Modern Journal of Language Teaching Methods (MJLTM)

ISSN: 2251 - 6204

www.mjltm.com

submit@mjltm.com

hamedghaemi@ymail.com

Editor – in – Chief

Hamed Ghaemi, Assistant Professor in TEFL, Islamic Azad University (IAU)

17. Kirkpatrick Robert, Assistant Professor of Applied Linguistics, Shinawatra International University, Thailand
18. Mehrani Mehdi, PhD in TEFL, University of Neyshabur, Neyshabur, Iran
19. Morady Moghaddam Mostafa, PhD in TEFL, University of Tabriz, Iran
20. Mouton Nelda, PhD in Education Management, North-West University (NWU), South Africa
21. Najafi Sarem Saeid, PhD Candidate in TEFL, Islamic Azad University, Science and Research Branch, Tehran, Iran
22. Naicker Suren, Department of Linguistics and Translation, University of South Africa
23. Ndhlovu Finex, PhD, Linguistics Programme, University of New England, Australia
24. Raddaoui Ali Hechemi, PhD, Associate Professor of Applied Linguistics, University of Wyoming in Laramie, USA
25. Rezaei Saeed, PhD in TEFL, Sharif University of Technology, Tehran, Iran
26. Rolstad Kellie, PhD, Associate Professor of Education, University of Maryland, USA
27. Roohbakhshfar Hamid, PhD in TESOL, Islamic Azad University, Neyshabur Branch, Iran
28. Sanatifar Mohammad Saleh, PhD in Translation Studies, Tabaran Institute of Higher Education, Mashhad, Iran.
29. Shafiee Sajad, Department of English, Shahrekord Branch, Islamic Azad University, Shahrekord, Iran
30. Stobart Simon, PhD, Dean of Computing, Teesside University, UK
31. Suszczynska Malgorzata, Senior Assistant Professor, University of Szeged, Hungary
32. Tabeifard Sayed Javad, PhD in ELT, University of Tehran, Kish International Campus, Iran
33. Weir George R. S., PhD in Philosophy of Psychology, University of Strathclyde, Glasgow, UK
34. Zabihi Reza, PhD in TEFL, University of Neyshabur, Neyshabur, Iran
35. Zegarac Vladimir, PhD, University of Bedfordshire, UK

Abstracting/Indexing

Index Copernicus 2011

Linguistics Abstract

EBSCO Publication

Lulu Publication

Directory of Open Access Journals

ProQuest

Modern Language Association

Cabell's Directories

COPE

Directory of Research Journal Indexing (DRJI)

Indian Citation Index

International Society of Universal Research in Sciences

Ulrich's

THE IMPACT OF APPLYING ANALOGICAL MAPPING ON EFL LEARNERS' MORPHO-SYNTACTIC KNOWLEDGE

Zahra Alimohammadzadeh
MA candidate in TEFL
Islamic Azad University of Rasht, Guilan
marveh.a.m.z@gmail.com

Masoumeh Arjmandi
Ph.D. in Linguistics
Islamic Azad University of Rasht, Guilan
Department of English Language
Samaneh420@gmail.com

Marjan Heydarpour
Ph.D. in TEFL
Islamic Azad University of Rasht, Guilan
Department of English Language
mheydarpour@yahoo.com

ABSTRACT
THIS STUDY AIMED AT EXPLORING THE EFFECT OF ANALOGICAL MAPPING TASK ON THE MORPHO-SYNTACTIC KNOWLEDGE OF THE INTERMEDIATE EFL LEARNERS. PARTICIPANTS IN THIS STUDY WERE 40 INTERMEDIATE ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS AT IRAN LANGUAGE INSTITUTE (ILI) IN RASHT. TO ASSURE THE CRITERION OF HOMOGENEITY, THEY TOOK PART IN A QPT TEST. TWO GROUPS WERE RANDOMLY SELECTED AS A CONTROL GROUP AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUP IN THE STUDY. A PRETEST AND POSTTEST OF VOCABULARY CONTAINING THE WORDS FROM THE BOOK HEADWAY INTERMEDIATE WERE ADMINISTERED. THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP WAS TAUGHT ANALOGICAL MAPPING THROUGH SENTENCE MAKING WHILE THE CONTROL ONE DID NOT RECEIVE ANY TREATMENT. AN EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN WAS UTILIZED FOR THE STUDY AND ITS TREATMENT LASTED 10 SESSIONS. THE RESULTS REAPED OUT OF STATISTICAL PROCEDURE CONFIRMED THE SUPERIORITY OF THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP TO THE CONTROL ONE, AND; IN THE LONG RUN, SPOTLIGHTED EXPLICIT ANALOGICAL MAPPING INSTRUCTION AS A BENEFICIAL DEVICE THAT CAN IMPROVE MORPHO-SYNTACTIC KNOWLEDGE. PRESENTING WORDS TO LEARNERS BASED ON COGNITIVE PROCESSING LIKE ANALOGICAL MAPPING CAN IMPROVE THEIR MORPHO-SYNTACTIC KNOWLEDGE.

KEY WORDS: MORPHO-SYNTACTIC KNOWLEDGE, ANALOGICAL MAPPING, EFL LEARNERS, VOCABULARY TEST

1. Introduction

At present, communication is the heart of human life. The process of communication chiefly deals with speaking, listening, reading and writing. These four macro skills of literacy are governed by the conventions of grammar which guides the formal standards of what's acceptable or not. Grammar is a system of meaningful structure and patterns that are governed by particular pragmatic contains (Larsen-Freeman, 2007). In another definition "grammar is a description of rules for forming sentences, including an account of the meanings that these forms convey" (Thornbury, 1999, p. 13). In reading, for example, grammar enables learners to comprehend sentence interrelationship in a paragraph, a passage and a text. In the context of writing, grammar allows the learners to put their ideas into intelligible sentences so that they can successfully communicate in a written form. Lastly, in the case of vocabulary, grammar provides a pathway to learners how some lexical items should be combined into a good sentence so that meaningful and communicative statements or expressions can be formed. In other words, Doff (2000) says that by learning grammar students can express meanings in the form of phrases, clauses and sentences. Long and Richards (1987) add that it cannot be ignored that grammar plays a central role in the four language skills and vocabulary to establish communicative tasks.

Kumar (1987) added that grammar has become natural phenomenon that we start speaking what everybody speaks around us. Thus; grammar is indispensable in the learning process since it serves as a foundation for a stabilized acquisition not only of English but on subjects where English is the medium. In the world of standards English, English is viewed as the lingua franca of the new era. The skill would open opportunities like wide array of business ventures, intercultural communication and better understanding of the world. Due to such significance a lot of research has been conducted in this area and the factors which might help English language learners out of which syntax is a major issue.

In this research the term morpho-syntax is used which actually is a hybrid word that comes from two other words – morphology and syntax. Morphology in linguistics has to do with how words are shaped, and how the shapes of words may be systematically adjusted in order to accomplish communicative tasks. You can also think of morphology as the study of how meaningful units combine to shape words. Syntax, on the other hand, is how words combine to form sentences. One reason many linguists like to talk about morphology and syntax together is that sometimes a communicative job that is performed by word shapes (morphology) in one language is performed by combinations of words (syntax) in another. So if linguists want to compare different languages, it helps to be able to refer to "morpho-syntax." Languages can accomplish the same or similar communicative tasks by changing the shapes of words (morphologically) or by changing how words are arranged (syntactically).

There are some terms that are needed to be explained. Gentner (1983) considers that analogical mapping requires two steps that are structural alignment and projection of inferences. During the first step, two analogous situations are aligned on the basis of their common relational structure. This is called structural alignment. According to Gentner and Smith (2012, p.130), "reasoning by analogy involves identifying a common relational system between two situations and generating further inferences driven by these commonalities".

2. Review of the Literature

One of the great mysteries of human cognition is how young children acquire the grammatical structure of their language. The reigning view has been that general learning processes are insufficient to account for this achievement, given the abstractness and complexity of human grammar. Recently, however, researchers have begun to explore the role of learning processes, and evidence is emerging that structural-alignment processes may facilitate the learning of

grammar. Tomasello (2000) has suggested that structural alignment provides a mechanism by which children come to generalize constructions from one verb to another and acquire a generalized understanding of linguistic constructions.

Childers and Tomasello (2001) conducted research showing that comparison can help children discover syntactic patterns in their native language. They found that intensive comparison across instances of a particular grammatical construction increased 2 1/2-year-old children's likelihood of producing that construction. The cross-sectional studies and experimental methods used by Benicini and Goldberg (2000) and Gries and Wulff (2005) are useful as supplements to longitudinally gathered data concerning the use of constructions, of various degrees of complexity, over time. Although longitudinal studies of L2 speech production are relatively rare, they are as necessary to understanding the course of construction learning and use in SLA as they are in the studies reported in Lieven and Tomasello, this volume (see also Diessel, 2004; Ellis, Ferreira Junior, & Ke; Tomasello, 1992). As in child language acquisition research, progress rests upon the acquisition, transcription, and analysis of detailed dense longitudinal corpora (Ortega & Iberri-Shea, 2005).

Related to this issue is how stages in the emergence of complex constructions, once identified, are related to the architecture of the second language speech processor (see the following section), and in particular to Pienemann's Process ability Theory (1998, 2003), which describes a hierarchy of processing stages predicting the emergence of more complex structures at different points in development. In Albright (2002), a model is proposed that makes precisely this claim. Specifically, it is hypothesized that learners select base forms as part of a strategy to develop grammars that can produce inflected forms as reliably or as confidently as possible. In order to do this, learners compare different members of the paradigm, using each to attempt to predict the remainder of the paradigm with a grammar of stochastic rules. The part of the paradigm that contains as much information as possible about how to inflect the remaining forms is then selected as the base form, and a grammar is constructed to derive the rest of the paradigm.

Lehnert (1987), for example, describes a sentence analyzer that uses a constraint network to parse sentences into case-frame meaning relationships. Similarly, Kintsch (1988) proposes a model of discourse comprehension that illustrates a constraint-satisfaction approach.

3. Statement of the Problem

It is inevitable that learners make errors in the process of foreign language learning (Edrogan, 2005). Though these errors could be impeded through the students' realization of the error they committed and constructive feedbacks done by the teacher. Errors come in different classification ascertained by Mercer, Dawes, Wegerif, and Sams (2004), as to phonology, phonetics, morphology, syntax and semantics. Morphology and syntax (morpho-syntax) errors are technical errors found on the surface level of language and in reference to the conventions of grammar of a certain language. There have been many classification of errors categorized by various structuralisms and formalists in the field of language. One of the linguists who categorized errors is Ellis (1997) in which he pointed out (ordering, selection, omission, addition).

In Hayati, Jalilifar and Bardideh Kim's article (1998), according to Chiang (1993), Huang (2001), Nelson and Chun (2008), Darusand Ching (2009), and Darus and Subramaniam (2009) in some EFL contexts (Iran and some East Asian countries), most EFL learners see morpho-syntactic and discourse levels of language as problematic areas. Articles, subject-verb agreement, and plural and possessive structures as well as verb tense and run-on structure are among the highest portion of error types. Accordingly, this study aims at providing morpho-syntactic help with the learners through analogical mapping. This might contribute to fewer errors in this regard.

3.1 Research Hypothesis

In order to answer the research question, the following null hypothesis has been formulated as follows:

Ho: Analogical mapping does not have any effect on Iranian intermediate EFL Learners' morpho-syntactic knowledge.

4. Method
4.1 The Design of the Study

This study follows a quasi-experimental design since it was not possible to control all of the variables. The participants are selected randomly and homogenized afterwards. Methodology and design for this study is based on quantitative design methods and the type of the research is action research which tries to solve educational problems in particular classroom settings.

Pretest-posttest design was employed in this study, which means subjects were tested twice in existing groups.

4.2 Participants

The participants consisted of 40 adult learners who enrolled in intermediate-level foreign language classes at Iran Language Institute in Rasht, Guilan. Age range of these students varied from 16 to 25, and they were all female and non-native speakers whose first language was Persian. They were assigned as intermediate by the institute; however, the learners took a QPT in order to be homogenized. Forty out of 60, who received scores between 40 and 50, were assigned intermediate according to the placement test. Half of these students were randomly assigned as the experimental group and the other half to the control group. Both groups sat for a pre-test, and then just the experimental group received the treatment on analogical mapping practice. The other 20 students did not receive any instruction of this kind. After the period of the treatment both group sat for the post-test.

4.3 Materials

This study applied three instruments for its purpose.

First, QPT (Oxford Quick Placement Test) test was applied in order to homogenize the sample population regarding their language proficiency level. The second instrument was the pretest devised by the researcher which aimed at measuring the morpho-syntactic knowledge of the experimental and control groups. The sentences of the participants were assessed by their teacher and were analyzed considering accuracy measures. Test reliability was computed against the KR-21 formula through a pilot study. It was also shown to three English teachers with ten years of experience in teaching English as a foreign language.

4.4 Data Analysis and Findings

The present chapter demonstrates two statistical procedures in details. At first, descriptive data analysis is presented and second the data is analyzed inferentially.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics for the pretest

	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
score	Pretest experimental group	20	13.15	2.231	.345
	pretest control group	20	13.60	2.234	.257

The above table delineated the descriptive statistics regarding the test scores of the both experimental and control groups' performances. The total mean score of the experimental group equaled 13.15 while the mean score of the control group equaled 13.60. The mean difference is not significant on

the pretest. Also, the standard deviation was not very different between the two groups. The SD of the scores in the experimental group was computed as 2.231 and 2.234 for the control group. This means that the groups had almost the same amount of diversity in their performance.

Table 2. Descriptive statistics for the posttest

	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
score	Posttest experimental group	20	16.90	1.944	.435
	posttest control group	20	14.20	2.285	.511

The same procedure was run on the posttest scores of both groups. The mean score of the experimental group on their posttest equaled 16.90 that was relatively higher than that of their pretest mean (13.15). On the other hand the standard deviation of scores in this group was computed as 1.944 which is considerably lower than the pretest. This implies that the experimental group had a more homogeneous performance in their posttest.

For the control group the total mean was 14.20 which did not differ greatly from their pretest (13.60). As it is clear from the mean scores, the experimental group did better comparing to the control group. Regarding the standard deviation of scores, the control group had a standard deviation of 2.285 which is higher than the experimental group. This shows that the control group had less consistent scores and less homogeneous performance. For obtaining information based on inferential analysis, t-test was administered to compare the performance of the two groups in the post-test administration. Also a paired sample t-test was run to find out the possible improvement among the experimental groups scores from pretest to posttest. It was conducted to evaluate the impact of the treatment on students' scores on the experimental group.

Table 3. Paired sample test of experimental group scores

		Paired Differences						t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference					
					Lower	Upper				
Pair 1	Pretest experimental group posttest experimental group	-3.750	.639	.143	4.049	3.451		26.259	19	.000

Paired-samples or repeated measures techniques are used when we test the same people on more than one occasion, or we have matched pairs. In this case the same group that is the experimental group is tested twice (pretest and posttest). The final column is labelled as Sig. (2-tailed). This is the probability value. If this value is less than .05, then we can conclude that there is a significant difference between two sets of scores. In this case above the probability value is .000.

This means that the actual probability value was less than .0005. This value is substantially smaller than our specified alpha value of .05. Therefore, we can conclude that there is a significant difference in the vocabulary test scores at pretest and posttest performances.

Table 4. T-test between posttest scores

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
score	Equal variances assumed	1.001	.323	4.025	38	.000	2.700	.671	1.342	4.058
	Equal variances not assumed			4.025	37.049	.000	2.700	.671	1.341	4.059

The t-test section of the table shows that the significance level as highlighted in the table equaled .000. Since this amount is smaller than the critical value (0.05) the null hypothesis of the study is rejected. According to the procedures run, the hypothesis of the study is rejected and the data is summarized as follows:

Sig =0.000 < 0.05 =α

This implies that the treatment had a statistically significant effect on the experimental group. This confirms that the treatment in analogical mapping had a statically significant effect on the performance of the experimental group.

5. General Discussion

Less attention has been devoted to explaining the language-particular aspects of analogy. That is why this study adopted this issue to investigate. However some studies have been conducted to find out its nature and how it helps language learning. According to Gentner (1983), a sentence could provide a partial analogy for its interpretation in conceptual terms and the result of this analogical mapping will be, roughly, a semantic structure. This kind of mapping can be beneficial in learning. In this case the pre-syntactic character of the analogical mapping procedure yields some interesting consequences for learning. First, and most important, this alternative route from structure to meaning can be used without identifying which noun is the subject and which the

object. Thus according to the finding of this study morphological and syntactic knowledge are intertwined and can affect each other.

Gentner and Toupin (1986) found that both systematicity and semantic similarity have effects on children's ability to provide appropriate analogies. Numerous researchers have proposed theories that describe how analogical mapping takes place (Duff, 1994; Gentner, 1983, 1989; Hofstadter & Mitchell, 1994; Holyoak & Thagard, 1989; Hummel & Holyoak, 1997; Keane, 1994; Kokinov, 1998; & Ledgeway, 1994). These theories have made great strides in accounting for what we know of the mapping process. For instance, the theories have accounted for similarity effects between corresponding objects (Ross, 1987, 1989), pragmatic effects of focusing on particular concepts within analog domains (Spellman & Holyoak, 1996), and order effects of the adjacency of corresponding objects (Keane, Ledgeway, & Duff, 1994). The theories have focused primarily on the mapping process itself along with its interaction with other sub processes of analogy. However, the theories have largely ignored issues of how analogy interacts with other aspects of problem solving—for example, task-specific knowledge and skills—in a real-world task situation.

In fact, analogical mapping is strongly influenced by processing load (Gentner & Smith, 2012) and performances in children with SL seem to be especially affected by processing load (Finneran, Francis, & Leonard, 2009; Montgomery & Evans, 2009; Oram Cardy, Tannock, Johnson, & Johnson, 2010). More cognitive resources are used to maintain verbal information in memory (compared to visual information) and detect relational structure and, consequently, fewer resources are available to transfer this structure to new items. Thus, cognitive processing can intensify vocabulary learning. Developmental increase in processing capacity helps analogical mapping (Loewenstein & Gentner, 2001). The results obtained here are compatible with this assumption.

5.1 Pedagogical Implications of the Study

The implications of the study can be divided into two areas as pedagogical and theoretical implications. For as far as the teachers and the teaching system are concerned and also the teaching materials, there are a number of implications as follows:

Theoretically, the findings of this study are supported by the notion of analogical processing theory, a domain-general process of unusual power and generativist. This study is theoretically backed by the notion that analogy plays a role in children's processing and interpretation of familiar and novel compound words. As this study confirms, analogical mapping is required in language development. Consequently, a disordered analogical mapping could explain why children with SLI are unable to transfer their linguistic knowledge to new situations that are structurally and relationally similar to already known situations. Without analogical mapping children have difficulty generalizing linguistic forms, show a lack of variability and productivity in language use, and are more input dependent (Jones & Conti-Ramsden, 1997; Riches, 2006; Skipp, Windburn, & Conti-Ramsden, 2002; Thordardottir & Weismer, 2002).

Furthermore, it is implied that presenting words to learners based on cognitive processing like analogical mapping other than haphazard word presentation can be an important way to improve the morpho-syntactic knowledge of the learners at intermediate level. This method can be used by language teachers, curriculum designers, and dictionary compilers to present the vocabulary in a more organized way.

There is a general belief among scholars like Loucks-Horesly and Matsumoto (1999) that the learners' performance needs to be more frequently evaluated. It is suggested that more evaluations be conducted on the parts of learners to evaluate the learners' performance more meticulously and to conduct such evaluations at different levels of proficiency. It is worth noting that other measurement methods can also be tested to find out their possible effects on the outcome of the studies of this type. The current study employed Vocabulary Test to assess the morpho-syntactic

knowledge of the participants at the beginning and end of the study respectively. Other methods can be used to measure vocabulary acquisition.

REFERENCES

Albright, A. (2002). Islands of reliability for regular morphology: Evidence from Italian. *Language 78*(4), 684-709.

Albright, A. (2004). *Inflectional paradigms have bases too*: Arguments from Yiddish. MIT

Albright, A. (2005). *The morphological basis of paradigm leveling*. In L. Downing, T. A. Hall, and R.

Bencini, G. & Goldberg, A. (2000). "The contribution of argument structure constructions to sentence meaning". *Journal of Memory and Language* (*43*) 640-651.

Biseko, J. M. (2012). Nature and treatment of secondary school students. Morph-syntactic errors in Tanzanian English language classrooms. Unpublished dissertation –*University of Dodoma.*

Bybee, J. (1995). Regular morphology and the lexicon. *Language and Cognitive Processes 10*(5), 422-55.

Celce-Murcia, M., & Larsen-Freeman, D. (1999). *The grammar book*. An ESL/EFL teacher's course. 2nd edition. Heinle ELT.

DeKeyser, R. M. (2005). "What makes learning second-language grammar difficult? A review of issues". *Language Learning* 55. 1-25.

McCarthy, D., & Navigli, R. (2002). The English lexical substitution task. Language Resources and Evaluation, 43(2), 139-159.

Dominey, P. F. (2000). Conceptual grounding in simulation studies of lang acquisition. *Evolution of Communication*, 4(1), 57-85.

Duran, R. P., Enright, M. K., & Peirce, L. P. (1987). GRE verbal analogy items: Examinee reasoning on items. *ETS Research Report*. RR-87-5.

Ellis, R. (1996). *Second language acquisition research and language teaching*. Oxford University Press.

Gentner, D. (1983). Structure-mapping: A theoretical framework for analogy. *Cognitive Science, 7*(2), 155-170.

Gentner, D., & Colhoun, J. (2010). Analogical processes in human thinking and learning. *On Thinking: Vol. 2. Towards a Theory of Thinking*, (pp. 35-48). Berlin: Springer.

Gentner, D., & Markman, A. B. (1997). Structure mapping in analogy and similarity. *American Psychologist, 52*(1), 45-56.

Gick, M. L. & Holyoak, K. J. (1983). Schema induction and analogical transfer. *Cognitive Psychology, 15,* 1-38.

Gomez, R.L., & Gerken, L. (1999). Artificial grammar learning by 1-year-olds leads to specific and abstract knowledge. *Cognition, 70*, 109-135.

Goldberg, A. E. (2006). *Constructions at work: The nature of generalization in language*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Hayati, A., Jalilifar, A., & Mashhadi, A. (2013). Using Short Message Service (SMS) to teach English idioms to EFL students. *British Journal of Educational Technology, 44*, 66-81

Hesse, M. B., (1966). *Models and analogies in science.* Notre Dame, IN: University of Notre Dame Press.

Hoffman, R. R. (1980). Metaphor in science. In R.P. Honeck & R.R. Hoffman (Eds.), *Cognition and figurative language* (pp. 393-423). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Holyoak, K., & Thagard, P. (1995). *Mental leaps: Analogy in creative thought*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Jahangard, A. (2007). Evaluation of EFL materials taught at Iranian public high schools. *The Asian EFL Journal 9*(2). 130-150.

Jones, M., & Conti-Ramsden, G. (1997). A comparison of verb use in children with Specific Language Impairment and their younger siblings. *Journal of Speech Language and Hearing Research, 40*, 1298-1313.

Keane, M.T., Duff, S. (1994). "Constraints on analogical mapping: a comparison of three models". *Cognitive Science* (18). 287-334.

Keshavarz, M. H. (1997). *Contrastive analysis and error analysis*. Tehran, Rahnama   Press.

Mercer, N., Dawes, L., Wegerif, R., & Sams, C. (2004). Reasoning as a scientist: ways of helping children to use language to learn science. *British Educational Research Journal, 30, 3*, 367-385.

Ross, B. H. (1989). Distinguishing types of superficial similarities: Different effects on the access and use of earlier problems. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition*, *15*, 456-468.

Roy, D., & Pentland, A. (2002). Learning Words from Sights and Sounds: A Computational Model. *Cognitive Science, 26*(1), 113-146.

Taghavi, S. E. (2006). The effects of age, access to a computer, and college status on computer attitudes. *Journal of Information Technology Impact, 6*(1), 1-8.

Thagard, P., & Verbeurgt, K. (1998). Coherence as constraint satisfaction. *Cognitive Science*, *22*(1), 1-24.

CONSTITUENT STRUCTURE AND CATEGORY CHANGING IN ENGLISH ROOT AND PATTERN MORPHOLOGY

[1]Elkhas Veysi,
[1]Assistant Professor, Department of Linguistics, Payame Noor University, Iran
elkhas@yahoo.com

[2] Farangis Abbaszadeh*Corresponding Author
[2]Ph.D Candidate of Linguistics, English Language Department,
Abadan Branch, Islamic Azad University, Abadan, Iran
farangisabbaszadeh@gmail.com

ABSTRACT
MORPHOLOGY ARISES BASICALLY THROUGH WORDS MERGING WITH EACH OTHER. SUCH A SERIES OF DEVELOPMENTS OVER A LONG STRETCH OF TIME – TYPOLOGICAL CYCLE. TO ACCOUNT FOR THE SYNTACTIC PROPERTIES OF WORDS, TWO TYPES OF WORD-CLASS HAVE TO BE DISTINGUISHED: LEXEME WORD-CLASS AND WORD-FORM WORD-CLASS. THE PRESENT STUDIES AIMS TO STUDY THE WORD STRUCTURE IN ENGLISH MORPHOLOGY SYSTEMATICALLY AND TO SHOW THE ROLE OF POSITIONAL STAGE IN PROCESSING WORDS AND PHRASES THOUGH RECOGNIZING THE DERIVATIONAL AND INFLECTIONAL ELEMENTS WITHIN WORDS. THE FINDINGS INDICATE THAT THERE IS AN INDEPENDENCE BETWEEN MORPHOLOGY AND SYNTACTIC ASPECTS OF GRAMMAR DUE TO THEIR DIFFERENT BEHAVIORS IN SPITE OF HAVING A CLOSE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THEM.

KEY WORDS: CONSTRAINT INTERACTION, PROSODIC PHONOTACTICS, UNDERLYING REPRESENTATION RANKED SPECIFIC RESTRICTIONS, TYPOLOGICAL CYCLE

1. Introduction
The basic view, adopted by Chomsky and Halle (1968), that the lexicon is a list of single morphemes only and that these units are subject to lexical insertion, has been convincingly dismissed by Halle (1973), Jackendoff (1975), and Aronoff (1976). In their views, the lexicon is composed of words rather than morphemes

"Morphology is one component of grammar which analyzes the word formation. Morphology is the level of linguistics which is concerned with the internal structure of words, whether these be simple or complex, whether they contain grammatical information or have a purely lexical status. There are various units which are used on this level and they can be seen as parallel to the distinctions which have already been introduced in connection with phonology" (Hickey, 1983 :1-3). Morphology is often referred to as grammar, the set of rules governing words in a language. Traditionally, grammars were based on the models of classical Latin and Greek, languages which contained a large number of endings. Because of the cultural prestige of the classical languages the divisions made by their grammarians have persisted to this day. But it remains a few problems. On a formal level, many of the categories of classical grammar do not exist today. For

instance, it makes little sense to talk of accusative and dative, in a formal sense, in present-day English as these cases are not marked on nouns and there is only one combined form for pronouns, i.e. *her, him, us, them*, etc.

Morphology is the level of linguistics which is concerned with the internal structure of words, whether these be simple or complex, whether they contain grammatical information or have a purely lexical content. The plural morpheme {S},naturally has a number of realisations, just consider the words *cat*, *dog* and *horse* which in the plural are *hats* /hæt+s/, *dolls* /d>l+z/ and *forses* /fo:s+iz/ respectively. A*llomorphs* which are non-distinctive realisations of a morpheme just as allophones are non-distinctive realisations of phonemes. Allomorphs are a feature of the morphology of all languages.

Sapir (1921:58) maintains that a word has a real psychological entity and is processed in the conscious part of the mind. Mthesius (1991:3) defines morphology as "a subfield of linguistics which studies the forms of words in different structures".

Word classes are types of words grouped on the basis of their functions in sentences. They differ in their position and in the relations they may have with other words. Basically there are two categories of classes, the first carries lexical meaning and the second carries grammatical meaning. Those word classes with lexical meaning refer to concepts outside of language and the extralinguistic world, e.g. number and natural gender with nouns or person, number and tense with verbs.

Morphology is concerned with the study of word forms. A *word* can best be defined in terms of *internal stability* (is it further divisible?) and *external mobility* (can it be moved to a different position in a sentence?).

Morphology based on morpheme analysis has three basic assumptions:
1. Baudoin's single morpheme hypothesis: in this situation, roots and affixes are similar.
2. Bloomfield's hypothesis on the morphemic features of the base: Since morphemes have binary features, they can be studied phnologically and semantically.
3.Bloomfield's Semantic morpheme hypothesis: morphemes, affixes, and roots are stored in dictionary entries.

In Bllomfield's view, morpheme is the smallest meaningful unit without having meaning on its own, but Hockett believes that morphemes are meaningful elements but they aren't unit. He just suggested plural morphemes; s-, en-, ren.

2. Item and Arrangement Morphology
In the word "successfully", the morphemes are"success, ful, and ly".the root is "success" and other morphemes are derivational. The root in the word   "girls" is "girl" and "s" is an inflectional morpheme. In this kind of word analysis (item and arrangement), the morphemes are arranged in a sequence order, one after another.

3. Item and Process Morphology
This analysis studies the pattern in forming the words as the main part. Instead of specifying rules for combining morphemes, a part of the word has a relationship with the grammatical category. It regards word as a complete element which can be formed and categorized based on its paradigm it follows. In this view, using a different paradigm for forming a new word from an old one which differs historically, is a way for having many new words; for example the word "older" can be used instead o of "elder" because it follows the model of the comparative adjectives.

4. Word and Paradigm Morphology
This theory considers the paradigms of words as the core. Its focus is not on morphological rules. It seeks to make a generalization through morphological paradigms. For example, plural s marker and third person singular marker act as complete morphemes and can be related to each other by

various rules. Words can be categorized based on their paradigms with which they have more harmony. By using a new pattern different from the historical one, a new word is created ,e.g. using *older* (which follows the pattern of comparative adjective) instead of *elder* (as the old one) is more preferable.

Scalise (1988:562) defines derivation as" the rules change the syntactic category of their base, while inflection rules do not."There are at least two sets of morpheme divisions here, one according to position and one according to function. The first that between *free* and *bound* morphemes. A free morpheme is one which can occur one its own. A bound morpheme is one which can only occur in connection with a further (free) morpheme. An example of this is English *-ish* which can only occur as the ending of an adjective, e.g. *girlish, boyish*…

Bound morphemes provide a means of distinguishing meanings, consider *childish* and *childhood* or they may develop an additional semantic connotation, apart from changing the class of a word. Free morphemes can be divided into nouns, pronouns, adjectives, adverbs, verbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and numbers.Bound morphemes are the smallest linguistic units which may have specific meanings or grammatical roles but they cannot be used independently but with a free morpheme. They can be classified as derivational, and inflectional morphemes, and clitics.

The second set of divisions is that between *lexical* and *grammatical* morphemes. Lexical morphemes are those which have a specifiable independent meaning. Grammatical morphemes are also units which carry meaning. However, they only occur in combination with other lexical morphemes. It is this dependence on other morphemes which sometimes leads non-linguists to doubt whether grammatical morphemes really carry meaning. Examples of grammatical morphemes in English are the endings *-al, -ish, -ic, -ly , -ful, -ant* and so on. Elements as properties of phonemes and of morphemes, appear to show the interface of phonology and morphology termed as *morphophoneme*. This denotes a unit which has two grammatical variants although it does not itself carry meaning. The two variants are always phonemes in the particular language. An example in English is {F} which has the realization /f/ in *leaf, wife* and /v/ in *leaves, wives*.

5. Derivational Morphology

Derivational Morphology is a structure which builds the word irrespect of its syntactic role. It is the process of forming a new word (neologism) on the basis of an existing word, e.g. *happiness* and *unhappy* from the root word *happy,* or *standardization* from *standard.* It is also called lexical morphology or word formation. Derivation includes three types; affixation as the most frequent type, zero derivation or conversion This area of morphology is concerned with all types of word formation, something which involves (1) the addition of affixes to bases or (2) the connection of two bases together. These processes can be divided into two basic types, those which maintain the word-class of the input base and those which change it, often called class-maintaining and class-changing respectively. Examples of class-maintaining derivation from English would be negation prefixing or productive verbal prefixes like that indicating repetition: *un-* in *unlikely* and *ir-* in *regular* for example.

Lexical Morphology is a subcategory of derivational morphology which deals with the forms of morphs of a language including derivation and incorporation. Weber (1983) argues explicitly against the lexicalist hypothesis, against the separation of syntax and morphology, and against the view that the immediate constituents of syntax are words. It seems to me that Weber is throwing out the baby with the bathwater. It is true that cases of morphology-syntax mismatches can be observed time and again in languages. However, these cases are not the normal state of affairs. The lexicalist principle should be seen as a preference principle, i.e. a "soft" constraint that can be overruled in certain circumstances, but that is observed in the large majority of cases (cf. Dressler,1 987). In the English example below the syntax mismatches in which the lexicalist principle is violated is presented:

The woman I saw yesterday's hat. (Berchem, 1991, p. 51).

5.1 Constraints on Productivity By Katamba (1993)

Phonological: a) *-en* added to monosyllabic stems ending in an obstruent, which may optionally
be preceded by a sonorant: shorten, widen,weaken

b) *-ly* not added to adjectives ending in *ly*: **sillily*, **friendlily*, **sisterlily*

Morphological: -hood was originally attached only to native stems, not to Latinate roots:

boyhood, sisterhood, kinghood, **judgehood*, **governorhood*, **prisonerhood*. Later this changed: *parenthood, statehood, nationhood*.

Derivations in a language can be clear(unhidden) and unclear(hidden).Clear derived elements can be immediately recognized by the speaker through dividing them(active, productive and fossilized) but the unclear type cannot easily be specified due to their internal structure where the derivational process is limited and not productive, a type of lexicalized process.

In the discussion of morphology so far the general term *base* refers to any unit to which any affix can be added and can take prefixes and suffixes used for word-formational purposes.

If the internal structure of bases are considered then one can recognize a subdivision into two main types.

A *root* is the irreducible core of a word, that part which cannot be broken down further. There are many roots in English which are also bound morphemes as seen in the following examples (all of these are ultimately words borrowed from Romance languages.

-mit permit, commit, admit

-ceive perceive, receive, conceive

Stems can be viewed as a subgroup of the class of bases in a language. A *stem* is the part of a word which exists before any inflectional material is added to it. A stem may be a root as in *watch*, *mop*, desk but it may already be complex, for instance where an element has been added to a root for some word formational reason. Consider the following examples where the stem is the result of deriving a noun from a verb. The inflection is then added to the result by suffixation.

soldier (E *sold + er) soldier-s(i is a stem extender which occurs between the stem and the inflection).*

hunter (E *hunt + er) hunter-s*

Derivational affixes have separate lexical entries in a dictionary. Languages like English, which are analytic in type have very regular plurals, though languages with many grammatical endings, e.g. German and Russian, have many more plural types. In English /-s/ is the most common plural ending, but a small residue of common words have irregular plurals, e.g. *man : men, mouse : mice, tooth : teeth, ox : oxen*. The word *child* has a double plural – *children* < *child + er + en* – although neither *-er* nor *-en* are used productively in modern English. With less commonly used words, especially borrowings from Latin or Greek, there may be uncertainty about how the plural is formed, e.g. in a recent discussion about holding a referendum, this word appeared variously as *referedums* and *referenda* in the plural. The process of attaching inflections to a lexical base is called *affixation* and there are three main types depending on the position relative to the base as outlined below:

Prefix- Any inflection which is attached to the beginning of a base is termed a prefix. Examples abound from the vocabulary of English where such elements are derivational,i.e. they form new words.

re-make un-kind in-decent

re-read un-tidy in-accurate

Suffix- An inflection which is placed at the end of a word is a suffix. Grammatical inflections in English and in most other languages tend to occur as suffixes but many the latter also fulfil word formational functions are can be seen from the following brief selection.

kind-ly wait-er book-s walk-ed

quick-ly play-er mat-s jump-ed

Infix- There exists a further option, namely that of putting the affix somewhere in the middle of the word. This is a characteristic of languages from other families outside of Indo-European, for instance of

Semitic: Arabic and Hebrew make much use of this possibility. In English there are practically no instances of infixation. Historically the /n/ in the verb *stand ~ stood ~ stood* may be an infix but this has never had a recognisable function in the development of the language. Infix-There exists a further option, namely that of putting the affix somewhere in the middle of the word. Semitic languages: Arabic and Hebrew make much use of this possibility. In English there are practically no instances of infixation. In contemporary English there is a case of infixation in colloquial speech. This is where an expletive is inserted into a polysyllabic adjective in order to reinforce it as in the following examples:

impossible F *in-fuckin-/possible*
kangaroo F *kanga-bloody-/roo*
absolutely F *abso-blooming-/lutely*
boomerang F */boome-bloody-rang*
desperate F */desper-blooming-ate*(Hickey, 1983 :14-15).

6. Inflectional Morphology

Inflectional morphology studies the syntactic role of a word in a sentence. Inflection applies to more or less regular patterns to all members of a part of speech. It the formation of grammatical variants of the same word, as with *classify, classifies, classifying, classified.* Inflections add to the verb the information on person, number, aspect, subjective pronouns, mood, and negation. Different parts of speech traditionally defined as grammatical categories of words which include; nouns, adjectives, verbs, pronouns, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions and phones to which articles and linguistic markers can be added (Crystal, 1985:22). Morphologically and syntactically, words have specific patterns in a language and grouped separately regardless of their similar semantic features.

Morphology arises basically through words merging with each other. A word becomes semantically bleached, i.e. it loses clear meaning, and becomes attached to another word – this is the stage of a clitic. After some time a clitic may further lose semantic contours and become inseparable from the lexical word it co occurs with. Then one speaks of an inflection. This process can be carried further and this inflection may later be lost – usually through phonetic blurring – in which case there is a reduction in morphology and the language as a whole becomes analytic in type. Such a series of developments over a long stretch of time – at least several centuries – is called a typological cycle. (Hickey, 1983:3).

Apart from affixation, inflections may involve other changes, typically those which alter the shape of the base on which they operate. However, prefixes and affixes are more common and are preferred by first language learners because the base remains constant and hence easily recognisable across grammatical categories. But in English one also finds the alteration of a base vowel to show a change in tense, this applying to those verbs which are traditionally referred to as strong, e.g. *ring ~ rang ~ rung, get ~ got ~ got, speak ~ spoke ~ spoken.* The base to which an inflection is added may affect the appearance of an affix. In Turkish, for instance, there is a phenomenon known as vowel harmony which means that an inflection must take one of two forms, back or front, depending on whether the vowel in the base to which it is attached is back or front (Hickey, 1983 : 15).

Inflectional Suffixes of Classical Arabic Noun
A. Singular
-u .nominative.
-i .genitive.
-a .accusative.
B. Dual
-a+ .nom..
-aj .gen./acc..

C. Plural
-u+ .nom. masculine.
-i+ .gen./acc. masc.

The singular suffixes are followed by *-n* if the noun is indefinite; the dual and plural suffixes are followed by *-ni* and *-na*, respectively.

The verbal paradigm includes inflectional prefixes, all of the form CV-, and inflectional suffixes, both V-initial and C-initial.

The group genitive is an example of the relaxation of grammatical requirements for inflection. This again characteristic of languages with little morphology. There are nouns which are plural although their referents are singular – as with *jeans*, *trousers*, *pajamas*; *means*. There are also nouns which show no change, those which end in *-s* such as *series* and *species*. Still other nouns have come to be used in the singular although the reference is plural. This is often the case with the word *data*.

Inflectional (concerned with the endings put on words) and *derivational* (involves the formation of new words). One of the most common claims made about the difference between inflection and derivation in the morphological literature is that derivational affixes change the word-class of their base, while inflectional affixes do not change the word-class. One of the most common claims made about the difference between inflection and derivation in the morphological literature is that derivational affixes change the word-class of their base, while inflectional affixes do not change the word-class. The inflectional morphemes are a closed class and they must be listed in any case, but the stems are an open class. The form of the inflectional morphemes can be used to predict properties of the stem templates.

Nida maintains that "derivational formations may exhibit changes in major distribution class membership; inflectional formations: exhibit no changes in major distribution class membership"(1946:99)". Hockett (1958, p. 240) suggested that "when all inflectional affixes are stripped from the words of a language, what is left is a stock of stems ... "; p. 221: "The part of speech of a word is that of its stem." Langacker (1972, p. 75): "Derivational affixes have the potential to change the grammatical class of the elements to which they are attached. For example, the addition of the derivational *suffix" ful"* to the noun *care* results in an adjective ... By contrast, an adjective inflected to agree in gender and number with the noun it modifies remains an adjective."

Anderson (1992:78) made a distinction between inflection and derivation respect to the *syncategorematicity* of the relation marked by a particular rule. Inflectional rules do not change word class (that is, a verb marked [+Past] is still a verb), while derivational ones can."

According to Drijkoningen (1992), an affix is "derivational" if it is the categorial head of the construction, i.e. if it determines the resulting word class; otherwise it is inflectional. Another distinction that cross-cuts the first distinction is that between "syntactic" and "lexical" affixes.

In the following section Drijkoningen's (1992) four-way classification of affixes is presents:
derivational
(=categorial head of
the construction)
inflectional
(=not categorial head)
syntactic
(part of syntactic study)
e.g. English *-ing*
(participle,masdar)
e.g. Latin *-em*
(Acc. sg.)
lexical

(not part of syntax)
e.g. German *-ig*
(Stein --+ steinig)
e.g. German *Geist-u.-blitz*
(compound interfix)(Haspelmath,1996).

Some linguists (e.g. Dressler 1989, Luraghi 1994) have discussed inflection and derivation in terms of prototypicality, pointing out that some types of affixes are prototypically inflectional (e.g. case affixes and person/number agreement affixes), whereas others are prototypically derivational (e.g. instrument nouns). It is possible and even probable that word-class-changing inflection is not prototypical inflection, and that it is not on the extreme inflectional end of the inflection-derivation continuum.

There are different types of word-formation such as *compounding*, *zero derivation* (conversion), *back formation* and *clipping*. Morphemes can be classified according to whether they are *bound* or *free* and furthermore *lexical* or *grammatical*. A bound morpheme can occur at the beginning or end and occasionally in the middle of a word form.

In Hickey's (1983)view, morphology is the study of words, their internal structure and the changes they undergo when altered to form new words (word formation) or when they have different roles within a sentence (grammatical inflection). This leads to a two-fold division in the field;

Morphology   grammar, conjugation/declination
                 (*inflectional morphology*)

                     word formation
                 (*lexical morphology*)

Incorporation- is a phenomenon by which a grammatical category, such as a verb, forms a compound with its direct object or adverbial modifier, while relating its original syntactic function. Incorporation is central to many polysynthetic languages such as those found in North America, Siberia and Northern Australia. However, polysynthesis does not necessarily imply incorporation incorporation in a language imply that language is polysynthetic (Mithun, 2009).

Compounding- is a word formation process in which two simple complete words are combined like "shoemaker" which has two meaningful words;" shoe" and "make" plus a noun maker morpheme and compounding process makes a new words by mixing them together. As another example ,the word "immovable" is built by adding the affix "im" to the word "movable" that itself is derived from the verb "move". It is the most productive way in word formation process. In compounding, two or more bases are connected to each other (Katamba, 1993:291; as sited in Tabatabaee, 1382:7).Other compound lists presenting bellow: schoolhouse, blacksmith, hamburger, forehead, waterway, newspaper, daylight,…

Semantic: a) Adj+past participle compounds permitted only where the root to which *-ed* isadded is inalienably possessed by the head N which it modifies: *green-eyed, black-haired, four-legged* .

Word formation affects spelling. Especially when the derived word is a compound. Whether compounds are written together, hyphenated of with a space between the elements. There is a large degree of variation here, especially among varieties of English. When deciding whether two separately words are actually a compound the stress provides the clue. In generative grammarians (in the late 1950s and early 1960s) set complex lexical items in relation to an underlying sentence, based on the internal structure of compounds, they can be divided into the categories; subject, predicate, object, and adverbial type.

Classification of compounds
(i) Whether they have a head

(ii) If they have a head (= are endocentric)

a. the word-class of the head

b. whether the head appears at the left or at the right of the compound

Zero derivation- or conversion is a word formation process which makes a new word without adding a derivational affix to the base. It involves creation of a word of a new class from an existing word of a different word class without any change of form (Bauer, 2005:131), for example to telephone(noun) and to telephone(verb).

It can be represented by the following formula:

X+ϕ =Y(adjective+ adjective= noun) Tabatabaee, 1382:6)).

Back-formation occurs when the interlocutors considers a linguistic form similar to an affix phonetically and assume it as an affix and by deleting it make a new word which belongs to another category. Carstairs and McCarthy (1992) believes that the syntactic category of each derivational word is determined by the most external affix of that word For example,in the word; "declaration", it is the suffix "-ation" which specifies the category of the word (p.104).As Huddist and Pullum (2005) have noted, "There is nothing in the forms themselves that enables one to distinguish between affixation and back-formation: it is the matter of historical formations of words rather than of their structure" Back formation may be viewed as a sub-type of clipping, e,g., acculturate from acculturation(Merriam- Webster Online Dictionary, 2009), adolesce from adolescence (Online Etymology Dictionary,2009), converse from conversation(Dictionary com's 21st Century Lexicon, 2003-2009), diplomat from diplomatic(Random House Dictionary of the English Language,2009).

7. Assignment of Stress to Morphemes

In English there are many cases of unexpected variation in the sounds of words derived from a base. The changes mainly involve a shortening of vowels when a disyllabic form becomes trisyllabic. There may be a change in the stressed syllable as the trisyllabic forms are nearly all stressed on the middle syllable.   Most adjectival formations in English conform to phonological and morphological rules. Affixes can be divided into two types, neutral (1) and non-neutral (2). The latter are those which affect the base phonologically usually by attracting stress. For example, in the case of *-ic* one is dealing with a pre-accenting suffix in which the stress shift also causes lengthening of the vowel (1) whereas *ee* is an auto-stressed suffix (2).

(1) *morpheme- mor/phemic/strategy stra/tegic*

 Grammar- gra/mmarian /Mongol Mon/golian /

(2) *de/tain- detai/nee em/ploy employ/ee*

Kitchen- kitche/nette/China Chi/nese

While having *lexicalized words,* is meant new formations on the basis of this pattern can occur due to changes of parts of speech or categories of words through derivational process:

commerce : *co/mmercial*

se/rene : *se/renity*

di/vine : *di/vinity*

o/bey : *o/bedient*

/number : */numerous*

Jeroen van de Weijer and the members of the Leiden Phonology Group raise an objection: the phonological effects of derivational and inflectional morphology are sometimes the same. For example, English stress-neutral suffixes can be both derivational (-*ness*) and inflectional (-*ing*).

Burzio (1994: 201) proposes that English words with the suffix *-ic* have penult stress to maintain uniformity with the same words ending in *-ical*: e.g., *académical* affects *académic* (cf. Chomsky and Halle 1968: 88). One problem with this analysis is that many words in *-ic* have no related form in -*ical* (*sulfuric, Ethiopic, Olympic, Byronic*) or they have a related form that is found in dictionaries

but not used (*taxonomic (al)*, *semantic(al)*, *prosodic(al), genetic(al)*). Another problem is that other suffixes, such as *-id* and *-ish*, have the same stress behavior without a longer derivative to explain it.

Hickey (2012) believes that sound variation can be used to differentiate quite small areas as opposed to grammatical variation which tends to be typical of much larger regions. The reason is probably that phonetic variation is immediately available for assessment in anyone's speech whereas grammatical features might not occur in any given stretch of discourse and so are not so suitable for fine differentiation, either spatially or socially.

Hoekstra (1984) and Toman (1986) claim that that the "intermediate" status of participles between adjectives and verbs can be captured by neutralizing the relevant word-class feature. These studies adopt Chomsky's feature system for major word-classes, in which nouns are classified as [+N, -V], verbs are [-N, +V], adjectives are [+N, +V], and ad adverbs are [-N, -V]. Thus, verbs and adjectives share the feature value [+V].

A hierarchy can be established for adjectives derived from verbs (cf. Haspelmath 1994: 10). When these are derivational, they are called "verbal adjectives", and when they are inflectional, they are called "participles". If we restrict our attention to active participles/verbal adjectives.

There is an independent criterion for determining whether a noun is templatic: with few exceptions, all and only templatic nouns form their plural by internal change (.broken. plurals -- McCarthy and Prince 1990a).Morphological alternations that occur shows that Sequences with a long vowel are resolved by closed-syllable shortening, and sequences with a triconsonantal cluster lead to epenthesis .

a. Closed-syllable Shortening

/fi+ l-na+s-i/ fin.na+.si .among the people.

/abu+ l-wazi+r-i/ a.bul.wa.zi+.ri .the vizier.s father.

b. Epenthesis

/qa+l-at sma¨/ qa+.la.tis.ma¨ .she said .listen!..

/mu£ammad-un l-nabijju/ mu.£am.ma.du.nin.na.bij.ju .

8. Velar Softening

Apart from vowel shortenings and changes there are processes which lead to a change in consonant in a derived form. This process is called *velar softening* as the velar stop /k/ is shifted to the alveolar fricative /s/; it is only found among French loanwords.

critic ~ criticism

electric ~ electricity

It also applies to verbs if they can be derived from an adjectival input: *criticize*, electricize. In some cases there are alternations between three possible sounds depending on the word class involved, for instance the change of /t/ to /s/ between verb, noun and adjective.

electri[k] electri[s]ity

criti[k] criti[s]ism

ri[g]our ri[dZ]id

advise#abil+ity

flex#ebil+ity

Hickey (2010) maintains that language contact can cause considerable structural change if it is very intense and it is present for speakers in the first years of life, i.e. during first language acquisition. Language shift is a special situation which leads to the transfer of speech habits from the source to the target language, usually during unguided adult second language acquisition and effects syntax and phonology most and morphology least.

There are several factors which restrict the word formation process; linguistic internal (phonological, morphological, semantic, and the existence of common and unmarked words,)

and linguistic external (word borrowing as the result of cultural dominance, and ideological criterion (Aronoff, 1970:43)). In modern linguistics, there is a difference between morphology and inflection. Morphology deals with a branch of language grammar which studies the internal structure of a word but inflection is a subcategory of morphology which acts after word formation process (Spencer, 1991:3-4).

There is nothing in the structure of a language which is excluded from borrowing/transfer through contact. Given sufficient intensity and duration, all linguistic sub-systems can be affected, even core morphology. Nonetheless, there are areas of language which show much greater movement in a contact situation. Single words and phrases as well as pragmatic markers and sentence adverbials are borrowed easily (Matras 1998). The reason is clear: such elements do not require integration into the grammatical system of the borrowing language and can be accommodated without any degree of restructuring. (as sited in Hickey, 2012: 493).

In a language shift situation syntactic variation can occur as a result of transfer during the shift phase, often due to the development of alternative strategies to reach equivalents to grammatical categories and structures of the outset language, e.g. relative clauses in South African Indian English whose speakers have South Asian heritage languages (Mesthrie and Dunne 1990). Among the other motivations for borrowing/transfer are (i) the resolution of perceived ambiguity (the introduction of new categories such as aspectual distinctions) and (ii) the filling of gaps in paradigms, e.g the use of second person plural pronouns in vernacular varieties of English(as sited in Hickey, 2012: 489).

9. Conclusion

In the standard phonological theory, phonological rules that are restricted to some morpheme or morpheme class must refer to +-boundary and perhaps also to some set of morphological diacritic features. Vowel quality, which is subject to regular phonological processes under the influence of neighboring consonants, changes.Allomorphis alternations are most often observed in high-frequency, underived forms, such as the English strong verbs. In Borer's (2007) view, words have specific features, but these features are unstructured syntactically and their relations with the internal structure of the word is not valid and acceptable (p.152). In other words, the output of morphology is an output for syntax without meaningful syntactic internal structures (Borer's , 2007:52-53). The grammar is responsible for explaining which stem shapes are and are not permitted, but it is not responsible for explaining why the handful of noun inflections are all vowel-initial. Separate morphemes have special phonological and morphological properties, without reference to boundary symbols due to the fact that separate nodes dominate different syllables of a word.

REFERENCES

Aronoff, M. (1970).Word Formation in Generative Grammar, Cambridge, Mass: MIT Press.

Aronoff, M. 1976. *Word formation in generative grammar*. Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press.

Bauer, H. (2005). *Approaches to conversion/Zero-Derivation*. Waxmann Munster, p.131.ISBN 3830914563.

Berchem, J. 1991. *Referenzgrammatik des Somali.* Cologne: Omimee.

Borer, H. (2007).Morphology and Syntax. *The Handbook of Morphology*, Edited by Andrew Spencer & Arnold M. Zwicky London: p.151-190. Oxford: Blackwell Publishing.

Burzio, L. (1994) *Principles of English Stress*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Carstairs- McCarthy, A. (1992). *Current Morphology*. London: Routledge.

Chomsky, N.A. (1970). "Remarks on Nominalization." In R. Jacobs and P. Rosenbaum (eds.), *Readings in English Transformational Grammar.* WaltahmlMA: Blaisdell, 184-221.

Chomsky, N., & Halle, M. (1968) *The Sound Pattern of English.* New York: Harper & Row.

Crystal, D. (1985). *A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics*, Basil Blackwell.

Dressler, W. U. (1987). "Morphological Islands: Constraint or Preference?", in: Ross

Drijkoningen, F. (1992). "Derivation in Syntax." In: Mark Aronoff (ed.), *Morphology Now.* Albany: SUNY Press, 48-68.

Halle, M. (1973) "Prolegomena to a Theory of Word Formation," Linguistic Inquiry 4, 3-16.

Haspelmath, M. 1993. *A Grammar of Lezgian.* Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.

Haspelmath, M.(1994). "Passive Participles Across Languages." In: Barbara Fox and Paul Hopper (eds.), *Voice: Form and Function.* Amsterdam: Benjamins, 151-177.

Haspelmath, M. (1996).Word-class Changing Inflection and Morphological Theory. Max Planck Institute for the 156 PUBLICATIONS.

Hickey,R . (2010). *The Handbook of Language Contact.* Malden, MA: Wiley Blackwell.

Hickey,R (2012). *Areal Features of the Anglophone World.* Berlin / New York: Mouton de Gruyter.

Hickey, R. (2012). 'Early English and the Celtic hypothesis', In: Terttu Nevalainen and Elizabeth Closs Traugott (eds) *The Oxford Handbook of the History of English*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 497-507.

Hickey, R. (2012). 'Assessing the role of contact in the history of English', in: Terttu Nevalainen and Elizabeth Closs Traugott (eds) *The Oxford Handbook of the History of English*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 485-496.

Hockett, C. F. (1958 *). A Course in Modem Linguistics.* New York: Macmillan.

Huddist, R.,& P, J. (2005). *A Student's Introduction to English Grammar.* London: Cambridge University Press.

Jackendoff, R. (1975) "Morphological and Semantic Regularities in the Lexicon," Langualge 51, 639-671.

Katamba, F. (1993). *Morphology*, Macmillan Press LTD.

Langacker, R. W. (1972). *Fundamentals of Linguistic Analysis.* New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

Luraghi, S. (1994). "Suffix Copying and Related Phenomena: a Prototype Approach." *Linguistics* 32, 1095-1106.

Mithun, M.(2009). Polysynthesis in the arctic. In: Mahieu,M.A., Tersis, N.(Eds.), *Variations on Polysynthesis, The Eskaleut Languages.* Benjamins, Amesterdam, 3-18.

Nida, E.(1946). *Morphology.* Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.

Scalise, S. (1988). "Inflection and Derivation." *Linguistics* 26, 561-581.

Spencer, Andrew. 1991. *Morphological theory: an introduction to word structure in generative grammar*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Tabatabaee, A. (1382). Compound Noun and Adjective in Persian Language, Tehran: University Publishing Center.

Tesniere, L. (1959) . *Elements de syntaxe structurale.* Paris: Klincksieck.

Toman, J. (1986) . "A (word-) Syntax for Participles." *Linguistische Berichte* 105,367- 408.

Weber, J. (1983) . "The Relationship of Morphology and Syntax: Evidence from Quechua." In: Desmond C. Derbyshire (ed.) *Working Papers of the Summer Institute of Linguistics, University of South Dakota Session* 27,161-181.

Weijer, J. (1999) Analogical change in Optimality Theory. In *On'in Kenkyuu 2 [Phonological Studies]*, ed. Nihon On'inron Gakkai [The Phonological Society of Japan], pp. 145-52. Tokyo: Kaitakusha.

ENHANCING STUDENT'S MOTIVATION IN GRAMMAR ACHIEVEMENTS VIA GOAL ORIENTED, SELF-EFFICACY AND COGNITIVE SELF-REGULATORY STRATEGIES

Vahid Rafiei Bandari
Islamic Azad University, Bandar Abbas Branch
Email: vahidrafiei62@yahoo.com

ABSTRACT
IN A STUDY OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEARNING STRATEGIES SUCH AS GOAL ORIENTATION, SELF- REGULATORY AND SELF-EFFICACY WITH GRAMMAR ACHIEVEMENT, 36 EFL STUDENTS ENJOYED INTERMEDIATE ENGLISH CLASSES AT ZABAN-SARA INSTITUTE IN BANDAR ABBAS. A CORRELATION ANALYSIS BETWEEN THE SUBSCALES OF THE MOTIVATION AND LEARNING AND STUDY STRATEGIES WAS CONDUCTED TO DETERMINE THE RELATIONSHIP AMONG VARIABLES. RESULTS INDICATED THAT (A) THERE IS A SIGNIFICANT RELATION WITHIN THE SUBSCALES OF MOTIVATION, SUCH AS GOAL ORIENTATION, SELF-REGULATORY AND SELF-EFFICACY, (B) THERE IS A MODERATELY STRONG RELATION WITHIN THE SUBSCALES OF LEARNING AND GRAMMAR SCORES (C) AND ALSO, THERE IS A HIGH CORRELATION BETWEEN MOTIVATION AND GRAMMAR SCORES. IT IS EXPECTED THAT THE RESULTS OF THE PRESENT STUDY BE HELPFUL TO INSTRUCTORS BY IMPROVING INDIVIDUAL'S MOTIVATIONAL SUB SCALES STRATEGIES USE IN LEARNING.

1. Introduction

Learning a language other than one's native tongue is common in today's world, where English is the second most widely used language. Brown (1994) mentioned that many non-English speaking countries devote their effort to students' English language education because English serves as the language of international commerce and various communities such as tourism, politics, and science.

Based on Ehrman (1996) statements, "the acquisition of a new language is a time-, mind-, and energy-consuming process. Students enter class to learn English for different reasons and hold different beliefs about their ability to accomplish various course tasks". There have been numerous studies in the field of English language leaning dealing with the psychological aspects of learning, such as motivation, anxiety and self-beliefs". Students who believe their ability and self-worth are evidenced by performance outcome (for instance, grades) either try hard to top the external standards or shy away from task engagement. While their peers develop knowledge and skills through effort and persistence on the tasks, students who are afraid of being judged incompetent adopt maladaptive behavior patterns.

Furthermore, their success of any action usually depends on the extent to which individuals strive to attain their purpose, along with their desire to do so. In general, people have come to refer to this psychological factor, the impulse that generates the action, as motivation.

Motivation is of particular interest to both teachers and researchers and has been widely accepted by them because of the crucial role it plays in second or foreign language learning. Motivation is affected by students' self-concept, values, needs and goals. Goals as known as orientation are defined as a desire to gain social recognition or economic advantages through knowledge of a foreign language. There are two types of motivation relevant to foreign language learning: integrative and instrumental motivation. Gardner and Lambert (1997) have identified these orientations as the two extreme of a continuum. The integrative motivated learners wish to learn a new language in order to become a part of new social or cultural group. The other part wish to acquire a language as mean for attaining instrumental goals such as reading technical material, translation and so forth. These orientations are part of the learner's motivation at the goal level and affect the learner's core motivation.

The other psychological aspects dealing with learning is self- belief. According to Bandura (1977) "Learner's beliefs known as self-efficacy, is a term used to refer to a person's beliefs concerning his or her completion of a task". In his opinion, knowledge alone does not ensure effective practice. Individuals must also be guided by a belief in their ability to effectively use their knowledge in a given context.

Based on these statements the present study intended to highlight the extent of EFL learner's motivation toward grammar skills achievement. And the major purpose is to determine English language learning self-efficacy level, goal orientation and self-regulatory levels of students at Zaban Sara institute in Bandar Abbas to see how well they motivate themselves and persevere when they face any difficulties and correlate the results with their grammar achievement. The results of the correlating statistics will reveal the relationship between self-efficacy, self-regulatory and goal-orientation and EFL success. Furthermore, the findings of study may promise some improvements and changes regarding learning a foreign language.

2. Literature Review

Since the focus of education has shifted from teacher-directed to learner-oriented instruction in recent decades, a growing body of research in the field of EFL and ESL learning involves issues relevant to learners and their individual differences. There are several research on related to the subject of study on proficiency in Iran.

Mohebi et al (2011) in their study investigated whether there is a significant relationship between Iranian EFL learners' goal-oriented and self-regulated learning and their academic writing performance. To this end, a goal-oriented questionnaire was developed and employed by the researchers to tap the mastery approach, mastery avoidance, and performance approach of 48 participants. Also, the Persian version of "Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire(MSLQ)" developed by Pintrich (1991) along with three writing tasks were administered to 48 undergraduate male and female participants studying in different universities in Iran. The findings of the current study revealed that there was no significant relationship between self-regulated learning in general and writing performance. However, a negative relationship was found between students' use of cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies and their writing performance. The relationship between students' resource management strategies and their writing performance was not significant. Finally, there was no significant relationship between goal-oriented learning and writing performance.

Another study which was done by Ghonsooly and Elahi (2011) the relationship between Self-efficacy and anxiety were examined as those affective factors influencing language learning. This study first explored the relationship between EFL learners' self-efficacy in reading comprehension and their reading anxiety. Secondly, it explored the relationship between EFL learners' self-efficacy and their reading achievement. It also investigated whether high self-efficacious EFL learners experience higher anxiety than low self-efficacious EFL learners and whether high self-efficacious EFL learners perform better in reading or not. The Pearson formula and an independent T-Test

were used to analyze the data. The results indicated that there was a significant negative correlation between the participants' reading self- efficacy and their reading anxiety. The results also showed that high self-efficacious participants achieved higher scores in reading comprehension course than low self-efficacious participants. The findings of the study draw the attention of EFL teachers to encourage their learners seek ways to reduce their anxiety in reading L2 texts by improving their self-efficacy.

Rahimi and Abedini (2009) concentrated on one of these individual differences in learners; namely self-efficacy. To narrow down the focus of investigation, this study aimed at exploring the role of EFL learner's self-efficacy regarding listening comprehension in their listening test performance. Hence, the main research question addressed by the present study was "Are there any relationships between EFL learners" self-efficacy regarding listening comprehension and listening proficiency. The results of statistical analyses indicated that listening comprehension self- efficacy was significantly related to listening proficiency.

These studies indicate that if future research is continued along these lines, and the relationship between cognition, motivation and achievement brought into focus, that whole new sets of dimensions for the motivation model might arise. In relating to the previous studies, present study attempts to investigate an aforementioned topics, goal orientation, self-efficacy and self-regulatory together and their effect on students motivation in English language grammar achievement. As the previous researchers had given special attentions to these factors separately and there were no research that consider and compare all three together. So it is predicted that this research gain greater insight into the language learning process.

3. Statement of the Problem

When subjects demonstrate greater general anxiety, their grammar scores tend to decrease. English learning is the most challenging topics nowadays in our country. The increase in the number of language institutes and their students can be a good evidence for the recent value of English language here. But unfortunately, most of the students aren't satisfied with their abilities in English, based on researcher and the other teacher experiences in teaching English. EFL students face challenging learning situations both in and out of language classroom. An EFL context does not provide many opportunities for language learners to practice their language skills. In most EFL contexts, where students of English have few chances to contact foreigners, anxiety arises and they cannot communicate. So, it seems that there must be some fundamental problems in learners' grammar achievement. According to Spielberger (1983) anxiety can be described as subjective feelings of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry associated with an arousal of the autonomic nervous system.

Additionally, there is an urgent need to conduct the present study to understand how the improvement of students' self-regulatory, self-efficient and goal-orientation influence their language learning. In summary, past studies have not adequately addressed how to enhance EFL learners' motivation and how EFL students' goals influence their motivation and performance. Therefore the study is going to investigate different ways to help language educators sustain EFL learners' motivation and improve their performance in language skills, and clarify the relations between EFL learners' goals and their language skills in grammar.

4. Significance and Purpose of the Study

Grammar plays an important role at Iranian English classroom, it has also developed its roles in the Iranian educational contexts, and it is now a well-established area in the field of language teaching and learning in the country. Although students know the importance of learning grammar and its great role on their academic studies, they feel grammar mostly seem challenging to them. Giving feedback to the teachers by emphasizing the differences in strategies used by students in performing different tasks can develop insights for the teachers towards students' grammar activities. This could also serve as a reference for instructors to improve the situation of

English language teaching with respect to students 'goal orientation, self-efficacy and self-regulation strategies use.

The present study aims at explaining students' goal-oriented motivation and grammar achievement by applying key motivational constructs from social cognitive theory Pintrich and Schunk (2002) "influence students' learning". The motivational variables, based on the purpose of the study, are goal orientation, self-efficacy and self-regulatory skill for learning English. The further goals are investigating EFL student's motivation toward language learning and their grammar achievement and examining both the role of students' self-efficacy beliefs, goal orientation, and self-regulatory strategies for learning English, on motivation toward learning English, and the relationship between EFL strategies on developing grammar.

5. Research Questions and Hypotheses

The present study is an attempt at answering a few questions that pertain to enhancing student's motivation in grammar achievements via goal oriented, self-efficacy and cognitive self-regulatory strategies. The objectives of the investigation can be expressed in the following research questions:

1. Is there any relation between EFL students' self-efficacy and cognitive and Meta cognitive self-regulatory strategies and their grammar achievement?
2. How does motivation affect learners' grammar scores?

All these questions can be expressed in terms of the following research hypotheses. For each hypothesis, its negative counterpart will represent the null hypothesis.

NH1. There are significant relationships between EFL students' strategies use and their grammar achievement.

NH2. Motivation has significant effect on learners' grammar scores.

6. Methodology
6.1. Participants

To accomplish the objectives of this study, 36 intermediate male students, who enrolled autumn season in *Zaban-Sara* institute in Hormozgan province, Bandar Abbas, whose age ranged from 20 – 30, were chosen.

6.2. Instruments

In this research, both qualitative (classroom observation) and quantitative data (students questionnaire and an English achievement test) were used in order to provide the necessary triangulation. The qualitative preceded the quantitative phase of the study. The details of the instrument will be followed. Surveys, questionnaires, and a grammar test were used in collecting data in the present study, as they are deemed suitable for studying student's motivational factors toward learning English. Furthermore, questionnaires are much less time-consuming and efficient.

In this study, the major focus is on various socio-psychological variables on grammar. The questionnaire in the present study consisted of 45 items in related to self-regulatory, self-efficacy and goal-oriented. In order to measure the degree of participants' engagement in the process of self-regulated learning, the researchers used the Persian version of "Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ)" developed by Pintrich (1991). Furthermore, a goal-oriented questionnaire was developed in Persian with reference to Elliot and McGregor (2001) classification of goal-orientation subcategories. The items of self-efficacy were adapted from the relevant scales from the Patterns of Adaptive Learning Strategies (Midgley et al., 2000).

6.3. Design

Quantitative methods such as closed questions or surveys are appropriate methods to test and verify the relationships between variables as well as to provide descriptions of characteristics of a population by studying a representative sample and generalizing the results to a larger population (Creswell, 2002).

6.4. Procedure

The self-report questionnaire was distributed to the students; the scores obtained were aggregated to see if it is instrumental or integrative reasons that would explain why the students learnt English. The grammar test was also given. It was administered at the end of the course after the motivation questionnaire is distributed.

The questionnaire and the test were coded and encoded into computer for calculation and analysis. Intermediate levels of Zaban-Sara institute consist of four terms (Int. 1, Int. 2, Int. 3, and Int. 4) in which every term includes 17 sessions. In the present study, 36 male Intermediate students were chosen. The homogeneity of the students was confirmed according to the institute's placement test. the students were asked to fill the form in related to motivational questionnaire which was chosen of Motivation and Attitude Test Battery of Gardner (1985) which was based on Likert type styling and was divided to 3 parts include: agree, no idea, and disagree. All above mentioned instrument were coded. For fulfilling the purposes of the study a grammar test was taken which came along with a questionnaire to investigate the probable relationship of self-regulatory, self- efficacy and goal-oriented with grammar achievement.

The researcher informed students that their participation has no influence on their final grades. However before starting the survey, the researcher talked about the purpose of this research to teachers as for their cooperation was needed during the survey. The date and time of survey administration were arranged with the instructors. Surveying took place at the end of each class section. The time needed for answering the surveys was twenty-five minutes. The researcher of the present study administered the survey in person. The questionnaire presented in Persian in order to minimize language barriers.

6.5. Data Collection

Data analysis procedures in the present study were as follows:

The required data were collected in two sessions. First, 36 intermediate students were chosen based on the institutes placement test. A grammar test was taken with two questionnaires: a motivation questionnaire and a questionnaire in related to self-efficacy, self-regulatory and goal oriented. The necessary instruction as how to complete the questionnaires was given. Both questionnaires were coded. To determine the validity of the questionnaire, it read critically by experts (the researcher's advisor and reader) in teaching English to clarify its possible problems.

After that, the data was calculated. The correct answer for each item in the posttest was supposed to be chosen from among the four choices. Every correct choice received one point.

Each of the items in the questionnaire was answered on three point Likert-scales, ranging from 'agree' to 'disagree'. The respondents' total score were computed by summing all item scores. Therefore each participant had a score.

7. Data Analysis

In order to investigate the answers to the proposed questions, the results obtained from the posttest were analyzed by using SPSS software. All data was analyzed by using descriptive statistics. The descriptive statistics are summaries of a large volume of data by using procedures to calculate means and standard deviations for each variable in the study. The following statistical analyses were run:

- Pearson Correlation: Correlation analysis was used to describe the strength and direction of the linear relationship between the variables.

The survey was done among 36 male students of Zaban Sara Institute in Bandar Abbas. In the present study, students answer to questionnaires analyzed. For finding the effects of goal-oriented, self-efficacy and self-regulatory strategies on enhancing student's motivation in grammar achievement correlations was done. Before that students answer to grammar test in Multiple choice format, goal oriented strategies questionnaire (see appendix A), self-efficacy questionnaire (see appendix B), students answering to cognitive self-regulatory strategies(see appendix C) and finally motivation questionnaire (see appendix D) were calculated. On the other side, for representing differences among student's strategies use and their grammar scores those tables

were shown separately. All questionnaires are on Likert type scale (agree to disagree). Means for strategies score ranged from 0 to 100. Moreover, Means for grammar scores ranged from 0 to 20.

This section is divided into two main sub-sections: the relationship between goal-oriented, self-efficacy and self-regulated strategies use and grammar scores which were done by Correlation and the second part is the correlation between language learning motivation and grammar scores. Looking back at the questions formulated for this study, one sees that the intention of this study was to find the effects of strategies use on enhancing motivation in grammar use. What follows are the descriptive and inferential statistics obtained from questionnaire.

To answer the first research question, the relationship between EFL students learning strategies such as goal- orientation, self-regulatory, self- efficacy and grammar, data were analyzed based on Pearson Correlation.

Some items related to strategies were as follows:

Goal- orientation strategies
-I don't want to fail a credit.
-It is effective to find a good strategy by trial and error.
-I want to get good marks in my exams.
-I don't want to be scolded by my parents and teachers.

Self- efficacy strategies
-I am confident that I could deal efficiently with unexpected events.
-Thanks to my resourcefulness, I can handle unforeseen situations.
-When I am confronted with a problem, I can find several solutions.
-I can remain calm when facing difficulties because I can rely on my coping abilities.

Self-regulatory strategies
-If English course is difficult to understand, I change the way I read the material.
-When I don't understand the material in my courses, I ask another student in this class for help
-When course work is difficult, I either give up or only study the easy parts
-Even when course materials are dull and uninteresting, I manage to keep working until I finish

Table 1. The relationship between grammar achievement and goal- orientation (GOAL), self-regulatory (EFFI) and self-efficacy (REG) strategies

Correlations

		GRAMMAR	GOAL	EFFI	REG
GRAMMAR	Pearson Correlation	1	.908**	.821**	.900**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000	.000	.000
	N	36	36	36	36
GOAL	Pearson Correlation	.908**	1	.926**	.947**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.	.000	.000
	N	36	36	36	36
EFFI	Pearson Correlation	.821**	.926**	1	.922**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.	.000
	N	36	36	36	36
REG	Pearson Correlation	.900**	.947**	.922**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.
	N	36	36	36	36

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
GRAMMAR	17.0556	1.75572	36
EFFI	83.0278	13.36624	36

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
GRAMMAR	17.0556	1.75572	36
REG	82.5556	13.86763	36

This table describes the correlation between strategies and grammar. It shows that there is a significant relationship among them especially, goal orientation and grammar. It demonstrates that the relationship orderly is .900, .947 and .922. However the differences among other strategies in

having relationship with grammar are not significant, goal orientation language strategies shows much stronger relationship to grammar scores.

For fulfilling other proposes of the study in related to research questions, data were calculated in separate tables. Moreover, the descriptive statistics of the different variables are briefly presented. To see effects of using strategies on the student's grammar scores, Mean and standard deviation were obtained. The mean scores and standard deviation both grammar and related strategies were summarized below.

Table 2. Mean and Standard deviation of Grammar scores and goal orientation, self-efficacy and self- regulated strategies.

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
GRAMMAR	17.0556	1.75572	36
GOAL	84.8889	12.01375	36

The table demonstrates that the mean of goal oriented strategies in relation to grammar test is 84 which among other strategies, followed show a higher degree. Among aforementioned variables, the mean of self-regulated strategies in relation to grammar test is less than the others. It's not significant differences, though.

In order to investigate the relation between strategies and grammar scores, precisely, they were shown by graph bellow.

Figure1. The relationship between grammar scores and three other variables
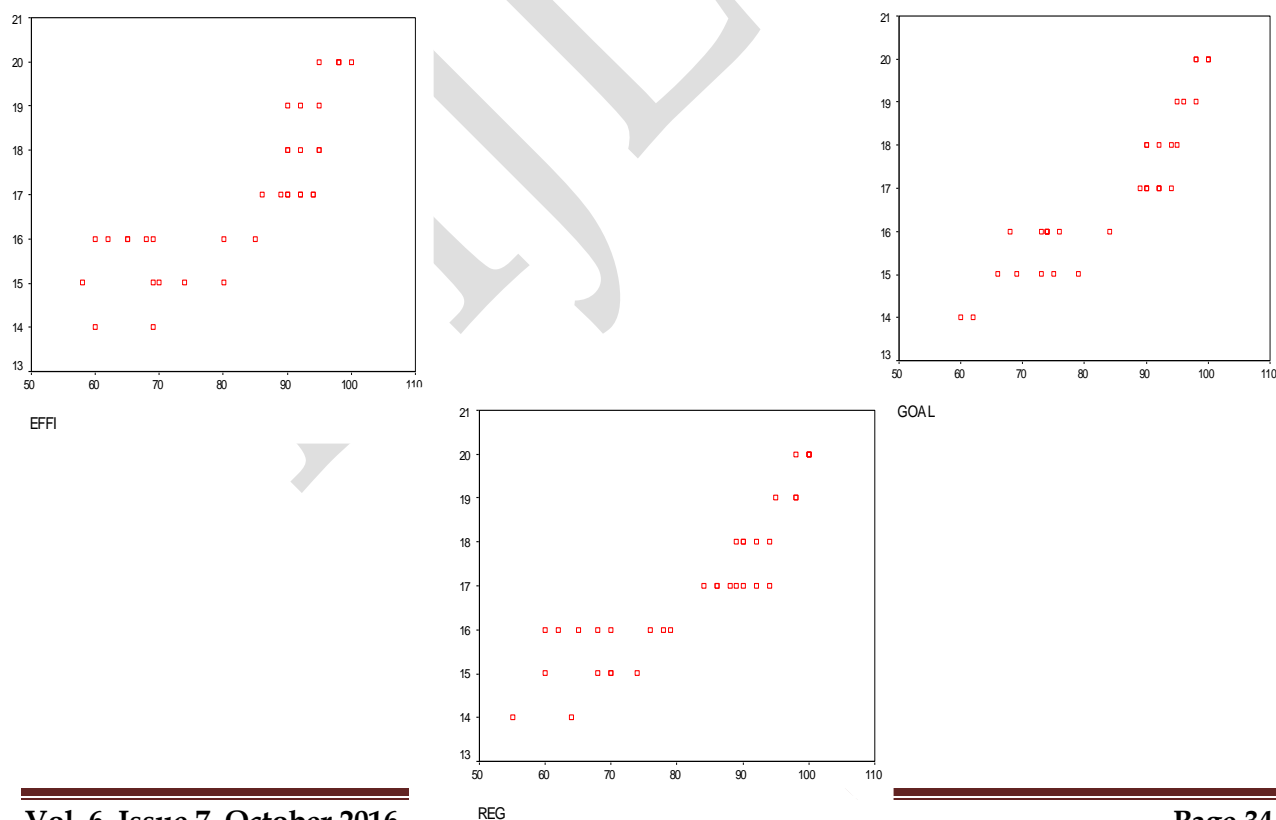
As the figures show, the relationship between goal orientation and grammar scores is more obvious than the others. However, as it was mentioned before, the deference's are not significant. The figures make it clear that those students who had high scores based on goal orientation, self-efficacy and self-regulatory strategies their grammar scores were higher. For instances, those who get 14 from 20 in their grammar test, the figure shows a lower scores in related to strategies used.

To answer the second question of the study which was the effects of motivation on grammar scores Pearson correlation was used. Some items in related to motivation questionnaires were summarized below.

Integrative and instrumental motivation

-I am more interested in earning a university degree and a good job than learning English language itself.
 -Learning English is important for making me an educated person.
-I am interested in reading only English textbooks for my university study, but not other English texts e.g. newspapers, magazines.
-Being proficient in English can lead to more success and achievements in life.
-Studying English enables me to keep in touch with foreign acquaintances.
-Studying English enables me to participate freely in academic, social,   and professional activities among other cultural groups.
-Studying English helps me to be open- minded, and sociable

Table 3. The relationship between learners motivation toward learning and grammar scores.

		GRAMMAR	*MO*
GRAMMAR	*Pearson Correlation*	*1*	*.823 (**)*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	*.*	*.000*
	N	*36*	*36*
MO	*Pearson Correlation*	*.823 (**)*	*1*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	*.000*	*.*
	N	*36*	*36*

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The table describes the significance relationship between scores in related to learner's motivation toward learning and their grammar scores. The relationship is .823.

8. Discussion and Conclusion

The study was undertaken to determine the relationship between grammar scores and strategies and motivation toward learning. It was hypotheses that there is a positive correlation between the variables. The results revealed that the correlation between the variables was significant, especially goal orientation strategies scores and grammar results which was based on students answers to questionnaire such as What I study now will in turn help me to understand new ideas, I want to be noticed by my friends, and it is effective to find a good trial by errors.

The results of the questionnaire such as I'm confident that I could deal with unexpected events, I am in trouble in learning I can think of a good solution showed that the relationship between grammar scores and self-efficacy which demonstrated students control on the skills and learning was high . Finally, the obtained result based on self- regulatory strategies which was in related to cognitive

and meta-cognitive strategies was considerable. For instance when I'm confused with some parts I turn back and try to figure it out. However it was mentioned before, these strategies are sub scales of motivation and have a noticeable relationship with students grammar scores according to the present study.

Moreover, significant relationship between goal-orientation and grammar scores may indicate that those language learners who are goal-oriented in language classroom will necessarily do better on grammar. Teaching self-regulated strategies in a language program can help learners to be equipped with strategies designed to instill positive attitudes to grammar. When students are equipped with self-regulated strategies in tandem with grammar, they become confident, independent, and autonomous.

As for correlation between goal-oriented learning and self-regulated learning, the correlation coefficient among the three subscales of these two psychological variables is significant at 0.01 levels. These findings are in line with the studies done by Radosevich, Vaidyanathan, Yeo, and Radosevich (2004) and Dehghani et al (2011) who found a positive relationship between goal orientation and self-regulation processes in an achievement contexts and learners' reading achievement respectively. This may purport that inspired by achievement goal research; students influence their own learning by adopting achievement goals that optimize self-regulatory processes.

Pedagogically speaking, teachers should focus on how they can create a classroom environment that promotes the use of goal-oriented and self-regulated strategies among the students. In order to promote self- regulated learning among language learners, teachers should encourage students to take responsibility for their own learning, create a non-threatening environment in which errors are tolerated. Therefore, learners need to become aware that in order to be more successful, they must be active participants in their own learning. Since the results of this study showed that goal-oriented learning was positively related to self- regulated learning, teachers should try to establish appropriate contexts for the development of goal-oriented learning among learners and emphasize learning as an end in itself and the effective role of the learners' goal on their level of success.

Moreover, the present study attempted to investigate types of strategies. Findings showed that grammar scores were high in relation with goal orientation, self-efficacy and self-regulation strategies. This means that the enhancement of learners' strategies and attention to learners goal, their control on learning and of course cognitive and meta cognitive strategies will raise learners' beliefs about their ability and help them in learning, especially grammatical structures which was the aim of the present study. Moreover, insight into the self-regulatory strategies that student's use and the interaction of these strategies with learners' existing knowledge and experiences can provide teachers/instructors with clear and explicit guidelines on how learners can develop their autonomy in language learning. Accordingly, the teacher can implement wide range of learning instructions and tasks that promote the use of meta-cognitive self-regulatory strategies in their teaching and consequently, learners will be enriched with adequate learning strategies to develop autonomous learning and become more successful in their learning. The findings of this study are important for language learners and language teachers. By recognizing the importance of goal-orientation and self-regulation, motivational processes are important determinants of why some students are not inclined to do what is expected from them (Boekaerts, 1999). Chamot (1993) reported that one of the basic needs of language learners is having a high level of confidence in successfully completing a task. It shows that using strategies such as self-efficacy can be useful in learning. In related to this points of view, the researcher set out the present study in order to investigate the humanities' perspectives about their ability to learn, setting goals and their controls over their learning and examine whether their grammar achievements could be explained by these strategies. Therefore, among strategies, goal orientation, self-efficacy and self-regulated strategies questionnaire were used in order to consider their effects of improving grammar achievement by enhancing student's motivation toward learning.

Moreover, the present study attempted to investigate types of strategies. Findings showed that grammar scores were high in relation with goal orientation, self-efficacy and self-regulation strategies. This means that the enhancement of learners' strategies and attention to learners goal, their control on learning and of course cognitive and meta cognitive strategies will raise learners' beliefs about their ability and help them in learning, especially grammatical structures which was the aim of the present study. Moreover, insight into the self-regulatory strategies that student's use and the interaction of these strategies with learners' existing knowledge and experiences can provide teachers/instructors with clear and explicit guidelines on how learners can develop their autonomy in language learning. Accordingly, the teacher can implement wide range of learning instructions and tasks that promote the use of meta-cognitive self-regulatory strategies in their teaching and consequently, learners will be enriched with adequate learning strategies to develop autonomous learning and become more successful in their learning. The findings of this study are important for language learners and language teachers. By recognizing the importance of goal-orientation and self-regulation, motivational processes are important determinants of why some students are not inclined to do what is expected from them (Boekaerts, 1999). Teachers should also make the learners aware of the role of self-regulation and goal orientation which they can employ during teaching grammar and explain to the students the effects these strategies will have on their progress. Therefore, one of the major goals in educational settings is to help learners to become more self-regulated and goal-oriented learners. They need to be informed of these strategies by their teachers and also need to become aware of their current level of performance by comparing their own strategies with relevant strategies. It is worth mentioning that the support from language teachers must be instrumental. They should carefully orchestrate instruction to arm learners with the strategies they require to operate autonomously, to help them make appropriate choices and to encourage them to expand their capabilities by giving them responsibility for their own learning.

9. (De) Limitations of the Study

It seems impossible for any work of research to account for all the factors that may affect the ultimate results and this study is no exception. It would be helpful to mention some limitations and delimitations of the study. Limitations have to do with the participants of the study. They were over 20 years of age; hence the results could not be generalized to learners below this age. Also, only male learners took part in this study and they all enjoyed an intermediate level of proficiency. Involving other age groups and students with various levels of proficiency would help get a better insight into the problem under study.

Finally, the list of items in the questionnaire of this study is by no means adequate and complete; it is subject to further confirmation and modification through more empirical studies. And also, as with all questionnaire surveys, there is a possibility that not all questions were answered with due care. Reluctance, resistance, and time pressure may have influenced some of the students when responding to the questionnaire.

This study was only confined to grammar not the other proficiency skills. Conducting a comprehensive study on the relationship of goal-orientation, self-efficacy and self-regulation strategies on other proficiency skills would give a better picture of the issue under investigation.

REFERENCES

Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioural change. Psychological Review, 84, 191-215.Bandura, A. (1986). Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.

Boekaerts, M. (1999). Self-regulated learning: where we are today? International Journal of Educational Research, 31, 445-457.

Brown, H. D. (1994). Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall Regents.

Chamot, A. (1993). Issues in language learning strategy research and teaching. Electronic. Journal of Foreign Language Teaching, 1, 14-26.

Creswell, J. W. (2002). Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches. (2nd Ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Dehghani ,M. Jafar, S. Pakmehr, H. & Malek Zade, A. (2011) Relationship Between Students' Critical Thinking and Self-Efficacy Beliefs in Fredowsi University of Mashhad, Iran, www. Sciencedirect.com

Elliot, A.J., & McGregor, H. A. (2001). A 2 X 2 achievement goal framework. Journal of Personailty and Social Psychology, 80, 501-519.

Ehrman, M. E. (1996). Understanding second language learning difficulties. London: Sage Publications.

Gardner, R. C. (1985). Social psychology and second language learning: The role of attitudes and motivation, London: Edward Arnold.

Gardner, R. & Lambert, W. (1977). Motivational variables in second language acquisition.   Canadian Journal of Psychology, 13(4), 266-272.

Ghonsooly, B. & Elahi, M. (2011). Learners' Self-efficacy in Reading and its relation to Foreign Language Reading Anxiety and Reading Achievement. Journal of English Language. NO 217

McCaslin, M. & Hickey, D. T. (2001). Self-regulated learning and academic achievement: A Vygotskian view. In B. Zimmerman and D. Schunk (Eds.), Self-regulated learning and academic achievement: Theory, research, and practice, Second Edition (pp. 227-252). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Midgley, C., Kaplan, A., Middleton, M., Maehr, M., Urdan, T., Anderman, L., et al. (1998). The development and validation of scales assessing students' achievement goal orientation. Contemporary Educational Psychology, 23, 113–131. doi:10.1006/ceps.1998.0965

Mohebi, A., Beykmohammadi, M. & Amini Farsani, M. (2011). On the relationship between iranian efl learners' goal-oriented and self-regulated learning and their writing performance. International Conference on Languages, Literature and Linguistics IPEDR vol.26 (2011) © (2011) IACSIT Press, Singapore

Pintrich, P. (1991). A manual for the use of the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ). National Center for Research to Improve Postsecondary Teaching and Learning. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan.

Pintrich, P. R., & Schunk, D. H. (2002). Motivation in education: Theory, research, and Applications (2nd Ed.). Columbus, OH: Merrill-Prentice Hall.

Radosevich, D. J., Vaidyanathan, V. T., Yeo, S., &Radosevich, D. M. (2004). Relating goal-orientation to self- regulatory processes: A longitudinal field test. Contemporary Educational Psychology, 29, 207-229.

Rahimi, A., & Abedini, A. (2009). The interface between EFL learners' self- efficacy concerning listening comprehension and listening proficiency. Novitas Royal, 3(1):14-28.

Spielberger, C. (1983) Manual for the state-trait Anxiety Inventory. PaloAlto, CA: consulting psychologist Press.

THE EFFECT OF TASK-BASED TEACHING ON THE LISTENING SELF-EFFICACY OF IRANIAN ELEMENTARY EFL LEARNERS

Azadeh Binaie (corresponding author)
Department of English Language, College of Humanities, Rasht Branch,
Islamic Azad University, Guilan, Iran,
Binaieiazz@yahoo.com

Reihaneh Sheikhy
Department of English Translation, Lahijan Branch,
Islamic Azad University, Lahijan, Iran
Reihaneh.Sheihky322@liau.ac.ir

Majid Pourmohammadi
Assistant Professor in TESOL, Department of English Language, College of Humanities,
Rasht Branch, Islamic Azad University, Rasht, Iran
pourmohammad@iaurasht.ac.ir

ABSTRACT
 THIS STUDY AIMED AT EXPLORING THE ROLE OF TASK-BASED TEACHING IN LISTENING SELF-EFFICACY OF IRANIAN ELEMENTARY EFL LEARNERS. TO THIS END, 60 IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS IN KALAMO ANDISHE ENGLISH LANGUAGE INSTITUTE, CHALOOS, IRAN, PARTICIPATED IN THE STUDY. TO MEASURE THE PARTICIPANTS' LEVEL OF LISTENING SELF-EFFICACY ON THE PRE- AND POST-TESTS, A LISTENING SELF-EFFICACY QUESTIONNAIRE (20 ITEMS) WAS APPLIED. PRIOR TO THE RESEARCH, THE MANAGER OF THE INSTITUTE HOMOGENIZED THE PARTICIPANTS BY REQUIRING THE LANGUAGE LEARNERS TO TAKE QPT. BESIDES, THE RESEARCHERS CONDUCTED A PRE-TEST OF LISTENING COMPREHENSION TO MAKE SURE THEY ARE HOMOGENIZED IN THEIR LISTENING ABILITY. THEN, THE PARTICIPANTS WERE DIVIDED INTO TWO CLASSES AS EXPERIMENTAL (N = 30) AND CONTROL (N = 30). BOTH GROUPS COMPLETED THE SELF-EFFICACY QUESTIONNAIRE BEFORE TREATMENT. THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP RECEIVED TASK-BASED LISTENING ACTIVITIES DURING 16 SESSIONS (30 TO 45 MINUTES EACH) OF INSTRUCTIONS, AND THE CONTROL GROUP RECEIVED A PLACEBO, THE TRADITIONAL PRACTICES (A QUESTION-AND-ANSWER APPROACH). AT THE LAST STAGE, THE LISTENING TEST WAS ADMINISTERED AS THE POST-TEST. THE RESULTS OF INDEPENDENT T-TEST REVEALED THAT THE PARTICIPANTS' LEVEL OF LISTENING SELF-EFFICACY IN THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP WAS SIGNIFICANTLY HIGHER THAN THOSE IN THE CONTROL GROUP. TASK BASED INSTRUCTION ENHANCED THE LISTENING SELF-EFFICACY OF EFL LEARNERS. THEREFORE, THE NULL HYPOTHESIS WAS REJECTED.

KEY WORDS: LISTENING SELF-EFFICACY, TASK, TASK-BASED TEACHING

1. Introduction

It is believed that second language listening comprehension is a complex skill. Part of the problems lays in the fact that many different processes and aspects are involved in L2 listening comprehension which is important in the improvement and development of second language. Sometimes listeners use top-down processing when they refer to background knowledge to get the meaning of a message. They also use bottom-up processing when they use linguistic knowledge to understand the meaning of a message. Listening is not considered either bottom-up or top-down processing, but it is an interactive process, when listeners use both prior knowledge and linguistic knowledge for the better understanding of messages. Therefore, good listeners should be able to use top-down and bottom-up processes simultaneously when processing spoken language (White, 2010).

One of the fundamental reasons that listening has been so difficult to the students is that, it takes place in real time and is ephemeral, thus, listeners have little time to reflect upon the information and there is little control over the rate of the speakers' speech (Jeon, 2007). Furthermore, listeners need to interact with the speaker to create meaning within the context of their knowledge (linguistic and non-linguistic). This includes understanding speaker's accent, pronunciation, grammar, intonation and vocabulary simultaneously (Buck, 2001)

Richards (2005) considered good listening as something that supports the development of other skills such as reading and speaking, therefore listening is not a valuable skill separately if it cannot lead to the progress of speaking, writing and reading. It has been claimed as (Barani, 2011; Osada, 2004; Richard, 2005; Verdugo & Belmonte, 2007), listening is assuming greater and greater importance in foreign language learning environments. On the other hand it provides large amount of input for the learner (Osada, 2004). So it plays a life-long role in the processes of communication. Thus, in order to minimize listening barriers, different kinds of media presentation modes may be useful to reduce the difficulties of listening comprehension, because they are convenient and can enhance students' listening self-efficacy.

According to Schunk and Pajares (2002), self-efficacy provides motivation, well-being and achievement. Individuals tend to select tasks for which they feel competent and confident, and high efficacious individuals tend to contribute more effort, persist longer and rebound faster when they encounter problems or setbacks (Schunk & Pajares, 2002). It has been found that students with high self-efficacy tend to perform better than those with low self-efficacy do (Pajares, 2006). Although there is no absolute connection between self-efficacy and achievement because self-efficacy reflects how capable individuals believe they are rather than how capable they really are (Pajares, 2006).

2. Literature Review

2.1. Definitions of Task-based Learning

Task-based language teaching is one of the more modern approaches to language teaching. Edwards and Willis (2005) trace the root of the word 'task-based' to Prabhu (1987) who used this approach in 1979 in India. Since then, increasing amounts of teachers and scholars have adopted this method in their work. To understand the meaning of task-based learning we must first define what a 'task' is. Ellis (2003) defines tasks as "language activities that focus on meaning" (p. 3). While Nunan (2004) states that "communicative tasks are pieces of classroom work in which learners attempt to comprehend, manipulate, produce, and interact in the target language" (p. 4). Nunan (2004) goes on to say that tasks should also have a sense of completeness and should be able to stand on their own as a form of communication and learning.

A task is defined as a method of learning that is focused on the use of language and on the learner making use of the new language in as close to a real-life setting as is possible. Task-based learning forces

learners to apply the language in a realistic way that is similar to how one would use language in daily-life.

2.2. Task Components

Tasks are made up of different parts and can come in many different variations. In addition there are goals, input, procedures, roles of the participants and settings. The teacher must be well versed in the various task components in order to oversee a successful and productive task-based learning classroom. The 5 elements of task-based learning according to Nunan are goals, input, procedures, roles, and settings. Goals are the teacher's stated intentions behind any learning task. Some examples of goals would be to develop student confidence in speaking, and developing their personal writing skills. It is essential that any teaching task or lesson will need to contain goals to be achieved by the learners. A teacher without clear goals for a lesson will not be successful, as to achieve something one must know where they are trying to go. Input refers to the spoken, written, and visual and auditory data that learners work with in the course of completing a task. Data can be provided by a teacher, a textbook or some other source. It can also be generated by the students. Procedures specify what learners will actually do with the input that forms launching point for the learning task (Nunan, 2004).

Roles are the parts that learners and teachers are expected to play in carrying out learning tasks as well as the social and professional relationships between the participants. In addition, Nunan speaks about the importance of learners developing an active role in the learning process and developing an awareness of themselves as learners. When learners adopt this kind of role it makes them better able to fit into the task-based language classroom and helps the teacher also. Nunan also states that giving learners a more active role in the classroom requires the teachers to adopt a different role. According to Breen and Candlin (as cited in Nunan, 2004) the teacher has three main roles in the communicative classroom with the first being to act as a facilitator, the second role is to act as a participant, and the third is to act as an observer and learner. It is the teacher's job to balance what they feel is the optimal method of teaching tasks with the ways the students may expect the teacher to act. In other words, the teacher should always be on the lookout to make sure the students understand their role in the classroom and that the students are following what the teacher is attempting to do.

Richards and Rodgers (2001) describe the roles of teachers as being the selector and sequencer of tasks, preparing learners for tasks and consciousness-raising. Meanwhile learner roles are group participant, monitor, and risk-taker and innovator. A Setting refers to the classroom arrangements that are prescribed in the task. A wide range of different settings is possible in the classroom, although things such as class size can constrain what is possible in a real life setting (Nunan 2004).

2.3. Phases of Task

Ellis (2003) discusses the three phases of a task as the pre-task, during task, and post-task. Ellis states that the pre-task phase exists to prepare students to perform the task in ways that will promote language acquisition. This preparation can vary but often involves doing a similar task to the one that will be performed in order to practice, or the teacher providing the students with background information about the task topic. Some activities often performed at this stage include brainstorming and mind maps. The during-task phase has several variations available to the teacher. As for the post-task phase, Ellis states the importance of three major pedagogical goals. The first goal is to provide an opportunity for a repeat performance of the task, the second goal is to encourage reflection on how the task was performed, and the third goal is to encourage attention on form. These all serve to provide a better understanding and a sense of perspective to the students on the recently performed task.

Willis (1996) describes the different task phases as the 'pre-task', 'task-cycle' and 'language focus'. The pre-task phase serves as the introduction to the topic and the task. The teacher highlights useful words and phrases, and helps students with instructions and preparations.

The task-cycle is made up of three sub-sections which are task, planning, and report. The task section sees the students undertaking a task in pairs or in groups by using the given language resources, as the teacher monitors the students. Next is the planning section, in which students are given time to set up a short oral or written report in order to explain to the rest of class what happened during their task. Students then practice what they are going to say in their groups. The teacher makes him or herself available to answer student questions or clean-up language errors. Finally is the report section where students give an oral report or read their written report to the class. During this section the teacher may give some brief feedback on the content.

The pedagogical goals during this section include providing a repeat performance of the task, encouraging reflection on how the task was performed and encouraging practice on problem areas that students may encounter with the language. The language focus phase is made up of two sub-sections: analysis and practice. The analysis section allows the teacher to highlight relevant parts from the text or recording for further student analysis. The teacher may highlight the language that the students used during the report section for analysis. The practice section takes place where the teacher selects specific language for the students to practice based upon the observed needs of the students that emerged from the task and report sections. The students perform practice activities to increase their self-confidence and engage language skills.

2.4. Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy refers to students' beliefs in their capabilities to reach their goals in given situations. The beliefs students hold about their ability determine their feelings, motivation, and behaviors better than what is objectively the case. Self-efficacy influences students' self-regulation of motivation, including causal attributions, outcome expectancies, and goal settings (Bandura, 1997).

In academic settings, self-efficacy influences the choice students make, the persistence they show when facing obstacles, their affective proclivities during that task, and as a result their academic achievement (Compeau, 1995; Pajares & Miller, 1997). Educational researchers have observed that self-efficacy correlates with several important educational outcomes. Significant and positive correlations have been obtained between self-efficacy for tasks and subsequent performance on those tasks (Pajares & Urdan, 2006; Schunk & Pajares, 2002; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998), and between self-efficacy and academic performance (Multon et al., 1991). High self-efficacy has helped enhancing human accomplishment in different ways. Students with high self-efficacy exert more effort when approaching challenges and consider challenges as goals to be mastered rather than threats to be avoided. Students with high self-efficacy experience less negative emotions during a task (Bandura, 1997). When they face difficulties at certain tasks, they are more likely to recover and persist in their tasks and less likely to be vulnerable to depression and giving up (Bandura, 1997). Often students with high self-efficacy view failure as a result of insufficient effort.

However, students with low self-efficacy have been claimed to be unsure of their capabilities, view challenges as threats and shy away from demanding tasks. They tend to focus more on individual deficiencies and potential failures. When facing difficulties, they tend to exaggerate their deficiency, get depressed and give up easily and hard recovering from failures because they do not believe they are capable of finishing the tasks (Bandura, 1997).

Accordingly, self-efficacy for listening is likely to influence students' effort, persistence and emotion when they listen. Students with high self-efficacy for listening tend to have more faith in their ability to comprehend more while listening, exert more effort, and recover more easily when facing obstacles in listening.

In order to more precisely predict self-efficacy in particular domain of interest, Bandura (2006) argued that researchers had to be cautious about proper measurement instrument of self-efficacy. Bandura (2006)

proposed that scales of self-efficacy had to be tailored to particular domain of functioning being studied at an appropriate level of specificity. Specifically, self-efficacy items had to accurately reflect the construct of perceived capability to be predicative and explanatory (Bandura, 2006; Bong, 2006). However, some researchers, Bandura included, have measured self-efficacy in a more general level rather than strictly in accordance with Bandura's promotion of domain specific (Smith, 1989; Bandura et al., 1996). In this study, a more general measure of self-efficacy was also included to investigate relation between listening and general self-efficacy.

According to Bandura (1997) four factors determined self-efficacy, enactive mastery experience, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and physiological and emotional states. The most influential of these factors was inactive mastery experience, which referred to individuals' experiences with success or failure in past situations. Information gathered from these experiences was then internalized. Past successes raised self-efficacy and repeated failures lower it, which indicated to individuals their levels of capability (Bandura, 1997).

In a vicarious experience, individuals compared themselves to peers whom they perceived were similar in ability and intelligence to themselves. Watching peers succeed raised observer self-efficacy and seeing them fail lowered it. Exposure to multiple successful role models helped increase self-efficacy in observers (Bandura, 1997).

Bandura (1997) believed that persuasion had to be realistic. Verbal persuasion would try to convince individuals, who may doubt their capabilities, that they possess the skills needed for success at a given task. In education, verbal persuasion delivered by teachers often takes the form of verbal feedback, evaluation, and encouragement. Persuasion must be realistic, sincere, and from a credible source; otherwise it can negatively affect student self-efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1997).

3. Method

The study was a quasi-experimental one. The treatment effects was measured through a pretest and posttest. The data were numerical. A non-randomization procedure was adopted for sampling.

3.1. Participants

The sample of this study included 60 Iranian EFL students in two intact classes. They had registered for elementary level in Kalam va Andishe English Language Institute in Chaloos. All of them were female. Their mother tongue was Persian. Their age ranged from 18 to 23. They came from different socio-economic backgrounds. Prior to taking part in the research, they had studied English for three years in junior high school, and four years in high school. Besides, they had taken General English and English for Specific Purposes in universities. They were from different fields of study such as Chemistry, Mathematics, and Persian Literature. All of the participants took Quick Placemen Test which was administered by the manager of the institute to make sure they were at the elementary level. The two intact classes were named experimental (N = 30) and control (N = 30) groups. The experimental class was held on Saturday and Monday and that of the control group was held on Sunday and Tuesday.

3.2. Instrument

Pre- and posttests were taken from Top Notch/ Summit Placement Test A and B (Saslow & Asher, 2006). The validity and reliability of the tests were calculated by the authors of the book (0.91). The test includes 20 multiple-choice items which was divided into 6 parts. The learners were asked to listen carefully once and then choose the correct answer in an answer sheet. The pretest was used to check the learners' listening ability before the treatment and to check the learners listening problems.

Another data collection instrument was a questionnaire on self-efficacy about listening comprehension. This questionnaire was constructed based on three questionnaires of *Beliefs About Language Learning*

(BALL) developed by Hortwiz (1985), Persian Adaptation of the General Self-efficacy Scale constructed by Nezami, Schwarzer and Jerusalem (1996), and Morgan-Links Student Efficacy Scale (MJSES) made by Jinks and Morgan (1999). The questionnaire consisted of 20 Likert-scale items generated from items in the questionnaires mentioned. In completing the questionnaire, students were asked to read each item and rate how much they agreed or disagreed with the statement using a five-point Likert system (1) strongly disagree (2) moderately disagree (3) slightly disagree (4) moderately agree (5) strongly agree). The version which was used in this study was prepared and validated by Iranian researchers (Rahimi & Abedini, 2009). They reported that the reliability is 0.86. The questionnaire was used to check the learners' listening self-efficacy before and after treatment and the researcher made sure whether the task-based instruction affected the learners' listening self-efficacy or not.

Materials for instruction were taken from *Tactics for Listening*. The book had different lessons with different topics. Prior to the research, some interested topics were chosen and copied to be used in the experimental class.

3.3. Procedures for Data Collection and Data Analysis

Prior to taking any step, the researcher informed all the participants orally about the general purpose and procedure of the study. The researcher said to the participants that the study was about listening comprehension and self-efficacy, but the hypothesis was not explained.

The other phase of data collection was related to the test of listening comprehension as a pretest. The test was in multiple-choice format. The researchers distributed the papers among the learners and asked them to write their names on the papers. Besides, the researcher explained to the participants the importance of their participation in the study. In addition, the researcher assured the participants of the confidentiality of their responses and that their responses would be used just for study purposes. Before administering the listening comprehension test, the learners were informed that it would be normal if they were not able to answer all the questions. To reduce their stress and anxiety, they were told that it should not be considered as an exam or as a part of their term score. The learners' papers were scored by two raters and the collected data were put on SPSS (21.0.). The results showed that there was no difference between groups in terms of listening comprehension. Besides pretest, the learners answered the listening self-efficacy questionnaire.

At first, the questionnaires were distributed and the participants were asked to answer them. It took them about 25 minutes to answer the questionnaire. In order to make sure whether students were well-directed or not, the items were translated into Persian.

Then questionnaire was given to two university lecturers to make change whenever necessary. Before using it, the Persian version was piloted on 20 elementary EFL learners in the same institute.

All the learners in the experimental group listened to some listening tasks and answered them. The experimental and control classes were held twice a week (16 sessions). Each session took 30 to 45 minutes. The answers were checked by the researcher in the class. The participants in the experimental groups were taught the new vocabulary of the listening tracks.

Also, the learners were asked to tell a related short memory about the listening topic. For example, if the topic of the listening was about jobs, the learners told some memories about jobs. The learners told the summary of the listening. The sound reduction, pronunciation and intonation were taught by the teacher, too. The researcher corrected the mispronunciation, intonation and accent of the learners. Also, the researcher asked the learners to talk about the topic. This part of the instruction was a short free discussion. Moreover, short questions and answers were another part of the task-based instruction. Furthermore, the learners did some matching tasks to improve listening ability. The task required the

learners to match the listening information and correct pictures. Finally, the participants in both groups took posttest. Besides, the participants answered the same self-efficacy questionnaire, again.

In order to make sure the learners answered the questionnaire honestly, the researchers chose 5 to 8 questions, and the learners had a short interview with the researchers. The researcher asked the learners orally and compared the learners' oral answers with their written answers.

The listening comprehension test was in multiple-choice format. Considering the scoring system of the listening comprehension test, each correct answer received 1 point. The total score for listening comprehension was 20. Self-efficacy questionnaire about listening comprehension included 20 5-scale Likert items. The scale was from number 1 to 5. The total score for the questionnaire was 100. To analyze the data, the computer program SPSS was used to run independent sample t-test through which the results of pretest and posttest could be compared.

4. Results

The two intact groups were randomly selected as experimental and control group. All the learners were asked to take pretest of listening comprehension to make sure the learners had similar ability in listening prior to the task-based instruction. They were also required to answer a questionnaire of self-efficacy. The results of the pre-test were put into SPSS, the descriptive table which appears below in Table 1. The mean score of the experimental group is 8.56 and control group is 8.68. It implies that the mean of the experimental and the control groups are pretty similar which means that the groups started the study with similar listening ability.

Table 1: Descriptive statistics for groups on pre-test

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error of Mean
Experimental	30	8.56	2.36	.48
Control	30	8.68	2.47	.53

The results of the post-test scores of control and experimental groups were analyzed by SPSS. The results of descriptive statistics of the independent t-test is presented in the Table 2.

Table 2: Students' mean scores of post-test

Groups	N	Mean		Std. Deviation	Std. Error of Mean
Experimental	30	16.21	6.06		.29
Control	30	9.27	1.95		.50

As it can be seen from Table 2, the mean scores of the experimental and control groups are 16.21 and 9.27, respectively. The mean of the experimental group was more than the control group's mean. To determine whether task-based instructions have affected the learners' listening self-efficacy, an independent T-test was run on the post-test scores of the two groups.

Table 3. indicates that the two groups did not perform differently in the pretest of listening prior to the actual treatment sessions in the study. This implied that the performance of experimental and control groups on the pretest was not significantly different. The observed t value for the groups is .175 which is much lower than the critical t value (tcrit = 2.045).

Table 3: Independent samples T-test on pre-test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
	F	Sig.	Observed T	df	Sig.2tailed
Equal variances assumed	.023	.880	.175	58	.862
Equal variances not assumed			.175	47.893	.862

Table 4. indicates that the two groups performed differently. The experimental group (task-based) did better than control group on the post-test which means that task-based instruction was effective. The comparison between the groups on the post-test of the study showed that the experimental group outperformed the control group. In the other words, task-based instruction was the effective method of teaching. T-observed = 6.03 is greater than t-*critical* = 2.00 based on t-table with df = 58 and α = 0.05. Therefore, it can be concluded that the null hypothesis of this study is rejected.

Table 4: Independent samples T-test on post-test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
	F	Sig.	Observed T	df	Sig.2tailed
Equal variances assumed	5.575	.023	6.03	58	.000
Equal variances not assumed			6.03	26.711	.000

Table 5. summarizes the inferential analysis of the data of before and after listening instruction for the experimental group of the study.

Table 5: Paired sample result for the experimental group of the study

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	Pre EX & Pos EX	30	.843	.000

Table 5. presents the results for the paired t-test for two sets of the learners' scores in the experimental group in both pre- and post-test. The sig. value is smaller than 0.05=α which means the difference is significant.

Table 6. summarizes the inferential analysis of the data on both pre-test and post-test for the control group of the study.

Table 6: Paired sample result for the control group of the study

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	Pre CON & Pos CON	30	.149	.335

Table 6. presents that unlike pretest significance of the control group in both pre-and post-test is not noticeable.

5. General Discussion

Based on the findings of the present study, task-based teaching affects significantly the listening self-efficacy of elementary EFL learners; that is to say, the EFL students with high self-efficacy and low self-efficacy have significantly different listening achievements. Furthermore, this study provides further evidence to support the findings of Pajares' study (2006). He found that the learners' belief about their capabilities affect their success or failure in listening. Furthermore, the teachers can encourage the learners to have positive belief about successful experiences in their listening comprehension. It is recommended that teaching some listening comprehension strategies and tasks will help the learners to have high self-efficacy in listening achievement. It is proved by this research that learners with high efficacy deal with the difficulties of listening comprehension. This result is in line with findings of a number of previous studies, such as Chen and Deborah (2007), Graham and Macaro (2008), Hsieh and Shallert (2008).

Also, Wigfield's (1994) study confirmed the positive effect of self-efficacy on listening ability too. The subjects in his study were given self-report measures of self-perceptions of ability and expectancy for success in math and English at the beginning of one school year and at the end of that same year. At the same time, the researcher also collected data on the students' actual achievement on standardized tests and course grades. The study showed that learners' self-perception of ability and their expectancies for success were the strongest predictors of subsequent grades in math and English.

As Bandura (1997) had stated the stronger the self-efficacy, the more likely the students persist in challenging tasks and perform them successfully. Self-assertiveness is associated with high self-efficacy. Therefore when there is high self-efficacy, it influences the academic persistence and this is necessary to maintain high academic achievement (Lent, Brown, & Larkin, 1984, 1986). This explains the positive correlation between self-assertiveness and English language achievement in general and listening comprehension in particular in this study.

6. Pedagogical Implications of the Study

Based on the results of the present study, task-based teaching is effective promoting the language learners' listening ability. Therefore, teachers can engage the EFL learners in tasks which facilitate the listening comprehension and increase the listening self-efficacy.

Prior to implementing any tasks in the listening comprehension class, the teacher should analyze the curriculum, learners' language proficiency level in order to make a right choice of the type of task. Furthermore, to make the learner more interested in the listening tasks, teachers should select some interested topics or topics related to everyday life.

One of the implications of this study for EFL syllabus designers is to take care of some listening tasks which proved to have positive effect for listening comprehension and self-efficacy in this study.

7. Conclusion

The focus of this research was on answering the following question: Does task-based teaching significantly affect the listening self-efficacy of Iranian elementary EFL learners? Based on the data obtained from the study, it was demonstrated that the answers to the research questions were "yes". It meant that in the experimental group in which learners received proper amount of instruction in the form of listening tasks, the performance of participants has significantly changed. After the treatment, it was observed that participants improved significantly in the self-efficacy in their listening comprehension and the treatment has been effective. The participants in the experimental group have done much better regarding the listening comprehension. Due to the learners' low stress, the learners were an active listener. Overall, it can be said that task-based instruction increased self-efficacy and comprehension.

REFERENCES

Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. New York: Freeman.

Bandura, A. (2006). Guide for creating self-efficacy scales. In F. Pajares & T. Urdan (Eds.), *Self efficacy beliefs in adolescents* (pp. 307-338). Greenwich, CT: Information Age. http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/1131888

Bandura, A., Barbaranelli, C., Caprara, G. V., & Pastorelli, C. (1996). Multifaceted impact of self-efficacy beliefs on academic functioning. *Child Development, 67*, 1206-1222.

Barani, G. (2011). The relationship between computer assisted language learning (CALL) and listening skill of Iranian EFL learners. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences, 15*, 4059-4063.

Bong, M. (2006). Asking the right question: How confident are you that you could successfully perform these tasks? In F. Pajares & T. Urdan (Eds.), *Self-efficacy beliefs of adolescents* (pp. 287-306). Greenwich, CT: Information Age.

Buck, G. (2001). *Assessing listening*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511732959

Chen, H-Y & Deborah, J. (2007). *The relationship between EFL learners' self-efficacy beliefs and English performance.*

Compeau, R., (1995). Computer self-efficacy: Development and measurement. *MIS Journal, 19*(2), 189-211. http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/249688

Edwards, C. & Willis, J. (eds.) (2005). Teachers exploring tasks in English language teaching, Houndmills: Palgrave MacMillian.

Ellis R. (2003). *Task-based language teaching and learning.* Oxford, OUP.

Graham, S., & Macaro, E. (2008). Strategy instruction in listening for lower-intermediate learners of French. *Language Learning, 58*(4), 747-783. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2008.00478.x

Hsieh, P. H., & Schallert, D. L. (2008). Implications from self-efficacy and attribution theories for an understanding of undergraduates' motivation in a foreign language course. *Contemporary Educational Psychology, 33*, 513-532. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.cedpsych.2008.01.003

Jeon, K. S. (2007). Interaction-driven L2 learning: Characterizing linguistic development. In A. Mackey (Ed.), *Conversational interaction in second language acquisition: A series of empirical studies*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Multon, K. D., Brown, S. D., & Lent, R. W. (1991). Relation of self-efficacy beliefs to academic outcomes: A meta-analytic investigation. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 38,* 30-38. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0022-0167.38.1.30

Nunan, D. (2004). *Task-based language teaching.* Cambridge University Press

Osada, N. (2004). Listening comprehension research: A brief review of the past thirty years. *Dialogue, 3*(1), 53-66.

Pajares, F., & Miller, M. D. (1997). Mathematics self-efficacy and mathematical problem solving: Implications of using different forms of assessment. *Journal of Experimental Education, 65,* 213-228. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/00220973.1997.9943455

Pajares, F., & Urdan, T. (2006). *Self-efficacy beliefs of adolescents.* Greenwich, CT: Information Age.

Prabhu, N. S. (1987). *Second language pedagogy.* Oxford University Press.

Richards, J. C. (2005). Second thoughts on teaching listening. *RELC Journal, 36*(1), 85-92. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0033688205053484

Richards, J. C., & Rodgers, T. (2001). *Approaches and methods in language teaching.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Saslow, J., & Asher, A. (2006). *Top Notch Placement Test.* New York: Pearson Education, Inc.

Schunk, D. H., & Pajares, F. (2002). The development of academic self-efficacy. In A. Wigfield & J. Eccles (Eds.), *Development of achievement motivation* (pp. 15-31). San Diego: Academic Press. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/B978-012750053-9/50003-6

Stajkovic, A. D., & Luthans, F. (1998). Self-efficacy and work-related performance: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin, 124,* 240–261. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.124.2.240

Verdugo, D. R., & Belmonte, I. A. (2007). Using digital stories to improve listening comprehension with Spanish young learners of English. *Language Learning and Technology, 11*(1), 87-101.

White, G. (2010). *Listening.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Wigfield, A. (1994). Expectancy-value theory of achievement motivation: A developmental perspective. *Educational Psychology Review. 6,* 49-78. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/BF02209024

Willis, J. (1996). *A framework for task-based learning.* Harlow: Longman.

THE EFFECT OF JOURNAL WRITING AND EXPERTISE ON TEACHER'S REFLECTIVITY IN TEACHING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

Raziyeh Baghi
Department of English, Bushehr branch, Islamic Azad University
Bushehr, Iran
saharbaghi@gmail.com

Nasim Ghanbari
Department of English, Persian Gulf University
Bushehr, Iran
btghanbari@gmail.com

Hossein Saadabadi Motlagh
Department of English, Bushehr branch, Islamic Azad University
Bushehr, Iran
saadabadiimh@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

REFLECTIVE PRACTICE HAS BECOME THE LEADING PARADIGM IN EFL/ESL EDUCATION AND DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS IN THE LAST FEW YEARS. IN EFL/ESL EDUCATION, TEACHER REFLECTION REFERS TO TEACHERS' CRITICAL THINKING ABOUT TEACHING AND LEARNING PROCESS IN THEIR CLASSES WHICH REQUIRES A PRACTICAL TOOL AND JOURNAL WRITING AS A REFLECTIVE TOOL HAS PRODUCED SIGNIFICANT RESULTS IN THIS REGARD. REFLECTIVE JOURNALS ARE BELIEVED TO PROMOTE REFLECTIVE PRACTICE IN TEACHERS. HOWEVER, SOMEWHAT LESS IS KNOWN ABOUT HOW FAR TEACHERS' REFLECTIVITY MIGHT BE AFFECTED BY THEIR LEVEL OF EXPERTISE, WRITING REFLECTIVE JOURNALS AS A REFLECTIVE TOOL. PRESENT STUDY EXPLORED THE EFFECTS OF JOURNAL WRITING IN THIS REGARD. THE RESEARCHER WAS TO INVESTIGATE THE EFFECT OF TWO INDEPENDENT VARIABLES: JOURNAL WRITING AND EXPERTISE ON THE DEPENDENT VARIABLE: TEACHER REFLECTIVITY. SO, 30 MALE AND FEMALE EFL TEACHERS IN AN IRANIAN LANGUAGE CENTER WERE REQUIRED TO FILL OUT A REFLECTIVE QUESTIONNAIRE AND FINALLY TWO KINDS OF T-TESTS: INDEPENDENT AND PAIRED AS WELL AS A TWO-WAY RM ANOVA WERE APPLIED TO ANALYZE THE DATA. THE RESULTS SUGGEST THAT JOURNAL WRITING PROMOTES THE TEACHERS' REFLECTIVE THINKING AND THEREFORE TEACHING AND JOURNALS PROVIDE TEACHERS WITH CONSTRUCTIVE PERCEPTION CHANGES IN THEIR CLASSES, AND EXPERTISE WAS NOT PROVED TO PLAY A SIGNIFICANT ROLE.

KEYWORDS: REFLECTION, CRITICAL THINKING, REFLECTIVE TEACHING, REFLECTIVE JOURNALS, TEACHER DEVELOPMENT

1. Introduction

Underestimating the power of mind and not thinking about what has already happened in an educational context is a serious threat to educational systems worldwide, which potentially exists due to teachers' negligence. Taking this power into consideration by EFL/ESL teachers should therefore come first. In order for the EFL teachers to be thoughtful, reflection is of paramount importance. Reflectivity is like a journey during which teachers need to be provided with practical ways to safely get to their destination, which is learners' learning. According to Dewey (1933), reflection is a critical or analytical way of thinking which is thought to be the core of education by a large number of educational experts. The concept of reflective teaching has been referred to by numerous researchers as well as educators, naming just a limited number of whom: (Tarvin, 1991; Richards and Lockart, 1994; Freeman and Richards, 1996; Stanley, 1998; Richards, 1998; Tillman, 2003; Farrell, 2013**).** One method recommended to facilitate reflection is writing regular journals. Since reflective journals as a tool to trigger and then promote reflection are thought to be a very demanding one in Iran and Iranian contexts (A. Abednia and et. al., 2013), it has not been adequately explored in EFL context. The current study was to prove it false and instead introduce this technical tool as something entirely handy and useful to apply in ELT. The role of expertise was also investigated. This paper outlines a study of how writing journals can contribute to reflectivity and how this practical tool results in a change in teachers' perception of teaching and learning regarding their level of expertise.

2. Review of related literature

2.1. How to think: Power of thinking

Thinking is the central part of every human being and the main difference between the man and the brutes. The best form of thinking is the one involving the basis along with consequences of a belief and it leads to reflective thought and conscious inquiry. There is a central factor in all intellectual thinking that is one thing signifies another. Thinking and thoughts help humans escape from purely routine actions, on the other hand it brings about the possibility of errors and mistakes. A being without capacity for thought is moved only by instincts (Dewey, 1933). A good way of thinking usually leads to an efficient performance and this performance can later on be reflected upon by power of good thinking again. However, there is no unique power of thought but multiple ways in which things observed evoke thoughts, so thinking is a specific power but it does not occur in one specific way which is an important issue in the field of education. The more rational people's social life become and the less blind passion people are involved with, the more positive and constructive the educational organizations may turn into. Following that, the work of teaching will gain more importance since in this case teaching should not only change natural potentials into trained habits of thought but also strengthen the mind against illogical tendencies and replace erroneous thoughts already formed (Dewey, 1933).

2.2. Reflection

Albert Einstein: "I must be willing to give up what I am in order to become what I will be." This quotation by Einstein signifies the core of change; reflection.

In order to learn how to think well one definitely needs to be trained to think reflectively. When aware of the power of thinking, one is able to go through the cycle of reflection as follows:
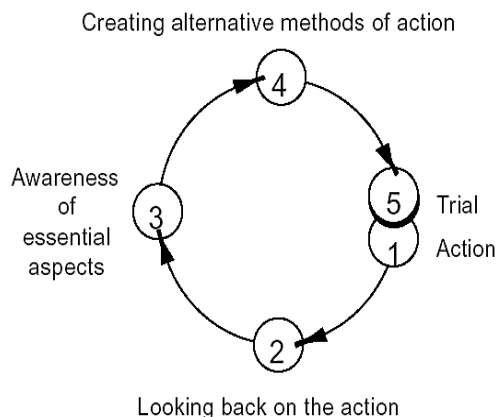
Figure 2.2.The ALACT model describing the ideal process of reflection by Korthagen et al., 2001

Dewey reminds us that "reflection is a complex, rigorous, intellectual and emotional enterprise that takes time to do well" (Rodgers, 2002, p.3). Accordingly, Fendler (2003) refers to reflection as being based on Cartesian Philosophy, which considers exploring the self as a valid means of knowledge. In Cartesian assumption self-awareness leads to the development of the second self, a kind of intrapersonal knowledge which contributes to the self-actualization of every individual to make their attitudes towards life. Reflection as an activity resulting in self-understanding was also echoed by Socrates and Freud.

According to Dewey(1933) three factors are pivotal in the process of reflective thinking:" open-mindedness", "wholeheartedness" and "sense of responsibility". The first one could be considered the most significant because it can give you enough flexibility to be open to multiple possible alternatives. By the second one, Dewey means the curiosity and enthusiasm without which reflection could be somewhat impossible. For whole-heartedness to be effective some environmental factors are to be provided, otherwise it turns into bitterness. And the third, sense of responsibility, makes practice line up with theory. In other words, reflection involves awareness, evaluation and regulation.

Reflection improves thinking that ends in a conclusion and that is where educators could deal with challenges in education. Thinking is always believed to be the core of pedagogy; therefore, training teachers to learn how to think effectively is an essential part of every pedagogical system. Concepts of reflection and reflective teaching strongly determine the way teachers teach and as a result the way they form and develop their attitudes towards educational system.

2.3. Reflection in teaching

Reflective teaching has become a buzzword in many educational and developmental programs worldwide. When teacher candidates approach teaching, they usually have a plethora of simplistic views about teaching and learning. The only way to help them adjust what they have learnt in teacher preparation programs to their real class situations is learning how to reflect on their knowledge critically, and this is what helps them bridge the gap between what they have imagined about teaching and learning and what the realities are (Lee, 2008). Any action taken by a reflective teacher is by no means impulsive but based on wisdom that finally benefits learners' learning and he always avails himself of every opportunity to revise, refine, or discard his pervious teaching theory and welcome a newly-born one based on his new experience. Thus, reflection in this sense is a journey from practice to theory and also from theory to practice. With reflection every step taken is deliberate and intentional rather than spontaneous and routine. Teachers require to put their professional competence into practice and to constantly reflect on it (Wallace, 1991).

When teachers are provided with a chance to have systematic reflection on their experience, they are well-equipped to articulate not only their own but also their students' needs and they will as a result be able to cope with challenges and propose actions more rigorously. Regarding that, Schön has a distinction for reflection: reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action. By the former he means looking for solutions and reframing the situation as soon as confronting a challenge while teaching. In the latter, he believes in reflection in the posteriori of the event; in other words reflection takes place subsequent to teaching not while teaching. Both could be complementary (Schön, 1983). Killion and Todnem (1991) extended Schön's concept by including "reflection-for-action", the outcomes determining teachers' "future action".

Thus, being aware of the fact that their actions can "silence" or "activate" learners' voices, reflective teachers pay enough attention to what students say and their concerns are the focus of classroom activities not the teachers' syllabus (Brookfield, 1995).

2.4. Reflection in EFL/ESL Classroom

Regarding reflection in ESL/EFL classrooms there are two kinds of activities and also two groups of learners: "overt-response" activities vs contemplative activities and accordingly "impulsive" vs "reflective" learners. "Overt-response" activities are "interfactional" activities such as role or game playing, small-group discussions, etc. that do not require a high level of thinking for which students have to be "impulsive" in order to be involved whereas contemplative activities need the learners to investigate problems through thinking and after "extensive reflection" to come up with appropriate solutions. Brown (as cited in Tarvin and Al-Arshi, 1991, p.9).

 In EFL/ESL communicative classrooms, a reflective teacher promotes learners' level of learning by encouraging activities which help the "impulsive" students turn into "reflective" students who tend to investigate the challenging situations to pinpoint the causes to "venture a solution" after "extensive reflection". Brown (as cited in Tarvin and Arishi, 1991, p.8). The point that reflective teachers are able to tease out is dichotomizing "unconscious acquisition" in lower levels and "conscious, monitored" learning in higher levels in EFL/ESL classes, so learning is a process commencing with intuition and ending in communicative intentions (p.13). Having such an approach, class activities should arouse reflective as well as non-reflective thinking through both reflective and automatic-response activities. However, teachers are to decide where to use what.

Thus, being a critically reflective teacher is by no means easy. It is a long complicated process that needs hard work. Teaching depends on growth and development. It is dynamic and is practiced in dynamic situations. It is full of intellectual puzzlement as well as ethical dilemmas. In order to survive, teachers have to make a lot of effort and in this regard, they should be provided with adequate support by educators and educational systems through Teacher Development Plans using the required reflective tools, one of which is journal writing.

2.5. Journal writing as a reflective tool

To King and Kitchener (1994), although most teachers already hold degrees in their fields and many have extensive work experience, only a few have ever written or thought reflectively during their academic careers(cited in Spalding, Wilson and Mewborn,2002).

Unfortunately, most teachers just learn the HOW of teaching while the WHY of teaching is usually discarded. An effective educational system is the one which puts the main focus on "how successful teachers think" (Wlodarsky, 2010, p.213). Having been oriented to reflection, teachers ought to know how to become reflective applying reflective tools, one of which is journaling,   facilitating reflective process (p.8). To Farris and Fuhler (1996), journals are "a birthplace for creative and critical thinking" (Cited in Lee, 2008, p.118).

Journal writing is a popular technique that contributes to teacher reflectivity and it is a navigational tool to encourage reflection in action, on action and also for action. It provides an opportunity for teachers to use the process of writing to describe and explore and finally analyze their own teaching practices.

In Lee's (2005) framework, three levels of depth of thinking process are identified for the reflection applied in journal writing. Level one is the "recall" level at which one describes everything based on his own perception without looking for reasons or other alternatives, so the teacher is just an imitator not a critical thinker. Level two is the "rationalization" level, where one tries to find the links between things that have happened and the reasons behind them. Level three is the "reflectivity" level; at this level teachers are able to analyze experiences from various points of view, so they have got an analytical mind and they turn into critical thinkers. Therefore, the lowest level of reflection in journal writing is just looking for "How" of everything while the highest level is not only "Why" but also "So What" questions. Thus, journaling usually starts with descriptive/narrative journals and ends in reflective ones in the way that teachers get used to having ongoing self-dialogs and they find it easy to voice their real opinions in all honesty. So, a suitable " framework"   accompanied by a guideline and " instruction" along with "feedback" and "encouragement" provision by a professional helps novice teachers to " move from level 1 through to levels 2, 3, 4 and 5" of journal writing more confidently (Bain, et al.,1999 as cited in Ussher, 2011, p.107). To Hum (2007) and Sedan (2009) this is called the process of "scaffolding" in reflective journal writing (cited in Ussher, 2011, p.107).

In addition, considering affective domain ,journal writing prevents teachers from facing fatigue after teaching for a couple of years, which is an ugly truth among teachers specially EFL teachers, since teaching/ learning a language as a foreign one is a very complicated process. From psychological point of view, writing down what pressures your mind as a form of therapy keeps your mind healthy and safe (Farrell, 2013). However, the habit of writing is not formed over night; it is protracted so it would entail spending time and teachers must also have the desire to start employing them in the first place. "The formation of this habit is the Training of Mind" (cited in Farrell, 2014, p.3).As Farrell (2014) mentions, there is a weak probability that teachers fake in their journals and they are usually realistic; therefore, journaling not only generates a high level of alertness as well as awareness in ESL/EFL teachers but it also boosts their sense of responsibility towards what they have done and what they are going to do in future. Thus, teachers become self-critical considering the consequences of every step taken in their classes. This is the reason why journals are believed to increase dynamism in ESL/EFL teaching.According to Farrell (2012) expertise is believed to be a determining factor in reforming teachers' thoughts and in general educational experience is thought to provide teachers with higher quality of teaching while lack of that is believed to put the teachers in the state of bafflement. Farrell (2012) also believes that in education there is no full agreement to the exact definition for novice and experienced teachers in terms of level of expertise, in other words, the number of years of teaching, but it could be from as little as 1 year to as many as 5 years.3 years is considered as realistic by Farrell (2012) and Huberman (1989,1992) has the same assertion. Thus, expertise was chosen as one of the independent variables and 3 years of experience was considered as the cut-off point. Thus, the effect of the level of expertise on teacher reflectivity through journal writing seemed a reasonable issue to be investigated.

3. Method

3.1. Research questions

The main research question in focus of this study was if there is any interaction between journal writing and expertise on teachers' reflectivity. So, the present study sought to answer the following questions:

1. Does teachers' journal writing affect their reflectivity in teaching?

2. Does expertise affect teachers' reflectivity in teaching?

3. Is there any interaction between journal writing and expertise on teachers' reflectivity?

3.2. Participants

Thirty male and female EFL teachers participated in the study. They were heterogeneous in different aspects, such as: age, qualifications, years of experience, levels they were teaching and field of study.

Two main categories were identified by the researcher regarding the participants' level of expertise: Novice teachers (N = 14), having less than 3 years of EFL teaching experience and experienced teachers (N = 16), having more than 3 years of EFL teaching experience. Their ages ranged from 20 to 37 and they had BA or MA degrees in either education or literature.

3.3. Instruments

The study was mixed-method using both quantitative and qualitative elements and the following instruments were applied:

1-The journal writing guideline consisting of five critical questions whose responses could make the skeleton of journals was designed by the researcher. The participants were provided with brief explanation of what a reflective journal was by that guideline. The guideline was given to the participants at a meeting held to explain how to make use of that.

2-This study has made use of a reflective teaching instrument including 29 items devised by Akbari, et al. (2010). It is a five-point Likert Scale which has been designed regarding six factors: cognitive, metacognitive, affective, practical, and moral. It is in a multiple-choice test format with five options: Never, Rarely, Sometimes, Often, Always.

3-Eight journals were supposed to be written by the participants based on the journal writing guideline. Since the researcher thought the language might be a barrier to the participants' power of expressing themselves, they were free to choose either English or Persian as the language of their journals. The participants were guided to write reflective journals reflecting on their classes including methodology and affective domain. Journal writing as a core tool in this study was considered to be the most practical in forming teachers' reflectivity and the participants were asked to develop their journals as carefully as possible(2 entries were included in the appendices) . And, to pave the way for them some samples were emailed to them.

3.4. Data Collection

In the first place the researcher had to obtain permission from Navid Pars Language Institute (NPLI) whose teachers were the participants of this study to start the process of data collection, so the researcher had to go through some paperwork. As the first step of data collection the participants were asked to fill out the reflective teaching questionnaire on-line. The second step was the step of journal writing by the participants. Since journal writing seemed to be a new concept to the participants, the researcher invited the participants to a meeting when she provided them with the journal writing guideline which had been designed by her in advance. Along with the guideline, the researcher tried to explain the process of data collection to the participants in order to avoid ambiguity they had about how to write journals and she also emailed some sample journals to the participants. The participants were asked to write reflective journals for eight sessions. While going through this stage the participants were all supported by the researcher to write their journals based on the required criteria as much as possible. For instance, they emailed their first journals to be commented and checked by the researcher. After the researcher had received the journals, the participants entered the third phase which was filling out the previous

questionnaire for the second time whose results were to be compared with the result of the first time and analyzed later on.

3.5. Data analysis

Regarding the research questions, 2 paired, 2 independent t-tests and a two-way repeated-measures ANOVA were run. To answer the first question, two paired t-tests and for the second question two independent t-tests were run. Next, gain scores and size effects were calculated for both groups to see the effect of journal writing and expertise on teachers' reflectivity separately and finally these tests were followed by a two-way repeated-measures ANOVA to prove or reject the interaction between journal writing and expertise and its effect on teachers' reflectivity.

4. Results

To answer the first research question, two paired t-tests were run and the descriptive statistics in Table 1 and the results of two follow-up paired t-tests, presented in Tables 1 and 2 indicated that both groups improved their reflective teaching skill as a result of journal writing.

Table 4.1.

The effect of journal writing on teacher reflectivity regarding the means

Teachers	Number	Mean			
Experienced	16	Pretest	3.1342	Posttest	3.4538
Novice	14	Pretest	3.3135	Posttest	3.6157

Table 4.2.

The effect of journal writing on teacher reflectivity regarding the *p* value

Teachers	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
Experienced	-2.884	.011
Novice	-4.301	.001

The results (Tables 1&2) showed that for the experienced teachers, the difference between the mean scores of reflective teaching before journal writing (X=3.13) and after that (X=3.45) was statistically significant (t=2.884, *p<0.05*); similarly the posttest mean for the novice teachers (X=3.61) was significantly higher than their pre-test (X=3.31) (t=4.301, *p<0.05*). Therefore, it can be claimed that journal writing had helped both groups of teachers improve their reflectivity.

To answer the second research question, two follow-up independent t-tests were run between the pre-tests and post-tests of the two groups of teachers (novice and experienced) (Table 3 and Table 4).

Table 4.3.

The effect of expertise on teacher reflectivity regarding the means; independent t-test

Teachers	Number	Mean			
Experienced	16	Pretest	3.1342	Posttest	3.4538
Novice	14	Pretest	3.2913	Posttest	3.6157

Table 4.4.

The effect of expertise on teacher reflectivity regarding *p*; independent t-test

Test	T	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pretest	-.898	.376
Posttest	-.887	.382

As seen in Tables 3 and 4 the mean of the pretest of experienced teachers is 3.13 and that of the novice teachers is 3.29, which are not significantly different (t=0.89, *p* >0.05); similarly, the difference between the post-test means of the two groups (3.45 for experienced teachers and 3.61 for novice teachers) is not statistically significant (t=0.88, *p* >0.05).

In order to see if any one of the two groups had more gain than the other, their gain scores were calculated. Table 5 represents the mean gains as well as the results of an independent t-test comparing these means.

Table 4.5.

The effect of expertise on teacher reflectivity; Gain Scores regarding the mean and *p* value

Teachers' Gain Score	N	Mean	T	Sig. (2-tailed)
Experienced	16	.3196	.129	.889
Novice	14	.3022	.133	.895

As the results show, the gain for the novice teachers is 0.30 and that of experienced teachers 0.31. The results of the t-test show that the difference between them is not significant (t= 0.12, p >0.05).

In order to see if the magnitude for the effect of journal writing for both groups is similar or not, the effect size for both groups was calculated. The effect size for the experienced teachers was 0.61 and that of the novice teachers was 0.65, both moderate values.

And finally to answer the third question, a 2x2 mixed between-within repeated-measures ANOVA was run (T6, T7). The results depicted a significant effect for journal writing (F [1,28]= 21.02, p<0.05), but no significant effect was found for teachers' expertise (F [1,28]=1.03, p>0.05) in general, and for the interaction of journal writing and teacher's expertise

(F [1,28]=.017, p>0.05) in particular as well. In other words, when the researcher found out that journal writing significantly affected reflective teaching and expertise had no significant effect in this regard, she wanted to see if there was an interaction between journal writing and expertise. As demonstrated in Table 6, journal writing*expertise: F [1, 28]= .017, p>0.05 (.899), no significant effect for the interaction of journal writing and teachers' expertise was found. Thus, journal writing affected teachers' reflectivity for both experienced and novice teachers in the same way.

Table 4.6.

Tests of Within-Subjects Effects, interaction of journal writing and teacher's expertise on reflectivity

Source	F	Sig.
Journal writing	21.021	.000
Journal writing* Expertise	.017	.899

Table 4.7.

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects, interaction of journal writing and teacher's expertise on reflectivity

Source	DF	F	Sig.
Expertise	1	1.031	.319
Error	28	……	…….

5. Discussion

The focus of this study as previously pointed out was journal writing and its effects on teachers' reflectivity considering the level of expertise. So, journals were used as a practical tool to help EFL teachers become more reflective in their classes.

Accordingly, Boud (2001) also considered journals as a tool to promote reflection on experience. He believed that journal writing could be a form of self-therapy to enhance reflection and reflective practice. Journals are thought to give teachers the power to prepare themselves for what is to come as termed by Schön "reflection for action". In this respect, journals help teachers to prepare for reflection in anticipation of events, reflection in the midst of action and reflection after events.

Farrell (1998) confirms the same fact about journals by saying that journal writing promotes reflective thinking and it is an opportunity for teachers to explore their own teaching process.

To support that, Brock, Yu, and Wong (1992) suggest that journals promote development of reflective teaching. And, Francis (1995) asserts that journal writing involves individual brainstorming that can facilitates reflection. He believes that reflection can never happen automatically; it needs to be triggered by a tool such as reflective journals.

Therefore, the practicability of journals as a tool to enable teachers to become autonomous critical thinkers is a fact that has been studied and supported by numerous researchers in the field of education.

In line with all those studies, the result of the current study demonstrated that journal writing was an effective tool for teachers' reflectivity and based on the findings discussed both groups of participants' reflectivity was significantly affected by the process of journal writing. And, expertise was not a determining factor. So, statistically speaking, no significant interaction was found between journal writing and expertise on teachers' reflectivity (*p>.05*).

The other finding was that, after reading the journals the researcher found out on the set of the process of journal writing journals were more descriptive than reflective or if reflective, they were not as reflective as the last ones. So, it seemed as though describing what had happened in classes was easier than reflecting on the events taking place while teaching. Or, perhaps at the beginning, the participants were not able to think that critically. And this is not in contrast with what was previously pointed out by Hatton and Smith (1995) that reflection would not happen automatically overnight and it usually would start with description and it would be unrealistic to expect teachers to write critically reflective journals in the first step.

Thus, journal writing seems a developmental process like a continuum, at one end of which we have the description while at the other end we have the reflection. In order to go through this continuum, guidance by the researcher and error and trial by the teachers as the participants were two paramount factors.

6. Conclusions and implications

In conclusion, journal writing was proved to be a process helping teachers notice what their underlying justification was behind every step taken in their classes. It was also proved to have the same effectiveness for both novice and experienced teachers in this study. In fact, expertise was not found to have a significant role in this regard. Maybe it was because thoughtfulness and analytical thinking had nothing to do with experience; teachers just needed to learn how to trigger it which was done by the researcher of this study through writing journals.

This study would have the following theoretical and pedagogical implications in education in general and in EFL teaching in particular.

Teachers need to be equipped with the accurate mentality about reflectivity and reflective teaching. Regarding this need, this research can help all teachers regardless of their level of experience to understand the importance of employing journals as a device to foster self-awareness and as a result to develop their decision-making power and become reflective teachers who are able to evaluate their own teaching and cope with conflicting aspects of their classes.

In this regard, how to train pre-service teachers and support in-service teachers to turn into critical thinkers is the fact that benefits educators, teachers and learners who are the final products of every education system. Therefore, the findings of this study can encourage educators, mentors and boards of education to consider journal writing as a major part of both Teacher Training and Teacher Development Programs for pre-service and in-service teachers. The second group is EFL teachers who can benefit from TTP and TDP far more than today provided that they learn how to foster inward and outward thinking through writing reflective journals. So, this study can help teachers understand the practicality of journal writing in developing their critical thinking to rely upon their own correct identification of learners' needs rather than depending on the educators for illumination. The last but not the least, EFL learners are the real beneficiaries of this study in that reflective teachers tend to reflect on their teaching keeping students' learning in mind every single moment. In every educational system the first and the last goal is the students' learning and teaching is usually evaluated based on learning outcomes. Thus, when the findings of this study are utilized by EFL educators as well as EFL teachers, in fact, learners are benefited as the final products in every educational context.

REFERENCES
Akbari, R. (2007). Reflections on reflection: A critical appraisal of reflective practices in L2 teacher education. *System*, *35*(2), 192-207.
Akbari, R., Behzadpoor, F., & Dadvand, B. (2010). Development of English language teaching   reflection inventory. *System*, *38*(2), 211-227.
Bain, J. D., Ballantyne, R., Packer, J., & Mills, C. (1999). Using journal writing to enhance student teachers' reflectivity during field experience placements.*Teachers and Teaching: theory and practice*, *5*(1), 51-73.
Boud, D. (2001). Using journal writing to enhance reflective practice. *New directions for adult and continuing education*, *2001*(90), 9-18.
Brock, M. N., Yu, B., & Wong, M. (1992). Journaling" together: Collaborative diary-keeping and teacher development. *Perspectives on second language teacher education*, 295-307.
Dewey, J. (1933). How we think: A restatement of the relation of reflective thinking to the educational process. *Lexington, MA: Heath*
Dewey, J. (1997). *How we think*. Courier Corporation
Farrell, T.S. (2013). Teacher self-awareness through journal writing. *Reflective Practice*, *14*(4), 465-471.
Farrell, T.S. (2014). 'Teacher You Are Stupid!'–Cultivating a Reflective Disposition. *TESL, EJ,* 18(3), 1-10.
Farris, P. J., & Fuhler, C. J. (1996). Using response journals with pre-service teachers. *The Clearing House*, *70*(1), 26-29.

Fendler, L. (2003). Teacher reflection in a hall of mirrors: Historical influences and political reverberations. *Educational researcher*, *32*(3), 16-25.

Francis, D. (1995). The reflective journal: A window to preservice teachers' practical knowledge. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *11*(3), 229-241.

Freeman, D., & Richards, J. C. (1996). *Teacher learning in language teaching*. Cambridge University Press.

Hatton, N., & Smith, D. (1994). Facilitating Reflection: Issues and Research.

Hatton, N., & Smith, D. (1995). Reflection in teacher education: Towards definition and implementation. *Teaching and teacher education*, *11*(1), 33-49.

Huberman, M. (1989). The professional life cycle of teachers. *The Teachers College Record*, *91*(1), 31-57.

Huberman, M. (1992). Teacher development and instructional mastery. *Understanding teacher development*, 122-142.

King, P. M., & Kitchener, K. S. (1994). *Developing Reflective Judgment: Understanding and Promoting Intellectual Growth and Critical Thinking in Adolescents and Adults. Jossey-Bass Higher and Adult Education Series and Jossey-Bass Social and Behavioral Science Series*. Jossey-Bass, 350 Sansome Street, San Francisco, CA 94104-1310.

KILLION, J. P., & TODNEM, G. Y. R. (1991). A process for personal theory building.

Korthagen, F. (2001). A Reflection on Reflection. *Linking practice and theory: The pedagogy of realistic teacher education*, 51.

Korthagen, F. A. (1993). Two modes of reflection. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *9*(3), 317-326.

Lee, I. (2008). Fostering pre-service reflection through response journals. *Teacher Education Quarterly*, 117-139.

Richards, J. C. (1998). *Beyond training: Perspectives on language teacher education*. Cambridge University Press

Rodgers, C. (2002). Defining reflection: Another look at John Dewey and reflective thinking. *The Teachers College Record*, *104*(4), 842-866.

Schön, D. A. (1983). *The reflective practitioner: How professionals think in action* (Vol. 5126). Basic books.

Spalding, E., Wilson, A., & Mewborn, D. (2002). Demystifying reflection: A study of pedagogical strategies that encourage reflective journal writing. *The Teachers College Record*, *104*(7), 1393-1421.

Stanley, C. (1998). A framework for teacher reflectivity. *TESOL quarterly*, 584-591.

Tarvin, W. L., & Al-Arshi, A. Y. (1991). Rethinking Communicative Language-Teaching: Reflection and the EFL Classroom. *TESOL Quarterly*,*25* (1), 9-27.

Tillman, L. C. (2003). Mentoring, reflection, and reciprocal journaling. *Theory into Practice*, *42*(3), 226-233.

Ussher, B., & Chalmers, J. (2011). Now what? First year student teachers' reflective journal writing. *Waikato Journal of Education*, *16*(3).

Wallace, M. J. (1991). *Training foreign language teachers: A reflective approach*. Cambridge University Press.

Wlodarsky, R., & Walters, H. (2010). Teacher reflectivity: Importance, origins, and tools to facilitate. *The purposes, practices, and professionalism of teacher reflectivity: Insights for twenty-first-century teachers and students*, 211-229.

Appendices

Appendix 1: Journal Writing Guideline

Dear friend,

What am I like as a teacher? How do I like to be? And how can I be the teacher I would like to? These are the questions whose answers can form teachers' perceptions of teaching. In order to be able to come up with proper answers, reflection is required and one of the tools of being reflective is journal writing.

Journaling in its various forms is a means for recording personal thoughts, daily experiences, and evolving insights. The process often evokes conversation with self, another person, or even an imagined

other person. It is a technique to promote critical self-reflection where dilemmas, contradictions, and evolving worldviews are questioned or challenged. (Hiemstra, R. 2001)

The following questions help you write your reflective journals. In your journals you can address other aspects of the specific challenge you faced.

Q.1- How satisfied was I with my class today? Why?

Completely satisfied □   Somewhat satisfied □   Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied □
Somewhat dissatisfied □   Completely dissatisfied□

Q.2- Did everything go well? If not, what were the challenges in my class today? What went well and what went wrong?

Q.3- How did I cope with the challenges?

Q.4- How better could I have handled my class? In what areas could I have acted differently?

Q5: Did other solutions exist except the one I used? What is my plan to handle my class better next session?

Appendix 2: Teacher Reflectivity Questionnaire

Name:

Gender: Male □   Female □

Teaching Experience (number of years):

Degree: No Degree □   B.A. □   M.A. □   Ph.D. □   In other fields of study (please specify) □

Dear respondent,

This questionnaire is devised with the aim of looking into your actual teaching practices as a professional teacher. To that end, your careful completion of the questionnaire will definitely contribute to obtaining real data which is crucial for more accurate findings. Therefore, please check the box which best describes your actual teaching practices. The information will be kept confidential and will be used just for research purposes.

Thank you very much in advance for your time and cooperation.

Never   2.Rarely   3.Sometimes   4.often   5.always

Items:	Never	rarely	Sometimes	Often	always
1. I have a file where I keep my accounts of my teaching for reviewing purposes.	□	□	□	□	□

Items:	Never	rarely	Sometimes	Often	always
2. I talk about my classroom experiences with my colleagues and seek their advice/feedback.	□	□	□	□	□
3. After each lesson, I write about accomplishments & failures of that lesson or I talk about them to a colleague.	□	□	□	□	□
4. I discuss practical/theoretical issues with my colleagues.	□	□	□	□	□
5. I observe the other teachers' classrooms to learn about their efficient practices.	□	□	□	□	□
6. I ask my peers to observe my teaching and comment on my teaching performance.	□	□	□	□	□
7. I read books/articles related to effective teaching to improve my classroom performance.	□	□	□	□	□
8. I participate in workshops/ conferences related to teaching/ learning issues.	□	□	□	□	□
9. I think of writing articles based on my classroom experiences.	□	□	□	□	□
10. I look at journal articles or search the internet to see what the recent developments in my profession are.	□	□	□	□	□

Items:	Never	rarely	Sometimes	Often	always
11. I carry out small scale research activities in my classes to become better informed of learning& teaching processes.	□	□	□	□	□
12. I think of classroom events as potential research topics and think of finding a method for investigating them.	□	□	□	□	□
13. I talk to my students to learn about their learning styles and preferences.	□	□	□	□	□
14. I talk to my students to learn about their family backgrounds, hobbies, interests and abilities.	□	□	□	□	□
15. I ask my students whether they like a teaching task or not.	□	□	□	□	□
16. As a teacher, I think about my teaching philosophy and the way it is affecting my teaching.	□	□	□	□	□
17. I think of the ways my biography and my background affects the way I define myself as a teacher.	□	□	□	□	□
18. I think of meaning or significance of my job as a teacher.	□	□	□	□	□
19. I try to find out which aspects of my teaching provide me with a sense of satisfaction.	□	□	□	□	□

Items:	Never	rarely	Sometimes	Often	always
20. I think of my strengths and weaknesses as a teacher.	□	□	□	□	□
21. I think of positive or negative role models I have had as a student and the way they have affected me in my practice.	□	□	□	□	□
22. I think of inconsistencies and contradictions that occur in my classroom practice.	□	□	□	□	□
23. I think about instances in social injustice in my surroundings and try to discuss them in my classes.	□	□	□	□	□
24. I think of the ways to enable my students to change their social lives in fighting poverty, discrimination and gender bias.	□	□	□	□	□
25. In my teaching, I include less-discussed topics such as old age, AIDS, discrimination against women, minorities and poverty.	□	□	□	□	□
26. I think about political aspects of my teaching and the way I may affect my students' political views.	□	□	□	□	□
27. I think of ways through which I can promote tolerance and democracy in my classes and in the society in general.	□	□	□	□	□
28. I think about the ways gender, social class and race influence my students' achievements.	□	□	□	□	□

Items:	Never	rarely	Sometimes	Often	always
29. I think of outside social events that can influence my teaching inside the class	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Appendix 3: Journal Entries

A journal entry by a novice teacher:

* Last session I tried to make their roll play more dramatic and today I tried to teach them how...it worked again as a good ice breaking tool.
I tried to smile more this session..because whenever I enter this class, they just *look at me with a serious look and I thought maybe it's me who is strict..*
This session I told them that I want to evaluate their learning of last session at the end of the class, but when I started to teach at the beginning of the class, i had to review what I had taught last session, therefore there was a short evaluation and no more time for the end of the class to evaluate them...but the idea of asking Ss at the end of the class after presenting the new material worked well. for my next class..and I plan to do it for this class to check the effect...
Today I suddenly got fear of not covering workbook and sample test in this class...and therefore Iam going to check it next session as a review to open my presentation and then to evaluate them at the end of the class... Moreover, question bank is supposed to be covered from next session on...remember Elmiraa;-) Next session the lesson plan is extensive, good luck with that...

A journal entry by an experienced teacher:

* Today I was neither satisfied nor dissatisfied and one reason for this feeling was that the students showed instances of negative class participation such as the refusal to use the target language and lack of attention and interest in the lessons. Upon analyzing this situation, I decided to revisit the principles in order to minimize the discipline problems I was facing when teaching a class of 18 EFL upper-intermediate students, aged 15-38.

Their low motivation and the resulting teacher–student conflicts made me stop to think about my repertoire of techniques to establish discipline and to find new ways to deal with these problems. For instance, a more introverted and quiet student like Ronak associates the noise produced by group work with a lack of classroom management skills on my part. Consequently, she may think no learning can take place in such an environment while I view the same context as evidence that the students are motivated and engaged in the task, thus, learning is taking place. This situation may have triggered restless behavior on her part as she may have been reluctant to engage in the activities and, at the same time, depending on me, led to confrontation because I had interpreted her lack of willingness to participate as an undisciplined act.

I've learned a way that students are more likely to engage in learning is when they see value in what they're learning the same as anyone else. Students need to trust my decision about involving them in different types of tasks. They need to realize that engaging in specific actions will bring about a desired outcome and believe they can be successful. Similarly, in Ronak's case she should perceive that I and the students are supportive of her and each other. In a nutshell, I as an effective teacher need to remember that students are intrinsically motivated to work when the threat of negative external evaluation is removed.

Other ways that could help me deal with this situation in future is to foster application or connection of what students are learning in their lives by designing learning experiences that are relevant to students' lives. I can also craft activities that encourage application of content to situations they will likely encounter. This way students feel more competent and intrinsically motivated because they know what to do and what to learn and can take responsibility for their successes. It's my job to set high expectations and let them know they have what it takes to meet them.