics to find out if any meaningful differences among variables existed.

In an attempt to answer question of the present study, i.e. *Is there any conformity between the evaluation system of English and the students` linguistic needs in the Junior High School?*, Chi square test was used to measure the compatibility and conformity between the evaluation systems employed in junior high schools and students` needs as perceived by the students. With the degree of freedom of 1 and the probability level of .05 the chi-square statistic achieved is 9.76, which is significant. Table 4.21 next page shows the quantitative findings.

Table 4.21 Conformity between the Evaluation System of English and Learner`s Needs as Perceived by Students

	Compatible	Incompatible	*Row Totals*
Interview	29	66	95
Monolog	44	51	95
Role Play	32	63	95
Listen and Write	25	70	95
Read and Write	36	59	95
Column Totals	166	309	475 (Grand Total)

5 Discussion and the Summary of the Findings.

This section presents the results of the study under the product component of CIPP introduced by Stufflebeam. Table 4.1 above shows the findings of the study in terms of the four dimensions of evaluation separately.

In this section, the product component of the evaluation was analyzed through the students' perception of the evaluation system in schools, its relevance with the course book content, pedagogical tasks and activities, and students` needs. All showed inconsistency and insufficiency between the students` linguistic needs and the evaluation system in Junior High Schools.

Every one of us should keep in mind that if something fits to all programs and all sorts of need types will not necessarily be a good element to be included in the educational program. That, of course, can be extended to all aspects of human life and not necessarily limited to educational contexts. In second or foreign language contexts a clearly designed curriculum, either by the ministry of education or institutionally prepared, usually sheds light on the path of teachers and learners. This framework should however be far from unorganized decisions, teachers` preferences and the current biases. In so doing, three elements should be taken into account. These three points have always been the aspiring questions for teachers and authorities in education in general and for language teachers and policy makers in particular. They include *who?, how?,* and *what?* They, respectively, refer to learners and teachers, teaching methodology, and the course book. If one chooses the immediately available book in the market which is regarded as the most favorable by the people but not suitable for a certain age group with their specific need types, the whole program may face a complete breakdown. Even the methodology that does not fit the goals and objectives of the course or the learners may yield the same disappointing result. The so called functional notional syllabus that is designed for early or elementary or intermediate foreign

language teaching, can prove irrelevant if the course is planned for a short term intensive type of program. In devising any educational course, needs analysis which intends to attain various type of information about learners and their objectives seems to be inevitable. Needs analysis which was first intended for ESP programs, gained reputation in the 80s and later became more popular in other general courses as well. As mentioned above in today`s educational courses, especially language courses, needs analysis is a corner stone and a fundamental step. This technique requires controlling both the current and future circumstances. In regards with the situations mentioned above facts about the learners such as the followings must be taken into accounts. Needless to mention that these are closely tied with the learner characteristics. These factors include socio-economical context in which learners have been brought up, their educational records, age range of learners and perhaps even their jobs, current linguistic knowledge of the learners and what they knew in the past. It is also important to notice if the present and past knowledge suffer from a gap or not, what styles and tasks the learners prefer, their time preferences, their talent and incentives. We must not forget that there need to be a reconciliation among students` goals, the stakeholders` expectations and the state or institutional program for teaching; therefore a wider and more comprehensive analysis of the context of education becomes inevitable. This study has proven that the inclusion of foreign language teaching in the school programs requires some careful considerations such as class duration, learner needs, a scheme for formative or summative assessment, existing resources, and a criterion for acceptability all of which compatible with the learner`s needs.

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WHICH COMPONENT OF INTELLIGENCE--WORKING MEMORY CAPACITY OR REASONING SKILL-- HAS MORE EFFECT ON EFL LEARNERS' ACQUISITION OF CONNECTORS?"

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ABSTRACT
IMPROVEMENT IN SOME OF THE COGNITIVE ABILITIES MAY BE CONDUCIVE TO A SECOND LANGUAGE SKILL BURGEONING (DEKEYSER, 2007).THIS RESEARCH WAS AN ATTEMPT TO FIND OUT THAT IMPROVEMENT IN WHICH OF THE COGNITIVE ABILITIES HAD MORE IMPACT ON LEARNING CONNECTIVES AS AN IMPORTANT ELEMENT OF L2 WRITING PERFORMANCE. TO THIS END, 60 JUNIOR STUDENTS MAJORING IN PSYCHOLOGY WERE RANDOMLY ASSIGNED INTO TWO GROUPS, EXPERIMENTAL (GEX) AND CONTROL GROUP (GCO). BOTH GROUPS HAD 6 SESSIONS OF WRITING TREATMENT IN CONNECTIVES. THE GEX WAS EXPOSED TO COGNITIVE INSTRUMENTS OF FLUID INTELLIGENCE AS N-BACK FOR WORKING MEMORY CAPACITY (WMC) ENHANCEMENT AND TO CATTELL'S TEST (1949) FOR REASONING ABILITY IMPROVEMENT. THE RESULTS SHOWED THAT THOSE WHO COULD REASON BETTER COULD GET BETTER SCORES IN THE TEST OF CONNECTIVES THAN THOSE WHO HAD STRONGER WMC.

KEYWORDS: FLUID INTELLIGENCE, N-BACK, WORKING MEMORY CAPACITY, REASONING ABILITY, CATTELL'S TEST, WRITING PERFOMANCE.

1.Introduction
According to Bergland (2013), fluid intelligence (Gf), the ability to solve problems independent of training, has a relationship with working memory capacity (WMC) (Jaeggi et al., 2008) and reasoning ability (Gustafsson, 1988).Martinez (2000) believes Gf is the ability to perceive complex relationships and solving new problems. It is the closest second-level factor to general intelligence (G) in Carroll's (1993) hierarchical model of intelligence. Gf is sometimes referred to as inductive reasoning or fluid reasoning ability. According to Krumm, Ziegler, and Buehner (2008), when Gf is decomposed into its components showing different cognitive properties, it may contribute to the academic performance. A learner can exploit her cognitively intellectual capacities to the optimum level if she is placed in a conducive environment (Chandra & Azimmudin, 2013). According to the literature, Gf and English writing performance share some basic elements, such as WMC and reasoning ability. Therefore, improving these cognitive abilities through practice may be conducive to learning writing in which connectives play an important role. According to Baddeley (1996) and Alloway and Alloway (2010), WM is activated in writing performance when writers have to keep information in their mind for further processing. Also, effective writing performance which is relying on application of connectives requires reasoning ability (Dafouz, 2008; Marandi, 2002). In the current research, n- back software was selected for WMC exposure (Jaeggi et al., 2008; Stephenson, 2010) and Cattell's Culture Fair Test was chosen for exposing to reasoning ability (Gustafsson, 1988; Horn & Cattell, 1966; Jaeggi et al., 2008).Then the effect of the exposure was investigated on the improvement of application of connectives through test of connectives. This study intended to answer the following questions:
Q1. Does enhancing cognitive abilities through practice affect learning connectives of EFL learners?
Q2.Which of the components of fluid intelligence--working memory capacity or reasoning skill-- has more effect on learning connectives of EFL learners?

2. Theoretical framework and statement of the problem
This study was formed based on three theories. First, Gf components and writing performance have some elements in common, such as WMC (Baddeley, 1996; Engle, Tuholski, Laughlin, & Conway, 2002; Kellogg, 1996) and reasoning ability (Dafouz, 2008; Marandi, 2002). Second, practice may prepare the way for second language learning in cognitive and educational psychology (Dekeyser, 2007). And the third

theory is that the effect of cognitive transfer through practice may be durable enough to affect skill learning (Kundu et al., 2013).

On the other hand, the present research was conducted because there was scarcity of research in role of practice in SLA (Dekeyser, 2007). O'Malley & Chamot (1990) contend that practice has been proved to be crucial for learners to restructure their mental concepts to achieve degrees of mastery in L2 writing. They also continue that since L2 writing is a very complex system of delivery, learners often find it difficult to develop all aspects of the writing stages simultaneously. Consequently, they may selectively use automatic aspects which have already been proceduralized. Also, Olive (2003) believes that WMC is related to writing skill but there is the shortage of research in this regard and it may be caused by the complexity of writing skill in L2.

In this research, the researchers attempted to improve two cognitive elements which were activated in writing performance. In fact, they strived to improve cognitive elements through exposure and practice to see the effect on a second language learning sub-skill, which was learning connectors. And finally they tried to find out which of the two cognitive abilities was more effective to be focused on for skill learning and academic achievement.

2.1WMC and n-back

According to Alloway and Alloway (2010), WM is the ability to hold information in head for further manipulation and processing. Also,WM is activated for temporarily manipulating information during cognitive tasks (Baddeley, 1996). It is exploited in a variety of higher order cognitive activities such as problem-solving, reasoning, and learning (Kyllonen & Christal, 1990). Besides, it is considered as a constraint for higher-order cognitive development, comprising controlled attention and reasoning. WM is the capacity of an individual to maintain temporarily a limited amount of information in mind that support various abilities, including learning, reasoning, and preparation for action (Baddeley & Hitch, 1974). Recent research studies related to WM offer flexibility of the WM system by showing improvements in both trained and untrained WM tasks.

Besides, Alloway and Alloway (2010) investigated the predictive roles of WM and intelligence in academic achievement. They assert that WM does not improve spontaneously in children with academic difficulties, but it may lend itself to the appropriate and relevant intervention. Therefore, according to the influx of the related study, learning reasoned based connectives (Dafouz, 2008; Marandi, 2002) as a cognitive task may not be an exception. Alloway and Alloway (2010) claimed that WMC can predict skills in reading, spelling, and math too.

Moreover, Shah and Miyake (1999) assert that WM is the ability to maintain information in memory during performing one or more tasks. According to them, WM has a very effective cognitive function which is not necessarily domain specific. It is also extremely pervasive in real life. The n-back task is an activity planned for WM improvement. Sometimes, it presents auditory and visual stimuli simultaneously. N-back is usually preferred over WM span tasks because they are complex in presentation and response. Learners with poor WM have problems following lengthy instructions to do one thing after another, because they forget the instruction before the whole sequence of actions has been completed. Furthermore, according to Gathercole and Alloway (2008), learners who intend to remember a complicated mental activity should invest on their WMC. According to Braver et al. (1997) WM load and brain activity in the prefrontal cortex of the brain have a linear positive relationship.

2.2 Fluid reasoning and Cattell's Test

Fluid or inductive reasoning ability involves going beyond the available evidence, drawing conclusions that are likely plausible but (often) not certain to be true (Vickers, 2012). In this form of logical reasoning, specific conclusions are generalized to general conclusions. It is the ability to discover the underlying traits such as, class membership, rule, concept and process that governs a problem or a set of materials. (Schneider & McGrew, 2012). However, nowadays inductive reasoning is a commonly used type of reasoning in education. In inductive process, we move from specific observations to the generalization freed logic from some of the hazards and limitations of the deductive thinking (Best & Kahn, 2006). Cattell's Culture Fair Test activates inductive reasoning ability to a great deal. It (1949) evokes the propensity of application of many different types of reasoning such as deductive and inductive ones which are inspired by rules or models respectively. Reasoning abilities requires a method to be measured.

It is typical to use a single task but as long as the ability is the matter, researchers propose the performance across some defined classes of tasks (Lohman & Lakin, 2009).

2.3 WM, reasoning and writing performance

WMC affects L2 writing performance (Engle, Tuholski, Laughlin, & Conway, 2002; Kellogg, 1996).The important implication of WM in writing was not enough detected until 1996 when two major research studies on the role of WM in writing were published (Kellogg, 1996; McCutchen, 1996). According to Bergsleithner (2010), the first question about writing performance (connectives) and WM is that whether there is a connection between WMC and L2 writing performance. The second question is the extent that L2 writing performance may be impressed by WMC. Basically, there is a hypothesis that there will be a statistically significant relationship between WMC and L2 writing performance, and WMC imposes some limitation on L2 writing performance. It is noteworthy to mention that appropriate application of connectives is necessary to retrieve an acceptable writing performance (Kolln & Funk, 2006).

Moreover, Olive (2003) contends that writing is one of the most cognitively complex abilities that individuals accomplish during their life. Writing performance engages a tremendous amount of cognitive pressure that act at different levels. Olive (2003) further continues that at the semantic level, planning processes construct a pre-verbal message that contributes to a message an author wants to communicate. During recent years, many researchers (Bergsleithner, 2010; Daneman and Carpenter, 1980; Mota, 2003) have verified the crucial role of WMC and its constraints on both, first language performance (L1) and second language performance (L2) in language comprehension and production. However, some researchers (Kellogg, 1996; McCutchen, 1996; Olive, 2003) have investigated the relationship between WMC and writing performance, both in L1 and L2.Olive (2003) believes WMC is highly related to writing skill but there is the shortage of research in this regard and it may be emancipated from the complexity of writing skill in L2.

In addition, according to Kane and Engle (2002), WM or controlled attention has limited capacity. Also, this may be reflected in writing performance especially when the writer has to produce a text quickly, under pressure (Ellis, 2005). Since WM plays a very crucial role in cognitive activities (Martinez, 2000), the researchers in this study make efforts to activate WMC to improve cognitive skill performance such as application of connectives in writing performance.Moreover, researchers such as (Abu-Rabia, 2003; Hayes & Grawdol-Nash, 2006; McCutchen, 1996; Olive, 2003) have claimed that writing certainly engages many cognitive abilities that govern different levels of representation. Before writing, writers usually have time to plan and think about some ideas during the writing process. This reflection implies that WMC manages several simultaneous processes. One of the models of WM and writing was proposed by Hayes and Flower (1980) which verifies three phases of writing: planning, translating and revising processes. As it is mentioned, ideas should be related to each other in a logical way. This relationship may be causal (so, as a result), temporal (next, then, first), contrastive (however, on the other hand), or additive (and, in addition, moreover) (Kolln & Funk, 2006).

Table 1. The list of connectives worked on during 6 treatment sessions.

First session	Conflict: but, however, to the contrary, in contrast
Second session	Addition: furthermore, besides, additionally, moreover
Third session	Similarity: in the same way, similarly, likewise, by the same token
Fourth session	Cause: because, for, since, because of
Fifth session	Effect: thus, therefore, for this reason, consequently
Sixth session	Emphasis: Specifically, explicitly, significantly, surprisingly

Coordinating conjunctions connect words, phrases and clauses. They form a bridge that let the readers know two things are connected to one another. To this end, writers need to know how to use connectives to restore logical relations to their written productions (Dafouz, 2000). Marandi (2002) asserts

that reasoning ability should exist to restore coherence to learners' written products. She also claims that connectives which are reason based rather than mechanical devices, make the text semantically coherent and reasonable. Also, Dafouz (2008) calls connectives as markers which create semantic and structural relations between pieces of discourse.

3. Method

3.1Participants

A total of 92 female students at intermediate level majoring in Psychology participated in this study. They were all from Refah University. The participants' age ranged from 18 to 24. The mean age was 21.They all took PET (Preliminary English Test) to be checked for their level of proficiency. They also took Cattell's Culture Fair Test (1949) to see if they were homogenous in their level of Gf. Also, they all took the test of connectives in order to become homogenous in their knowledge of connectives (see tables 2, 3, 4 &5). The extreme scores were excluded and participants whose scores fell between one standard deviation below and above the mean were 63.They were randomly assigned into two groups, the control group (Gco) which consisted of 30 participants and the experimental group (Gex) which consisted of 33 participants. The outliers were deleted from the whole process and each group contained 30 participants.

3.2 Instruments

3.2.1 PET for proficiency

PET was used to check the participants' level of proficiency. It is Preliminary English Test, level B1 of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). The test includes exactly the same tasks and question types as Cambridge English Preliminary for Schools .Participants needed to use English in everyday situations in reading and writing. The paper-based and reading-writing version of the test was used for the current study. The test consisted of 40 questions and took 90 minutes.

3.2.2 Test of connectives

The test of conjunctions was a 40 item test. The estimation of reliability was obtained as 0.75. It has to be mentioned that Kuder-Richardson (KR-21) Formula was used to measure the reliability index of the current test. The validity was based on evidence based content by experts.

The items had two types of recognition and production such as multiple choice items and cloze tasks. The test input was based on "Active Skills for Reading" (Book 1) by Anderson (2007) and "Select for Reading" (Pre- intermediate) by Lee & Gunderson (2002). The given time to take the test was 90 minutes.

3.2.3 Computer Lab

The computer lab of Refah Humanitarian Science Faculty was used for data collection of the research. This lab was equipped with 30 personal computers (PCs) each of them could be used for one student.

3.2.4 N- back task

N-back is a relevant software, which improves and measures WMC depending on the goals of the applicants (Engle, 2002; Farvardin et al., 2014; Jaeggi et al., 2008; Stephenson, 2010). Besides, the n-back version which was used in this study provided the participants with one modality as visual channel and it was not the same as other confusing versions of dual-mode ones. Moreover, the localized version of n-back which was developed by Khodadady et al., (2014) had been used by the participants. The Gex became familiar with the application of n-back in computer website for 90 minutes one week before the treatment sessions started. Participants started with n=1.The highest number of "n" in this study was determined as n=3. The participants had the total number of 6 sessions of 60-minute exposure twice a week which made the total time of 360 minutes. Participants had to see 60 items on the screen and chose the correct answer as they were instructed. Scores were registered at the end of each round. This software is designed in a way that each round with a fix level of "n" should be handled first, then the participants will be transmitted to the next level of "n". The 2-back task felt harder than the 1-back task. The participant's response in the current round was based on what the participant saw two rounds ago. The highest number of "n" in this study was determined as n=3.

3.2.5 Cattell's Culture Fair Test

Cattell's (1949) Culture Fair Test was used as a Gf and inductive fluid reasoning ability measurement which was used in the present study. The test encompassed four problem subtests which had time restrictions. The subtests had 14 items which measured the participants' fluid reasoning. The exposure time was exactly like that of n-back task and was 360 minutes. The participants were holding copies of

questions in each session. The researchers explained the first three sample items and different types of reasoning by using connectives. The participants needed to know several reasoning types to arrive at the right answer some of which were inductive reasoning, linear and non-linear, and pragmatic reasoning. Besides, they were prompted to reason the items by turn or randomly assigned. The test items were discussed in order. The subjects listened to their peers' thinking aloud too. They reasoned about each item, as the researcher supervised and consulted them (see figure 1)

3. 3 Procedure

After becoming homogenous in level of proficiency, the participants in Gco and Gex became homogenous regarding their level of Gf through Cattell's Test and then their knowledge of connectives through the test of connectives.

Then, both Gco and Gex participated in writing treatment. They had 6 sessions of connective instruction. Each session was 60 minutes. They were supposed to learn 4 connectives in each session. The researchers provided the participants with some examples of each connectives in context within full contexts. Then, they distributed some papers with examples of connectives written on them. Participants read the examples and noticed how the connectives were applied to join the sentences together. Then they produced their own examples orally and the researchers wrote some of them on the board. It is worth to mention that the only treatment done for Gco is writing treatment.

Then, Gex had 6 sessions of exposure to n-back. Each session lasted for 60 minutes. When the n-back treatment was over, Gex took an immediate post-test in connectives. The post-test was the same as the pre-test.

Next, the Cattell's Test treatment started. The treatment time was the same as the n-back treatment, i.e., 6 sessions of 60 minutes working on reasoning fluidly on Cattell's Test items through application of connectives. Again, when the program was over, an immediate post-test in connectives was administered. The process of reasoning was performed by the researchers through the Cattell's Test on each session. The participants were encouraged to reason using connectives similar to the researchers. Here is an example of Cattell's Test.

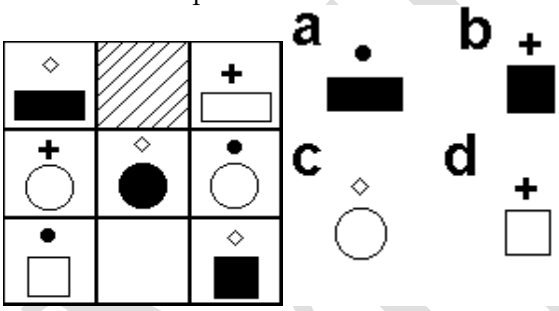

Figure1.An example of Cattell's Culture Fair Test

Here is the way the reasoning was modelled by the researchers:

The first rectangle is filled, with a hollow diamond on top; ***however***, the second one is hollow, with a plus on top. ***Furthermore***, in the second row the circle is hollow with a plus on top. ***In contrast***, the middle circle is filled, with a hollow diamond on top. Similar to the first cell, there is a hollow circle with a filled circle on top in the last cell. ***Moreover***, in the last row there is a hollow square with a filled circle on top; ***surprisingly***, there is a blank, ***finally***, there is a filled square with a hollow diamond on top. ***Accordingly***, choice "d" is correct; because a hollow shape with a plus is missing. Inductive reasoning, linear and non-linear and pragmatic reasoning types are practiced to arrive at the right answer. The whole items of Cattell's Test were discussed with the same process. When the Cattell's Test treatment was over, Gex took an immediate post-test in connectives. The post-test was the same as the pretest.

4. Results

4.1 Results of homogeneity test of Gf

Table 2.Participants' descriptive statistics

Group Statistics					
	Gco	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Gex	1.00	30	7.00	1.00	.00
	2.00	30	7.00	1.00	.00

Table 3. An independent sample *t*-test to check participants' homogeneity of Gf

		Leven' sTest	***t*-test for Equality of Means**						
		Sig.	t	df	Sig.	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence	
								Lower	
Gex	Equal variances assumed	.10	.00	58	.10	.00	.00	.00	.
	Equal variances not assumed		.00	55	.10	.00	.00	.00	

To see if there was any statistically significant difference between the levels of Gf of two groups, an independent sample *t*-test was administered. There was no statistically significant difference in scores for Gco (M= 7, SD= 1) and Gex (M= 7, SD= 1; t (58) = .00, p < .10.

4.2 Results of homogeneity test of connectives

Table 4.Participants' descriptive statistics

Group Statistics					
	Gex	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Gco	1.00	30	11.00	5.03	.00
	2.00	30	12.00	5.00	.00

Table 5. An independent sample *t*-test to check participants' homogeneity in connectives

		Leven' sTest								
		Sig.	T	df	Sig.	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence		
								Low	up	
Gex	Equal variances assumed	.10	.07	58	.10	.10	1.00	2.00	2.00	.
	Equal variances not assumed		.07	57	.10	.10	1.00	2.00	2.00	

To see if there was any statistically significant difference between the mean scores of connectives test, an independent sampls *t*-test was administered. There was no statistically significant difference in scores for Gco (M= 11, SD= 5.03) and Gex (M= 12, SD= 5.00); t (58) = .07, p < .10.

Also, to verify the null hypothesis, "improving cognitive abilities through practice does not affect learning connectives of EFL learners" , the researchers carried out a paired samples *t*-test to compare the post-test scores of connectives after being exposed to n-back and Cattell's Test.

Table 6. *Descriptive Statistics of Participants*

Paired Samples Statistics					
		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	n-back	21.83	30	5.29	.967
	Cattell	25.30	30	5.49	1.00

Table 7. *A Paired Samples T-test to compare the post-test scores in Gex after two interventions*

Paired Samples Test									
		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	n-back Cattell	-3.46	4.93	.900	-5.30	-1.62	3.85	29	.001

A paired-samples *t*-test was administered to compare the mean scores of post-tests of connectives in Gex after being exposed to n-back and Cattell's test. There was a statistically significant difference between the post-test score after n-back exposure (M=21.83, SD= 5. 29) and post-test score after Cattell's test exposure (M=25.30, SD= 5.49), t (29) = 3.85 $p < .05$. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected. In fact, it can be concluded that enhancing cognitive abilities affect learning connectives of EFL learners.

To verify the second null hypothesis: "neither working memory capacity nor reasoning skill—has some effect on learning connectives of EFL learners," the following data analysis was performed. A paired samples *t*-test was administered to compare the pre and post-test scores in connectives after exposure to n-back, (see tables 8 & 9)

Table 8. *Participants' Descriptive Statistics*

		Mean	*N*	*Std. Deviation*	*Std. Error Mean*
Gex	Pre	11.00	30	5.03	.00
	post	12.00	30	4.00	.00

Table 9. *Paired Samples t-test to Compare Pre & Post-test Scores after Exposure to n*-back

Paired Differences								
				95% Confidence				
	Mean	**Std.**	**Std. Error**	**Lower**	**Upper**	**t**	**df**	**Sig**
Gex pre-post	**-1.00**	**1.00**	**.00**	**-1.00**	**.00**	**-5.00**	**29**	**.00**

A paired samples *t*-test was administered to evaluate the impact of n-back on learning connectives. There was a statistically significant difference between the pre-test (M=11, SD= 5.03) and post-test (M=12, SD= 400), t (29) = 5.00, $p < .05$.

Also, to see if there was any statistically significant difference between the mean scores of post-test and pre-test in connectives after exposure to Cattell's test, a paired samples *t*-test was administered (see tables 10 & 11).

Table 10. *Descriptive Statistics of Participants*

		Mean	**N**	**Std. Deviation**	**Std. Error Mean**
Gex	Pre	11.00	30	5.03	.00
	Post	12.00	30	4.00	.00

Table 11. *The results of paired samples t-test for exposure to Cattell's Test*

Paired Differences								
				95% Confidence				
	Mean	Std.	Std. Error	Lower	Upper	t	df	Sig
Gex pre-post	-1.00	1.02	.00	-2.00	-1.00	-9.00	29	.00

A paired samples *t*-test was administered to evaluate the impact of Cattell's Test on learning connectives. There was a statistically significant difference between the pre-test (M=11, SD= 5.03) and post-test (M=12, SD= 400), t (29) = 9.00, $p < .05$. Therefore, t score obtained from n-back exposure was reported as (-5.00); whereas, t score obtained from the exposure to Cattell's Test was reported as (-9.00). The difference between mean scores was 4. In fact, more improvement in the amount of t score after exposure to Cattell's Test indicated that reasoning element emancipated from practice with Cattell's Test was more effective in improving scores of connective test. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected. Thus, exposure to reasoning ability is probably more effective if one wishes to improve her knowledge of English connectives in writing performance

5. Discussion and conclusion

As the statistical analyses indicated, practicing cognitive skills through their related instruments as n-back for WMC enhancement and Cattell's Test for reasoning ability improvement were conducive to learning connectives. Therefore, the result of the current study was in the same line as research studies conducted by DeKeyser (2007) who asserts that practice is of great significance in skill acquisition domains in both cognitive and educational psychology. Moreover, Anderson's adaptive control of thought (ACT) theory (2000) in cognitive psychology, is relying on practice as an instrument that can transform knowledge to skill. Besides, the significant result after exposure to cognitive skills, such as n-back and Cattell's Test, could be partially associated with cognitive transfer. Kundu et al., (2013) assert that the effect of exposure to cognitive instruments should be strong adequately to affect other cognitively related domains of skill learning and also the effect should be durable enough to be effective. The present research was conducted about the span of two months and the results proved the sustainability of the effect of the exposure. The cognitively dependent skills in this study could be counted as attentional control, reasoning and WMC which could probably affect a cognitive domain of skill (learning connectives) through transfer. Therefore, enhancing cognitive abilities through practice affected learning connectives of EFL learners in Gex. In addition, the results of comparison between growing scores of pre and post-tests obtained from exposure to n-back and Cattell's Test in Gex, indicated that although participants in Gex could ameliorate their connectors post-test scores after exposure to n-back, they could increase their connectors post-test scores more significantly after being exposed to Cattell's Test. In fact, the statistical analyses indicated that exposure to Cattell's Test items was more effective to improve the post-test scores of connectives. In other words participants with higher ability in inductive reasoning power (Gf) could improve their scores in test of connectives. To put it in a nut shell, those EFL learners who can reason fluidly better, are more fluidly intelligent ones and they can get better scores in their L2 writing skill.The more effectiveness of exposure to Cattell's Test may be attributed to the following reasons: According to Zahner and Moschkovich (2010), group work gives chances to learners to be involved in classroom discourse, to develop a shared understanding of their ideas, and increase the accountability of their choice. Furthermore, the results of the current research indicate that making EFL writers mentally ready to apply the most of their ability in reasoning through reason based instrumentation such as Cattell's Test , can be invested as an aiding technique to prompt the EFL learners reach their real life goals regarding L2 writing performance. The results of this research can help material developers, large scale test designers and stakeholders to insert the pivotal idea of teaching how to improve WMC and how to reason fluidly in problem solving to approximate academic achievement as the intention of the current study implied.

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MJLTM

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN METALINGUISTIC KNOWLEDGE IN ENGLISH AND STUDENT'S ORAL PROFICIENCY

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Abstract

This study examines the relationship between learners' english metalinguistic knowledge and oral proficiency in two different settings. (traditional and intensive courses) . Participants included 46 intermediate students at zanjan language institue. The selection violated the randomization criterion. Thus, the quasi-experimental was taken for the current study. Nelson english language proficiency test (nelpt) as a placement test used to measure level of students prior to the experiment, a metalinguistic knowledge test (met) and, an oral proficiency test also, administered at the end of the course to measure their metalinguistic knowledge and oral proficiency. The data collected from the administration of the above mentioned tests . In order to find any relationship between the variable, a pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was used. The results revealed that there was a significant relationship between metalinguistic knowledge and the students' oral proficiency of the ts or is at the end of the semester. That is to say, those participants who scored higher on the test of mke also had a higher oral proficiency score. The findings also, indicated that is courses could be of greate asisstence in enhencing oral language proficiency and metalinguistic knowledge. Furthure research is required before the findings of the study can be generalized.

Key Terms: *Metalinguistic Knowledge*, *Language Proficiency, Learning Context*

1. Introduction

Human beings can share their ideas and thoughts with each other by the use of language. Language is the system of human communication which consists of the structured arrangement of sounds into larger units such as morphemes, words, sentences, utterances (Richards & Schmidt, 2010). The process of communication by the use of English is primarily based on main skills of a language i.e. speaking, listening, reading and writing. Learning language skills has important roles in learner's function and their communication in the real world (Brown, 2007).

As Payne and Ross (2005) put it the ultimate goal of language education for many second language learners and instructors is to express themselves effectively and appropriately during an oral conversational exchange with native or expert speakers. As a result, researchers in the field have grappled with understanding, operationalizing, and testing oral proficiency (Payne & Ross, 2005). A closer look at EFL learning in Iranian educational system indicates that the educationalists are trying to develop pedagogical approaches and activities that promote second language speaking ability. According to Byrnes (2007) gaining an advanced level of oral proficiency in an EFL context is not an easy task to achieve unless learners are involved in a combination of various learning opportunities. She suggests that language education is a dynamic rather than a linear process.

In the recent years, the question of to what extent the metalinguistic knowledge contribute to overall second language proficiency has been an ongoing discussion in the field of teaching English as a foreign or second language. According to Roehr (2006) metalinguistic knowledge is the learner's explicit or declarative knowledge about the syntactic, morphological, lexical, pragmatic and phonological features of the second language. He also suggests that metalinguistic knowledge is an effective factor that helps

improve language proficiency in a second language context. Accordingly, without basic metalinguistic knowledge such as noun, adjective, and present perfect, learners will have difficulty understanding explanations by teachers and textbooks for such test items. Before metalanguage can be used to describe another language, metalanguage itself needs describing and explaining to be understood by the audience (Berry, 2005).

Regarding second/foreign language proficiency, Richards and Schmidt, (2010, p.321) define it as "the degree of skill with which a person can use a language, such as how well a person can read, write, speak, or understand language. This can be contrasted with language achievement, which describes language ability as a result of learning. Proficiency may be measured through the use of a proficiency test ". Moreover, Bachman and Palmer (1996) remark that second language proficiency is the learners' knowledge of second language grammar and vocabulary. According to Hu (2011), there has recently been a considerable change in the notion of linguistic proficiency in the field of second language acquisition (SLA). Omaggio-Hadley (2001) proposes that traditionally, language proficiency was measured solely as students' "structural accuracy" or their knowledge of language structures with very little focus on how to put these structures into use. Previous studies suggest that after the notion of communicative competence emerged, language proficiency was not considered only as the knowledge of a language's phonology, syntax, vocabulary, and semantics, but it was also viewed as the ability to use this knowledge in real-life situations (Canale& Swain, 1981; Nowroozi, 2011; Shaw, 1992).

As mentioned above, Many studies (e.g., Elder &Manwaring, 2004; Roehr, 2008; Roehr, 2006;) have been conducted in investigating correlations between language proficiency and metalinguistic knowledge have found positive correlations between the two.

In spite of the above-mentioned research studies, no studies have been conducted in investigating the relationship among language proficiency, metalinguistic knowledge, and learning contexts of Iranian EFL learners.

They recently developed communication-based coursebooks in the EFL setting in Iran may be in line with the idea that Byrnes (2007) proposes. She suggests that with the advent of multiculturalism and globalization, L2 proficiency has gained significance in the areas of curriculum designing, instruction, and assessment. Previous study indicates that since listening and speaking are more spontaneous language skills and students need to process information before producing, metalinguistic knowledge is not strongly correlated with speaking ability. The previous review of literature indicates that traditional settings of L2 education lack the ability to help improve L2 oral performance. The new intensive setting may prove more beneficial in improving metalinguistic knowledge and L2 proficiency of the learners.

One of the reasons for this study was that the researcher who is also an EFL instructor taught in classes in which some learners complain about the length of the courses they take. One of the most common questions that students ask repeatedly is that how long this course will last. Sometimes they do not register in classes unless they are assured that they will gain mastery on the second language in a short period of time. Although a shorter instructional period may be attractive to many students but it may fail to provide adequate practice time to significantly improve the level of language proficiency.

As mentioned above, during the last three decades EFL/ESL educators and researchers witnessed a drastic change in the notion of competence. Thus they carried out an array of research projects to investigate the most advantageous methods of second language acquisition. Following the same lines this piece of research seeks to contribute to further examine two external factors believed to influence second language learning in an EFL setting. Having a profound understanding of how different factors affect language acquisition might help all stakeholders to focus upon a curriculum that is beneficial to EFL education in Iranian context. *Related literature*

Much of the recent research that has been conducted in learning contexts has dealt with language proficiency under the widely held assumption that SA and IM contexts result in higher language

improvement than other types of contexts because of the extensive comprehensible input and sizable amount of speaking practice with native speakers (DeKeyser, 1991; Serrano, 2011). In these studies, language proficiency has been measured and considered mainly as oral proficiency (Golonka, 2006; Rifkin, 2005; Segalowitz & Freed, 2004), which is operationalized as an oral proficiency interview. In other studies, language proficiency has been measured as oral fluency, which has been referred to as smoothness of language (Freed et al., 2004; Segalowitz and Freed, 2004) or use of communication strategies (DeKeyser, 1991). One of the main studies conducted on intensive instruction is Jacques-Bilodea's (2010). She investigated the long-term effects of intensive English programs on secondary school ESL students. She found that the intensive English program is a strong source of motivation for students to continue learning English at school and at home on a long-term basis. The majority of the participants felt that their oral competencies were better than other students who had not participated in intensive English programs. They also reported that they really enjoyed the intensive English classes.

The relationship of metalinguistic knowledge and L proficiency has been highly debated in recent years (Hu, 2002; Hu, 2011; Serrano, 2011).). There are a number of studies that have investigated the relationship between metalinguistic knowledge and second language proficiency. Metalinguistic knowledge has been shown to be beneficial when predicting learner outcomes such as reading, writing and speaking (Golonka, 2006). Some researchers have found significant relationships between metalinguistic knowledge and all language skills (Rifkin, 2005), others have found strong relationships when proficiency is operationalized as reading, writing or grammar ; (Hu, 2011; Elder & Manwaring, 2004; Roehr, 2008), and other studies have found only weak relationships (Alderson, Clapham, and Steel 1997; Elder, et al., 1999). Sorace (1985) investigated the metalinguistic knowledge of two intact groups of L2 learners of Italian and discovered that they did better in oral production tasks if they had a good command of metalinguistic knowledge. Alderson, Clapham, and Steel (1997) in a study measuring L2 proficiency and explicit knowledge of French students, showed that there are low correlations between the two tests of metalinguistic knowledge and second language proficiency. This positive correlation was also revealed in a study by Renou (2001) who examined the relationship between metalinguistic knowledge and French L2 proficiency of sixty-four university-level L2 learners whose first language was English. While a positive correlation between metalinguistic knowledge of third-person singular possessive determiners and performance in an open ended oral production task was discovered by White and Ranta (2002) for both control group as well as treatment group before instruction, the correlation between metalinguistic knowledge and the oral production task was not statistically significant for the treatment group after teaching of those grammatical structures. Hu (2002) discovered that learners function superior in spontaneous writing tasks if they had the knowledge of some English grammatical structures. In a study examining the relationship between performance and metalinguistic knowledge, Elder and Manwaring (2004) uncovered that more metalinguistic knowledge resulted in better performance and functioning for some participants in their study. In a study investigating the relationship between metalinguistic knowledge and L2 proficiency of five intact groups of learners, three freshman groups and two senior groups, Roehr (2008) revealed that there is a strong positive correlation between the two variables. Elder (2009) examined that although different parts of Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) and the International English Language Testing System (IELTS) have significant correlations with a metalinguistic knowledge test.

Roehr (2008) looked at the relationship between L1 English speakers' metalinguistic knowledge and their proficiency in the L2 (German).Roehr operationalized proficiency using a combined grammar and vocabulary test. She found that L2 metalinguistic knowledge and L2 grammar and vocabulary were strongly and significantly correlated. Hanson (2013) studied the relationship between two learning contexts (traditional and intensive contexts) on oral proficiency, metacognitive knowledge of English, and metacognitive knowledge of Spanish. She employed a computerized oral proficiency interview to measure oral proficiency and two different measures of metacognitive knowledge were employed to examine the participants metacognitive knowledge in English and Spanish languages. The study found that learners in a traditional setting have a significantly higher level of metacognitive knowledge of both Spanish and English. It was also suggested that there was a significant relationship between learners' metacognitive knowledge and their oral proficiency. Fatahi Milasi & Pishghadam (2007)

explored the role of explicit knowledge in general language proficiency and the interplay of explicit and implicit knowledge in grammaticality judgements and found that there was a strong relationship between both groups' performance on the two measures. Alipour (2014) carried out a study in Iranian EFL setting. She aimed at providing further insight into the relationship between metalinguistic and linguistic knowledge. To this end thirty-eight university students took two tests (metalinguistic and linguistic cloze test) in the study. Their tests were analyzed for accuracy. Bivariate correlation and paired sample t-test were conducted. She discovered that there was a moderate positive relationship between L2 learners' metalinguistic knowledge and the ability to correct, describe, and explain L2, and their proficiency in l2.

Objective and Research Question

The ultimate goal of the current research was to study the relationship among learning context, levels of oral proficiency and levels of metalinguistic knowledge of the Iranian intermediate EFL learners. That is to say, the current research was designed to contribute to fill the gaps in research in Iranian EFL setting considering three interrelated constructs: oral proficiency, metalinguistic knowledge, and learning contexts. In particular, the present study purpose was to examine the relationship between learners' English metalinguistic knowledge and oral proficiency in two different settings.

Based on the main purpose of the present study, the following question was made:

RQ: Is there any significant relationship between metalinguistic knowledge in English (MKE) and student's oral proficiency at the end of semester?

In order to answer to the above research question, the following research null hypotheses was proposed:

H0: There is no significant difference between the Metalinguistic knowledge in English (MKE) and student's oral proficiency at the end of the semester.

2. Methodology

Quantitative method was followed to address the research question. The design used in this research was a quasi-experimental one in that the participants were not randomly selected. Researcher used self-selection, in which the participants were assigned arbitrarily to one of the experimental or control groups.

participants

Based on the Cochran's sample size formula and Nelson English Language Proficiency Test, 46 out of 95 Iranian EFL learners from five language classes in Shoukoh language institute, Zanjan, Iran were selected. Their age ranged between 16 to 23. In addition, participants' gender was not taken into account as a variable in this study. The proficiency level of these students was evaluated as intermediate and according to the CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages) levels.

Instruments

The instruments applied in the study included a standard Nelson English Language Proficiency Test, to select the most homogeneous participants regarding their language proficiency. It comprising, listening comprehension, reading comprehension and grammatical structures in multiple-choice form. Being piloted on 22 students, the reliability was measured to be 0.78. The second instrument was a metalinguistic knowledge test given at the end of the course**.** This test adapted from Roehr (2008) consisted of three parts: Grammatical Categories & Functions, English Error Identification and, Words in Sentences. The metalinguistic knowledge test piloted on another 22 students with the reliability of 0.82. To investigate the participants' oral skill at the end of the study oral proficiency test was conducted. This test consisted of 17 questions, and the participants had two minutes to answer each item. It was adopted

from the speaking sections of TOEFL tests during 2010 to 2015. An oral proficiency test also, piloted on another 22 students with the reliability of 0.77.

Procedure

The NELPT was administered among 95 language learners in the second semester in 2016 at English classes in Shoukoh language institute, Zanjan, Iran. All of the participants were supposed to take this placement test. The allotted time for this test was 100 minutes. Then, based on the results of the placement tests and Cochran's sample size formula, 46 students were selected. That is to say, the participants scoring one standard deviation (+1SD) above the mean and one standard deviation (-1SD) below the mean were selected. After the homogeneity of the students was assured, they were divided into two equal groups (N=22). First group, that was the control group, enjoyed a traditional method of language education but the other group, the experimental group, was taught the same material in a more intensive setting. In the traditional setting students took part a 4-month term meeting twice a week. In the intensive setting the participant took part 6 days a week for two month. In both settings, each session lasted 90 minutes. Both groups were taught by the same teacher, using the same book. "*English Result intermediate*" was the course book used as the main material for study. The data processed and analyzed through SPSS software and using , One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov and, in order to find any relationship between the variables, a Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient was used.

3. Results and Discussion

In order to answer the research question, First of all, check their normality statistically, One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov was conducted for the Tests. Table 1, Table 2, and, Table3.

Table 1.

One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test of NELPT

		Scores
N		95
Normal Parameters	Mean	78.5
	SD	5.44
Kolmogrov Smirnov Z		.788
Asymp. Sig.(2-tailed)		.563

Table 2.

One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test of Metalinguistic Test

		Test in Control Group	Test in Experimental Group
N		23	23
Normal Parameters	Mean	78	82
	SD	1.532	1.431
Kolmogrov Smirnov Z		.438	.439
Asymp. Sig.(2-tailed)		.246	.355

Table 3 .

One Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test of Oral test

		Test in Control Group	Test in Experimental Group
N		23	23
Normal Parameters	Mean	77	83
	SD	1.705	1.421
Kolmogrov Smirnov Z		.411	.456
Asymp. Sig.(2-tailed)		1.23	.423

As it is shown in above tables, the data was statistically normal as well, since all the significant levels of the One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov reported for the data were greater than .05. After ensuring the normality of the data sets, in order to find any relationship between the variables, a Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient was used.

Table 4.

Correlations Between Metalinguistic Knowledge (MK) and Oral Proficiency (OP) of The EFL Students at the End of the Semester

		MK	OP
MK	Pearson Correlation	1	.689*
	Sig.(2-tailed)		0.000
	N	23	23
OP	Pearson Correlation	.689*	1
	Sig.(2-tailed)	0.000	

According to the results of Table 4, as the significance level was 0.000 and it was smaller than error value 0.05 ($p < 0.05$). It meant that there was significant relationship between metalinguistic knowledge and the students' oral proficiency at the end of the semester. Therefore, the third null hypothesis of the study was rejected. In other words, the result was strong enough to reject the null hypothesis. Moreover, the Correlation Coefficient (r) was equal to 0.689 that indicated the correlation between metalinguistic knowledge and the students' oral proficiency at the end of the semester. Accordingly, the research null hypothesis could not be confirmed.

Regarding the above research question, the results revealed that there was a significant relationship between learner's metalinguistic knowledge and oral proficiency of the TS or IS. That is to say, those participants who scored higher on the test of MKE also had a higher oral proficiency score. The findings of the present study are in line with the results of some studies such as (Bédard & Thomas 2010 ;Burton & Nesbile, 2002 ; Grant, 2001). They revealed that there is a positive correlation between metalinguistic awareness and L2 proficiency. For instance, in a follow-up study, Berry (2009) concluded that the students were different in their knowledge of MKE items, that MKE was considerably correlated with their top grades in English, indicating 'a correlation between knowledge of language and proficiency in English. Also, in another study conducted by Renou (2001), the results indicated that there was significant correlations between MKE and L2 proficiency in a sub-sample of learners being taught French as an L2 through the grammar approach. Additionally, Nagano (1995) found that IS might affect not only the learners' achievement but also their attitude toward learning English positively. In the same vein, Alipour (2014) argued that a moderate positive relationship between L2 learners' metalinguistic knowledge and the ability to correct, describe, and explain L2, and their proficiency in L2.

This study implies that there is the relationship between learners' oral proficiency and metalinguistic knowledge of the TS or IS. However, it should be noted here that there may be other variables that contribute oral proficiency in addition to MKE that were not investigated in the current study. This can be due to the fact that, based on correlational studies, It showed significant relationship between MKE and all language skills (Rifkin, 2005), other studies have revealed strong relationships when proficiency

was operationalized as reading, writing or grammar (Elder & Manwaring, 2004; Hu, 2011). In the same vein, Roehr (2008) looked at the relationship between L1 MKE and their proficiency in the L2 and found that there was a direct relationship between two variables. Furthermore, Xavier (2013) showed that the role of MKE and knowledge of technical terms in second language learning is important. However, these findings are inconsistent with some other studies such as Alderson et al.'s (1997), and Elder, et al.,'s (1999).They found only weak relationships. This difference can be explained by the number of participants and utilized instrument. They employed a MLAT test and an inductive Language Learning Test These variable might have resulted in contrasting findings.

3. Conclusion

In conclusion, the findings of the current study indicated that in the IS courses could be of great assistance in enhancing oral language proficiency and metalinguistic knowledge. In sum IS program can enhance the learners' motivation, commitment and engagement, and that learners believe IS programs are more stimulating, exciting, efficient, challenging and enjoyable than regular courses (Daniel, 2000; Jacques-Bilodea, 2010; Scott & Conrad, 1991). Indeed, IS programs can also lead to learners' better attendance and concentration (Daniel, 2000; Grant, 2001). Based on these studies, although EFL learners enhance their general knowledge of English through traditional courses, their progress might be considerably increased in English IS.

Implications

It is important to know that for EFL learners, oral proficiency is a key factor in language development. As the result indicated, metalinguistic knowledge effected on language proficiency, so language teachers should more focused on the development of MKE and language forms. Those EFL learners who instructed through intensive instruction were highly motivated. In view of that, it is proposed that language teachers use the intensive instructions to increase their learner's foreign language learning.

Limitations

It should, however, be noted that the current study has some limitations should be acknowledged at this point. The first one is due to the inability to control all the factors influencing learners' metalinguistic knowledge and language proficiency. The second one is related to number of the sample of study. To make the findings more generalizable, it is suggested to include more participants into the study and change the participants selection procedure. Also, future studies need to attend other factors influencing learners' metalinguistic knowledge and language proficiency. It would be necessary to observe as many sessions as possible in the TS and IS to have a better picture of the methods utilized in the individual classes.

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A QUALITATIVE STUDY OF THE IRANIAN DEAF STUDENTS' ATTITUDE TOWARDS POWERPOINT USAGE IN LEARNING ENGLISH

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Abstract

RECENT DEVELOPMENTS IN THE FIELD OF EDUCATION HAVE LED TO A RENEWED INTEREST IN USING POWER POINT FOR DEAF STUDENTS. BASED ON DIFFERENT STUDIES, THE POWERPOINT PROGRAM AS A COMMON MULTIMEDIA TOOL HAS A CRUCIAL ROLE IN

TEACHING AND LEARNING THROUGH PROVIDING A SUITABLE UNDERSTANDING OF THE TEXT AS WELL AS MOTIVATING STUDENTS. THIS PAPER HAS MAINLY FOCUSED ON EVALUATION OF THE DEAF STUDENT'S ATTITUDES TOWARD POWERPOINT USAGE IN ENGLISH LEARNING. THE CURRENT QUALITATIVE STUDY HAS AIMED TO ASSESS THE MOTIVATIONAL EFFECTS OF THE POWERPOINT PRESENTATION REGARDING TO PROMOTE READING COMPREHENSION SKILL OF DEAF AND HARD OF HEARING (D/HH) STUDENTS. TO THIS END, IN THE PRESENT RESEARCH A SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW WAS CONDUCTED ACROSS 8 MALE PARTICIPANTS OF D/HH WHO WERE EXPOSED THE POWERPOINT PRESENTATION IN ONE SEMESTER. THE QUALITATIVE DATA WERE ANALYZED USING MAX Q SOFTWARE. THE RESULTS HAVE REVEALED THAT MOST OF THE STUDENTS PREFERRED THE POWERPOINT PRESENTATION FOR ENGLISH LEARNING AND IT SEEMS THAT THIS TECHNOLOGY APPLICATION PROMOTES THEIR LEARNING INTEREST DUE TO INCREASINGLY ENGAGEMENT IN CLASS ACTIVITIES. THE FINDINGS HAVE ALSO DEMONSTRATED THAT MOST OF THE STUDENTS HAVE POSITIVE ATTITUDES TOWARDS POWER POINT AND USING IT IN LANGUAGE SKILLS TEACHING.

***Key words**: Deaf students; Reading Comprehension; Technology; PowerPoint; Visual intervention.*

Introduction

Recent developments in the field of education have led to a renewed interest in the PowerPoint usage in learning English. Today, developments of new technology increasingly help to remove educational difficulties, mainly for students with disabilities. Educational technology has been used by many persons based on teachers and learners' demands in recent years. Due to tremendous improvements in the technology area, learning a foreign language as a challenging process needs motivation and encouragement elements which affect student's attitude to create enjoyable tasks in classroom. Many researchers believe that integrating information and communication technology in education supports pupils in their own constructive thinking and engages them in cognitive operations (Teo, 2006). Pemberton, Borrego and Cohen (2006) conducted a study on using PowerPoint to enhance learning and found that the use of PowerPoint creates a strong learning environment and intrinsically motivate students to learn and participate in classroom activities. According to Ozaslan and Maden, (2013) as the student demographic change, there is a need to integrate technology into the field of education. One main domain of this technology is multimedia learning, which is applied in different forms such as computer mediated learning, role-game, PowerPoint, etc.

However, a major problem with PowerPoint is the use of it by deaf and hard of hearing. Although there have been some other researches on this issue especially during two past decades in Iran, though, there are some significant factors which should be put under emphasis to illustrate the attractiveness of more and more studies on it. So far, nevertheless, there has been little discussion regarding PowerPoint usage to promote the learning process of deaf and hard of hearing students. Hence, there will be some suggestions or advice as the result of this study which may help the curriculum designers face the problems in integrating PowerPoint into high schools EFL classrooms. By studying different situations involve individual with disability such as hard-of-hearing or deaf students, considering this point that our learners are individuals with specific limitations and educational needs, make a path to further research in this domain.

Today the more rely on PowerPoint as a multimedia aid and other visual presentation media in educational environment have made a necessity for more research in different areas especially assessing the effective factors in efficient learning. Some studies reported that differences in reading comprehension ability of D/HH students contribute to strategies and skills during reading, not to hearing loss level (Benedict, 2012).

Since nearly a high percentage of D/HH students struggle with literacy barriers, anticipating and managing a fundamental educational framework is needed to improve literacy-dependent skills and often it requires pause for consideration over monitoring and designing strategy. Genc Ilter (2009) and Moeller, Carr, Seaver, Stredler-Brown, & Holzinger, (2013) believed that technology usage in EFL classroom brings a lot of benefits into learning environment and provides real world in which students can be motivated easily. Through supplying digital stimuli, the perceptions and thinking process of

students are guided in a way that they effectively learn and progress based on some certain criterions for successful performance in academic area.

Like hearing bilingual peers, deaf students require learning environment in which there is minimum stress in instruction. There are many strategies that we can use to provide effective and productive learning condition for students with disabilities, specially deaf and hard-of-hearing students. Through different visual method and designing accessible soft-ware program such as PowerPoint under educational situation, we can relatively remove barriers in disable students' learning stream. It seems because of the physical and mental limitations among D/HH students in Iran, there isn't enough motivation and interest in learning English. Therefore, there should be some effective drivers to reveal their capacity in developing learning process. As a matter of fact, the current study aimed to help hearing impaired students who lack learning motivation mainly in English course book. This study used this model to understand students' attitudes and the factors that influence these attitudes. The successful integration of PowerPoint in education is largely affected by students' attitudes and their willingness to embrace the technology (Pekta & Erkip, 2006). Studying students' attitudes can help us to answer some questions relating to acceptance and usage of technology in teaching and learning.

Purpose of the Study

The researcher intended to explore the viewpoints of deaf students towards technology usage typically PowerPoint presentation in English learning as a second language.

Review of the Literature

In recent years, there has been an increasing amount of literature on deaf and hard of hearing students. Different studies worldwide offer various ideas regarding to use of assistive technology in educational setting. Many innovations in technology lead to effective-applied strategy in learning system. Strickland (2013) explains three complementary interconnections learning theory i.e. meta-cognation language transfer, intrinsic motivation and self-regulated learning. He claims that after teaching tool in the class, student motivation for engagement in an activity will be increased. Similarly, teacher can produce opportunity for students to reach intrinsic motivational learning, and apply adequate self-regulating strategies. Mayer (2009) believed that someone learns better from animation, pictures and words rather than words alone. He writes in his book "Multimedia Learning": "...multimedia designs that are consistent with the way the human mind works are more effective in fostering learning than those that are not" (p. 13), and has noted to cognition theory of multimedia learning and states that this theory involves three fundamental assumptions.

Garberoglio (2012) states in the point of technology aid, computer-mediated communication creates opportunity for meaningful interaction and allows direct, collaborating learning process, finally improves deaf students' motivation, attitude as well as self-efficiency. Ilter (2009) pointed out to the positive effect of technology on both teacher and student interest due to active mood in interactional environment. Ozaslan and Maden asserted that if the content is presented via PowerPoint as a typical visual tool, learning process will be facilitated and material appears more appealing. Samiei Lari (2014) believed that the most important aim of applying new methods of teaching language is to improve students' motivation towards learning process. She conducted a study across 28 female students of a secondary school in Lar. Based on the responses given by the experimental group to the questionnaire, the Samiei Lari's findings showed that most of students had a positive attitude towards using PowerPoint and they believed that benefits of PowerPoint promised facilitated learning. "Key features of active learning—discussions and exchanges, questions, improvisations, and off-the-map developments ensure that learners actively participate in knowledge creation rather than simply passively consume information" (Hill, Arford, Lubitow,& Smollin, 2012, p. 251).

Ozaslan and Maden examined the issues of PowerPoint presentation usage in the Department of Foreign Language Education (FLE) at Middle East Technical University (METU) with the aims to access the related attitudes of teachers and students towards this multimedia tool. The findings were obtained through interviews with 3 instructors who deliver lectures in linguistics, literature and English Language Teaching (ELT) methodology courses. The interview consisted of the general ideas about PowerPoint application, expectations and problems related to PowerPoint usage. The findings suggested positive

attitude of both teachers and students towards applying PowerPoint presentation. The teachers reported that the PowerPoint presentation is an effective tool in order to provide visual aids and they believed that it makes the course material more appealing and increases student's concentration on content in the class

Another study was conducted by Kahruman, cevik, and Kodan (2010) which investigated university students' attitude towards the use of PowerPoint according to some variables such as gender and academic units attended. The students were asked open ended questions to clarify their opinions concerning to the use of PowerPoint presentation. The findings obtained from qualitative data reported that students believed that through featuring visuals and increase motivation, as well as raising interest and attention of the PowerPoint presentation increase the retention of information in their mind. They stated that it is more beneficial when use PowerPoint in classes in which visual elements are in forefront than other classes and learning process take place more easier than traditional method.

In one case study, Mazlina, Ananthi, and Herawan (2012) have developed a new multimedia courseware for students with disabilities mainly hearing impaired pupils. They argued by this application, the deaf pre-school children could improve their sign language through watching video and colorful animation pictures to interaction with deaf peers. With providing the alphabetical selection and watching the pictures, the students will be allowed to select the number and picture along sign language explanation. During the study, researchers observe that the pre-school students understood about objectives of the materials tended to be taught and each of the pupils participate happily and enjoy with the courseware and at the end, they manage to face the learning objectives and choice the module. The designers of this multimedia courseware believe when the traditional method is taught, the students have to recall back pervious day lesson by teachers' explanation, while this method was used to make sure that the students remember the pervious materials which taught before by new courseware. Therefore, the multimedia system identifies some considerable advantages such as increasing language performance, and extra features of sing language in related area.

Davis (2012) pointed to incorporation of assistive technology (AT) devices as a facilitator in planning of instruction to increase interaction between all students with or without disability and with various needs and abilities. Davis conducted a phenomenological research on educator's perception and experiences regarding the use of AT for students with sever or multiple disabilities (SMD) in order to gain insight into their behaviors. His study involved 10 participants, nine women and one man, who were interviewed at four different schools. All were currently serving at least one student with SMD and all had experienced some type of AT devices with the student in the past. Based on the findings, Davis concluded that every educators working with student with SMD should receive training using AT to engage this population in literacy-related activity. He believed that AT as a key element in learning activity expanded collaboration with others and enhanced student engagement in learning process. Talebinezhad and Azizi Abarghoui (2013) reported the positive attitude of students toward integrating CALL into the curriculum in general. Their study consisted of 45 boys and 61 girls studying in first, second, third and pre-school classes. Based on the questionnaire data, they revealed positive attitude toward the use of CALL to improve reading and listening receptive skills. The researchers pointed out that the curriculum designers should work hard in order to offer sufficient references to the teaching English.

It is worthy to mention that, in most of the studies the hearing student's perceptions have been considered and deaf community and their educational attitudes toward the technology application mainly PowerPoint usage has been ignored. By the way, in addition to many researches, the current study aimed to explore the deaf viewpoints into motivational factors in language learning. This study can be useful for teacher to discover the crucial role of PowerPoint presentation in active engagement of deaf students in the classroom in order to introduce a useful foreign language teaching process.

Methodology

Participants and setting

The eight male D/HH students were recruited from Seyed Jamal Adin Asadabadi (Baghcheban) an urban exceptional school for deaf students located in Yousef Abad district in Tehran. The participants aged 17 - 21 and all of them had hearing loss. In the current study, the eight students were asked to participate in a semi-structured interview and to answer five pre-determined questions based on their

attitude towards implementation of technology devices such as PowerPoint presentation. Based on Creswell (1998), 7-10 participants are typically enough when a researcher wants to conduct the qualitative inquiry.

Instrument

A semi-structured interview was planned with pre-specified questions for gathering the qualitative data related to students' attitudes toward PowerPoint presentation. The data were analyzed using Max Q software. Max Q was common software which was used to describe the qualitative data and analyzing them.

Procedure

At first, the participants were asked to answer the interview questions and challenge their ideas in order to give more explanation about whether they prefer PowerPoint presentation or not and why. The statements were recorded and transcribed case by case by the researcher and interpreter. In the second stage, throughout determining the themes and concepts, and finding some similarities and common viewpoints regarding to PowerPoint usage, the coding process of data conducted in transcription, and interview information was categorized into meaningful segments based on various statements. The third stage involved examining primary theme as a separate entity. In the next stage through exploring connections between themes, the researcher was intended to decide which themes were central and which ones may be secondary for the study. Finally, by looking for meaningful relationships between themes, the data interpretation was conducted.

Transcripts of eight interviews were analyzed and description of responses represented in a framework in which the common comments were derived and were anticipated some specific themes related to integration of technology with learning English as a second language.

The participants were asked some main questions such as following questions:

- Do you have any background knowledge regarding PowerPoint program or not?
- Whether the PowerPoint presentation has been used in the class for non-English books?
- Do you think the PowerPoint presentation is beneficial for text understanding process? How? And, what is your idea about attractiveness feature of this method? Is it interesting program?
- What is your idea regarding use of colorful images and animation excited in this program? What do you think about it?
- Do you think these pictures and animations can affect your learning?

The voices and pictures of participants were recorded and analyzed using Max Q software. The records conveyed as a textual data to Max Q software and then similarities between the different ideas were extracted and finally the common themes were gained from descriptive data.

Results

The intention of the qualitative approach was to look for insights and to derive more information out of the deaf students' viewpoints. Due to paucity of qualitative research paradigm (Patton, 1990), the researcher was interested in delving into the essential role of technology in participants' language learning and their direct experiences with technological interventions.

The first interview question involved the pervious acquaintance of deaf students about PowerPoint usage in classroom. The majority of eight participants claimed that prior to the study they had not been exposed to such educational program and only three persons stated that they had slight knowledge about it. Nearly all of them thought may be due to time-consuming and complexity of PowerPoint presentation and also because of educational constraints in exceptional schools, the strength of the PowerPoint effects were ignored by educators and even students themselves.

The second question of current study came back to students' background knowledge about PowerPoint software and its application (Do you have any background knowledge regarding to PowerPoint application?). The intention of such question was to explore the participants' insights towards PowerPoint presentation regarding to comprehension progress before and after application of this technology device. Lack of sufficient knowledge about technology applications had led to students rely just traditional method and class content rather than trying the new learning methods.

All the eight students declared that they were not familiar with PowerPoint software and they stated that they had not any background knowledge about it. With having prior knowledge towards this program, the students' ideas could be changed and the amount of the efficient effects could be affected by their experience.

The responses of the participants to this question can be stated as follows:

a) Since the eight participants announced that they have not been used this program before, the increasingly amount of effectiveness of the PowerPoint presentation could be evident. Only one participant claimed that he had slightly information about the computer design.

b) After exposing the PowerPoint presentation six persons of eight participants who had not any prior knowledge about computer usage, believed that this educational program was very interesting method. The common viewpoint of students demonstrated that the PowerPoint program made many developments in their learning English course.

The third interview question was: Do you think that the PowerPoint presentation had an effect on your reading comprehension ability? Why? How?

Among eight interview participants two persons claimed that because of the weakness of their eyes, and spreading the projector lights in dark screen they suffered from sore eyes and could not completely concentrate on the content material displayed on screen. Despite this, they confirmed significant role of the program and pointed to stimulating engagement aspects of PowerPoint slides. They asserted that during displaying of slides, they could response to question asked by teacher comfortably without any stress and participated in class discussion. Therefore by arousing interest and attraction, they increasingly motivate to engage in learning process.

The next question involved if the existence of animations and images were appealing or not? Why?

Nearly all of the participants verified the attractiveness and charming features of PowerPoint slides involved animations and pictures, and believed the design:

- Led to decrease boring time and stress inherent learning process.
- Narrated the events illustrative and explained the vocabularies in a tangible way.
- Made bridge between images and words and; vocabulary meaning was effortless and; more information retained than traditional method.
- Led to meaning interaction in the mind due to displaying of pictures and animations.
- Helped students with difficulty in reading and with eye weakness to learn quickly through big pictures and words.
- Needed short time to record the information in the mind.
- Led to retrieval process of prior information took place quickly.

The majority of the participants claimed that animations and pictures beside big words aided them to organize their learning process and comprehend the story passages in sensible manner.

The final question of interview consisted of offering the participants' views regarding to continue to learn English course with or without PowerPoint presentation (traditional method which involved teacher oral teaching and explanation). The participants were asked whether they prefer the new method based on employing the intervention or continue the traditional method.

Only one person stated his absolute disagreement for PowerPoint usage, because as mentioned before he suffered from eye weakness and believed that the teacher helps him to easily master on text. He claimed that he could not focus on the screen and lights of board due to disturbing him. All of the participants announced that it was the first time that they were exposed to the PowerPoint design and so this educational program seemed very interesting design for them to participate in an active classroom. Nearly one-third of the participants argued that they could make connection between words and related images and pointed to the stimulating engagement aspects of PowerPoint design. The participants believed that pictures and animations helped them to organize their learning processes and guided their thinking about story comprehension in a sensible mood.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to identify the Iranian deaf students' attitude towards PowerPoint usage in learning English. It showed that students had positive attitudes toward PowerPoint usage. Moreover, this study identified the key determinants of attitudes towards it. According to the result of qualitative analysis, implication of technology devices such as PowerPoint presentation increases learning motivation via teacher-student interaction and attending in discussion. Stone (1999) suggested that employing discussion questions on the slides will develop classroom activity and discussion engagement.

Our first and second interview questions were: Do you have any background knowledge regarding PowerPoint program or not and whether the PowerPoint presentation has been used in the class for non-English books? (These questions were made due to educational and physical limitation among deaf and hard of hearing students). They were related to pervious acquaintance of deaf students about PowerPoint usage in classroom and background knowledge regarding to PowerPoint application. The present study suggested that the majority of eight participants had not any background knowledge towards PowerPoint program more likely because of time-consuming of the implementation of the such program, inadequate technical equipment in school and also unfamiliarity of the deaf students with PowerPoint program thereby the advantages of this technology device have been ignored by educators and deaf students. As Kahramana, Çevik, and Kodan (2011) found some technical problems during displaying PowerPoint slides and asserted that inattention to remove these problems will lead to distract the students and cause boredom. They suggested that prior their classes, the educators should control the classroom environment and technical devices and try to minimize the factors which may be cause distraction. However, it should be mentioned that regarding to inherent limitations in deaf education area, it is highly expected these problems and call more attention to remove these barriers.

The third interview question was: Do you think that the PowerPoint presentation had an effect on your learning process? Why? How?

Except two participants who were suffering from eye weakness, the others asserted that during displaying the PowerPoint slides they could easily answer to the questions without any stress and participated in class activity. Therefore, the researcher found that implication of technology devices such as PowerPoint presentation increases learning motivation through teacher-student interaction and attending in discussion engagement. The finding is in line with Stone's (1999) study who suggests that employing discussion questions on the slides will develop classroom activity and discussion. The study pointed out to explicit effect of PowerPoint program on comprehension skill, and suggested that the reason of influence got colorful pictures and big words on the board and it seems that they could make connection between words and related images easily and could control the learning process. This confirms the findings of previous study (Rankin & Hoaas, 2001) which revealed that use of PowerPoint presentation make the learning of material easier and more convenience. There are also other corresponding researches that found obvious motivational effect of technology usage mainly PowerPoint presentation on learning process. The findings are in line with study of Samie Lari; Kahraman et al; Kuo, Yu, & Hsiao, (2015); Mazloomy Mahmoodabad, Zeynolabedini, & Shahbazi, (2012) that all introduced the PowerPoint presentation as a powerful teaching tool to present multimedia instructional materials and manage interactive learning activity in educational setting for hearing students with the aim of supporting and improving the learning process. Similar findings were found by Afshari, Ghavifekr, Siraj, and Jing (2013). Their findings indicated that the students had moderate attitudes towards CALL and moreover perceived ease of use, subjective norms, and perceived usefulness were significant predictors of computer attitudes. Here, one main difference is the novelty of current study in terms of considering D/HH learning process and crucial role of technology to make content more fun during this process.

The fourth question was: Were animations and images appealing or not? Why?

In regard to the specific use of animation and pictures, this investigation revealed that the big and colorful pictures and animations aided to comprehend the text easily thereby the learning process took place quickly. The result is correspond with O'Dwyer 's (2008) finding. He asserted that utilizing visual elements such as pictures, animations, and charts make the lessons more interesting.

Mayer also believed:

" When words and pictures are both presented, learners have an opportunity to construct verbal and visual mental models and to build connection between them… adding pictures to word resulted in improvements in students' understanding of the explanation." (Multi-Media Learning pp. 223, 235)

As cited in Kahraman et al; Burke and Apperley (2004) demonstrated that half of participants claimed utilizing animations in PowerPoint slides increased learning to a great extent.

In the current study the responses of participants to the final question demonstrated that they all agreed the PowerPoint presentation method along teachers' oral explanation. In fact, the greatest part preferred the new technological method; at the same time because of unfamiliarity with this device the role of teacher was critical to clarify the materials. The finding supports the suggestions of Lin (2014) who believed that the teacher consultation leads to positive outcomes in D/HH students' reading comprehension and claimed that teachers' scaffolding instruction improve deaf learning and specify the areas of weakness that required modified instruction. In deaf community education, the role of teacher and interpreter is crucial due to physical and learning limitations inherent this community. However, in regards to PowerPoint preference the main part of the participants claimed that they agreed this technique along with teacher explanation, because they believed that the teacher clarified materials existed in slides and helped them to organize the information in mind.

Regarding to motivational aspect of PowerPoint presentation, some researchers contended that employing the PowerPoint program in class strengthen teaching circumstances and motivate students to follow learning process (Harrison, 1998; Samiei Lari). In general, the findings revealed the high positive attitudes of deaf students toward PowerPoint presentation in English learning mainly reading comprehension skill and confirmed the previous studies in terms of efficient motivational drivers of the technology devices Talebinezhad & Azizi Abarghoui reached to the same findings. The result of the study also is consistent with study conducted by Ilter. She found the technology as a dynamic and challenging motivating element in EFL learning and reported that 71% of natural science students and 77% of social science students claimed that using technology enhanced their motivation. 57.6% natural science students and 56.6% of social science students also found use of PowerPoint in the classroom made content more enjoyable, and declared that technology-based classrooms maybe good solutions for de-motivated students.

In addition to advantages of utilizing PowerPoint, some students argued that providing such supporting teaching tool is time-consuming and technical defects occurred during presentation which caused distraction in students. Some others believed that the showing time was short and took long time to capture the content. They had unanimity to enhance the execution time of presentation. This perspective derived lack of prior knowledge about the technology program.

Conclusion

The purpose of the current study was to determine the viewpoints of deaf students towards technology usage typically PowerPoint presentation in English learning as a second language. The findings of this study showed the effectiveness of technology application in deaf education and language learning. This study also revealed that the students' attitudes approved the beneficial function of PowerPoint program to increase learning. Therefore, the results of content analysis seem to present the highest positive viewpoints towards this technology strategy. The implication of the current study is to provide educational opportunities to educators and teachers in order to apply some forms of technology and pave way to remove instructional barriers with focus on reading comprehension area in second language learning of students with hearing loss. However, it is suggested that the association of these factors is investigated in future studies. Further investigation and experimentation into the the current topic is strongly recommended. In sum, the student's engagement in learning process led to an increase in teacher-student interaction as well as motivational situations and provided more opportunities to remove the problems due to low self-confidence among deaf students. They also pointed to crucial role of the teacher to clarify the content and claimed that in addition to PowerPoint usage, oral explanation of teacher could aid to reach stable situation of learning.

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