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THE IMPACT OF FORM FOCUSED DISCOVERY APPROACH ON EFL LEARNERS 'SPEAKING ABILITY

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ABSTRACT

Since discovery learning is a major feature of the ways in which learners become autonomous and contribute to the development of cognitive skills such as connecting, generalizing, and hypothesizing in different settings, many researchers (Bolitho, 2003; Tomlinson, 1994; Wright, 1993) have conducted researches on the notion of this knowledge from different perspectives. Following such studies, the present study was designed to investigate the impact of Form Focused Discovery Learning on the Iranian EFL learners' Speaking ability. To this end, 60 advanced EFL learners at Hekmat Institute were selected by means of a proficiency test and were randomly assigned to control and experimental groups of this quasi-experimental study. The two groups were subjected to exactly the same procedures except that the control group did not receive any treatment which was practicing Discovery Learning alongside Form Focused Learning. At the end of the instructions, T test was run on the obtained means of the experimental and control groups on both pretest and posttest in IEILTS tests to determine whether there was any significant difference between the speaking performances of the two groups. The result showed that there was a significant difference between the mean scores of the experimental and control groups on the posttest meaning that Form Focused Discovery approach enhances performance of EFL learners' Speaking ability. Form Focused Discovery Approach enhances student autonomy by developing built-in strategy.

Keywords: Discovery Learning, Form Focused, speaking ability

Introduction

Recent approaches to foreign language education emphasize the significance of the *students' own contribution* to their language learning through initiative-taking and active involvement. Students need to take charge of their learning in order to enhance their autonomy as students and language users. This shift in the research has brought an increased interest to the *students themselves* as learners in general and as language learners in particular. Students need to be facilitated to develop a basic reflective orientation by working on their experiences, beliefs and assumptions of language and learning (Breen, 2001).

Discovery learning techniques include a rich variety of interactive practices whereby the participants have opportunities to learn from their own and each other's experiences, being actively and personally engaged in the process. Using form focused discovery approaches to discover how a particular language form functions, discovering the way the form is used in native language and discovering the features of a given form provide a growing insight into the way language works to convey meaning (Hawkin, 1984).

Discovery learning is dynamic and intuitive and is gradually developed internally by the learner (Tomlinson, 1994). It develops a healthy spirit of enquiry (Bolitho & Tomilson, 1994). The main objective of discovery approach is to promote noticing of how language item are used so that learners become aware of the gap between their use of target forms and the typical use of highly proficient

Speakers (Swain, 1994). Discovery Learning Contributes to the development of such cognitive skills such as connecting, generalizing, and hypothesizing, helping learners to become better monitors of their own and other peoples output, helping learners to become independent and autonomous, helping learners to develop positive attitudes towards the TL, and equipping the learners with the means to gain more from their language exposure outside of classroom and after language course is of paramount important to discovery learning (Tomilson, 1994).

When it comes to discovery learning, deep processing of intake is necessary for effective and durable learning to take place (Craik & Lockhart, 1972). Deep processing centers on meaningful learning in that the attention of the learner is primarily on the meaning and significance of the intake. However, narrowly controlled activities can only achieve shallow processing and can only be an aid to short term learning. This research sets out to investigate the effect of Form Focused Discovery approach on speaking ability of EFL learners, combining elements of both discovery approach and form focused instruction. Form focused discovery approach was used to figure out its effect on EFL learners speaking ability. While substantial evidence exists to support the empirical foundations of this approach, very little, if any, systematic research has been conducted on its impact on human speaking ability.

Statement of the Problem

Institutions encourage learning environments that foster deep approaches to learning to enhance students' academic achievement and cognitive development. The importance of a deep approach to learning has been validated by a growing body of studies designed to measure various academic outcomes, including academic achievement (Biggs, 1987; Diseth, 2002, 2003, 2007b; Diseth, Pallesen, Hovland, & Larsen, 2006; Diseth, Pallesen, Brunborg, & Larsen, 2010; Duncan & McKeachie, 2005; Entwistle & Ramsden, 1983; Furnham, Monsen, & Ahmetoglu, 2009; Marton & Säljö, 1976a; Prosser & Millar, 1989; Ramsden, 1992; Rowell, Dawson, & Pollard, 1993).

In attempts to promote a higher level of learner autonomy, it is important for the instructor to encourage and organize team activities and homework assignments that will force students to explore realms and means that could ultimately pique a greater interest in autonomous learning. As English instructors, it becomes teacher responsibility to not only teach a language, but also inform and instruct how to study outside the classroom. This will be accomplished by presenting tasks that inspire the learner to take learning into their own hands. Autonomy in learning is a process and not a product that many EFL students seek today. (Breen, 1989).

Autonomy requires understanding one's own strengths and weaknesses and accumulating a diverse set of resources that will maximize exposure and improvements in speaking, listening, reading, and writing (Tomilson, 1998).

Unfortunately, most of the teachers consider students as a jug to be filled with knowledge. Piaget (1973) was the first to show that children were not "empty vessels" to be filled with knowledge, but active builders of knowledge. In this regard, the present study aimed find out the effect of Form Focused Discovery Learning on EFL learners' speaking ability. Therefore, the following research question and null hypothesis were stated:

RQ: Does Form Focused Discovery approach have any effect on EFL learners' speaking ability?

H0: Form Focused Discovery learning doesn't have any effect on EFL learners' speaking ability.

Significant of the Study

To understand is to Invent, Piaget (1973) maintain that understanding comes from discovery and that without understanding production and creativity are lost and the individual is caught in only repetition. A significant advantage of the discovery learning method is its capacity to motivate students. Discovery learning allows learners to seek information that satisfies their natural curiosity. It provides the opportunity for students to explore their desires and consequently creates a more engaging learning environment.

Simply put, discovery learning makes learning fun (Schank & Cleary, 1994). In a study conducted by Hardy (1967), Discovery learning increased student achievement when the students were learning skills rather than facts. Skills developed through a discovery learning process seem to be more in

line with the changing economy of today than more traditional, non-contextual, lecture methods of teaching (Paper, 2001).

As McCain maintain that Discovery learning focuses on learning within context and using experiences as a guide which are more closely related to the needs of learners and they are preparing their students to assume careers upon graduation. Therefore, education must find ways to adapt teaching and learning so that students become more independent, active learners (McCain, 2000).

Theoretical principles underlying Form Focused Discovery approach facilitate experiential learning, deep processing, self-investment, noticing that are beneficial for language learning (Tomilson, 1994)..

Review of the Literature

Discovery learning encompasses an instructional model and strategies that focus on active, hands-on learning opportunities for students (Dewey, 1916/1997; Piaget, 1954, 1973). Bicknell-Holmes and Hoffman (2000) describe the three main attributes of discovery learning as:

- 1) Exploring and problem solving to create, integrate, and generalize knowledge,
- 2) Student driven, interest-based activities in which the student determines the sequence and frequency,
- 3) Activities to encourage integration of new knowledge into the learner's existing knowledge base.

The first attribute of discovery learning is a very important one. Through exploring and problem solving, students take on an active role to create, integrate, and generalize knowledge. Instead of engaging in passively accepting information through lecture or drill and practice, students establish broader applications for skills through activities that encourage risk-taking, problem solving, and an examination of unique experiences (Bicknell-Holmes & Hoffman, 2000). In this attribute, students rather than the teacher drive the learning. Expression of this attribute of discovery learning essentially changes the roles of students and teachers and is a radical change that is difficult for many teachers to accept (Hooks, 1994). A second attribute of discovery learning, according to Bicknell-Holmes and Hoffman, is that it encourages students to learn at their own pace. Through discovery learning, some degree of flexibility in sequencing and frequency with learning activities can be achieved. Learning is not a static progression of lessons and activities. This attribute contributes greatly to student motivation and ownership of their learning. A third major attribute of discovery learning is that it is based on the principle of using existing knowledge as a basis to build new knowledge (Bicknell-Holmes & Hoffman, 2000). Scenarios with which the students are familiar allow the students to build on their existing knowledge by extending what they already know to invent new ideas.

How do these three attributes combine to make discovery learning different from traditional forms of Learning? Some researchers (e.g., Bonwell, 1998; Mosca & Howard, 1997; Papert, 2000; Schank & Cleary, 1994) have stated the most fundamental principles of discovery learning as follows:

- 1) Learning is active rather than passive
- 2) Learning is process-oriented rather than content-oriented
- 3) Failure is important
- 4) Feedback is necessary
- 5) Understanding is deeper

First, in discovery learning, students are active. Learning is not defined as simply absorbing what is being said or read, but actively seeking new knowledge. Students are engaged in hands-on activities that are real problems needing solutions. The students have a purpose for finding answers and learning more (Mosca & Howard, 1997).

Second, the focus shifts from the end product, learning content, to the process, how the content is learned. The focus in discovery learning is learning how to analyze and interpret information to understand what is being learned rather than just giving the correct answer from rote memorization. Bonwell (1998) maintain that Process-oriented learning can be applied to many different topics instead of producing one correct answer to match one question that is typically found in content-oriented learning. Discovery learning pushes students to a deeper level of understanding. The emphasis is placed on a mastery and application of overarching skills (Tomilson, 1994).

Third, failure in discovery learning is seen as a positive circumstance (Bonwell, 1998). Discovery learning does not stress getting the right answer. Cognitive psychologists have shown that failure is central to learning (Schank & Cleary, 1994). The focus is learning and just as much learning can be

done through failure as success. In fact, if a student does not fail while learning, the student probably has not learned something new (Schank & Cleary, 1994).

Fourth, an essential part of discovery learning is the opportunity for feedback in the learning process (Bonwell, 1998). Student learning is enhanced, deepened, and made more permanent by discussion of the topic with other learners (Schank & Cleary, 1994). Without the opportunity for feedback, learning is left incomplete. Instead of students learning in isolation, as is typical in the traditional classroom where silence is expected, students are encouraged to discuss their ideas to deepen their understanding. Lastly, incorporating all of these differences, discovery learning provides for deeper learning opportunities.

Methodology

3.1. Participants

This research was conducted in an institute of foreign languages in Tehran Hekmat, Iran. The institute had multiple levels of language proficiency; the upper intermediate level was selected for this study. Two intact classes with 30 female students in each group aged between 16 and 28 were selected and then they were randomly assigned into the control and experimental groups. The participants in the control group received traditional learning syllabus, whereas those in the experimental group received form focused discovery approach.

3.2. Instruments and Materials

Proficiency Test of English

In order to homogenize learners regarding language proficiency and to take into account learner's level of language proficiency, The English language proficiency test used. In this study, the test is a sample of the TOEFL written by Capel and Ireland (1994), Oxford university press. It consists of 45 multiple choice questions covering listening, reading and, writing skills. The reliability and also item facility of the test were checked in the piloting phase of the study and the test was thus determined to be reliable for the actual purpose of homogenization.

Pretest and posttest

IELTS speaking test was used both as a pretest and posttest. In this research, learners' voices were recorded by interviewers who were familiar with IELTS test. When it comes to learners' IELTS speaking ability, learners were classified in a scale.

Speaking ability band score used in this research consisted of Fluency and Coherence, Pronunciation, Word Choice, and Grammar. Likewise, speed of speech, length of answer, pause correctly, and expand answer played a role in learners' IELTS speaking score.

English Texts

The following texts were employed in this study:

(a) The researcher used the book "Summit", written by Allen Ascher, Joan Saslow (2004) which was a main source in the Hekmat institute. The book consists of four skills namely listening, writing, speaking, and reading. The researcher placed a high premium on speaking skill while considering reading and listening as a source of input to be discovered by the learners. Two units of Summit were covered in this study.

(b) "Speak English Like American" developed and written by Babaee (1994) was also used in this study. Each unit consists of one short text enriched with input that was presented to the both groups. The experimental group was supposed to discover how a particular form functions in a given language by discovering features of the forms and their functions while overall focus is on meaning. However, the control group did not receive any Form Focused discovery approach. In this research, three units of the given book were covered.

(c) "Three English Pod" is a short listening text, which was downloaded through the internet. It has some idiomatic expression that learners were supposed to discover their function in target language.

(d) "Chicken Soup for Soul" was downloaded through the internet. It contains short stories that were used to meet the strategy of case based learning which has to do with short stories containing problems and ethical content to be discovered in discovery learning approach by discussion among student.

3.3. Procedure

This study was conducted in 19 sessions and each session was 120 minutes. In order to meet the requirement of discovery learning, the researcher manipulated case based learning, learning by conversing, learning by exploring, learning by reflection, and stimulation based learning in the research. The researcher was the teacher of both groups in Hekmat institute.

Each session started with a warm-up and recycling of the material the participants had learned in the last session. Then the teacher went through the main book "Summit" and asked the students to discover the features and functions of different forms by exposing to a text enriched by grammatical features. As an example, as far as grammatical rules are concerned, the teacher guided the learners to discover the answer by posing challenging questions. The learners interacted with each other and the internet to find the answer either individually or in groups. Then Learners engaged in simulation mentioned in Summit so as to meet the requirement of simulation- based learning that is one technique of discovery learning, learners engage in role-playing.

Some cases have to do with stores containing problem to be discovered by learners, "chicken soup for soul" were downloaded and participant discussed the problem stated by the case while worked in groups they found the answer to the questions posed by the teacher. Every session followed the same procedure except sessions 3, 6,9,12 15, 19 in that students listened to "English Pod" and found the functions for different forms stated in the listening text and read "Speak English like American" developed and written by Babae (1994), each unit consists of a text enriched by a set of idiom and prefabricated structures used in a special context and learners were supposed to discover the function of form by themselves. In this study, three units of the Speak English like American and three English Pod were covered. Technology were integral part of such a research, students used internet as a source of information either to answer the questions posed by the teacher and to make new questions and communicate through mailing and video conferencing outside the classroom.

The researcher took advantage of web-quest program as a kind of learning by discovery through posing some questions. The learners tried to find the answers to the questions by surfing the internet and by introducing some websites as sources of input and some websites to engage in speaking with other learners. The websites exploited in this research were Babelize, Live Mochal, Voice Thread, and Voxpop.

3.4. Design

The pretest-posttest control group design as one of the quasi-experimental research designs was employed in this study. The independent variable of this study was Form Focused Discovery learning and the dependent variable was speaking ability. The level of the participants (upper intermediate) and their gender (female) were the control variables of this study.

3.5. Data Analysis

The data analysis in this study comprised two series of calculations: descriptive statistics and inferential statistics. For the first part, the data gathered from the proficiency test of homogenization of both groups were analyzed. In order to standardize the TOEFL test.

As for the inferential statistics employed to verify the null hypothesis of this study, a *T test* used in order to estimate the probability that an observed difference between the means of two groups were statistically significant.

The test included 45 listening, reading and writing items to be answered in 45 minutes. The format of reading, writing, and listening items was multiple choice.

Results

The TOEFL test was used in order to homogenize the participants in the target sample with respect to their general English proficiency that comprised reading, listening, and writing abilities. A sample of 120 students was selected for the test from Hekmat institute following the administration of the test; the mean and standard deviation were calculated to be 29.14, 7.59 respectively. Table 1 demonstrates the descriptive statistics of the test.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics of TOEFL TEST

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
TOTAL Valid (listwise)	120	17	43	29.1417	7.59400

Those 60 participants whose scores fell one standard deviation above and below the mean were selected and randomly assigned into the experimental and control groups each with 30 participants.

Pretest and Posttest

A pretest was administered among the participants of the two groups before the treatment. The results of the pretest are presented in table 2 the details of descriptive and inferential statistics are presented respectively.

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics of the Pretest

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Control Group	30	19.83	3.45	.63079	18.5432	21.1234	14.00	29.00
Experimental Group	30	21.3667	4.27892	.78122	19.7689	22.9644	12.00	31.00
Total	60	20.6000	3.93248	.50768	19.5841	21.6159	12.00	31.00

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics of Posttest

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
1	30	21.2000	4.83093	.88200	19.3961	23.0039	14.00	29.00
2	30	25.2667	5.23867	.95645	23.3105	27.2228	15.00	35.00
Total	60	23.2333	5.40046	.69720	21.8382	24.6284	14.00	35.00

The mean were selected and randomly assigned into the experimental and control groups each with 30 participants.

Pretest and Posttest

A pretest was administered among the participants of the two groups before the treatment. The results of the pretest are presented in table 2. The details of both descriptive and inferential statistics are presented respectively.

Table 4. Independent Sample test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Equal variances assumed	.078	.780	-3.126	58	.003
Equal variances not assumed			-3.126	57.623	.003

As shown in table above the result of the Leven's test reveals that the two groups had homogeneous variances ($F=.078$, $p=.780 >.05$), hence the second condition for running a t-test is met.

Table 3.4 also shows that the difference between the means of the two groups was significant ($t=-3.126$, $p=.780<.05$), and by virtue of the mean values shown in table 2 (control = 21.20, experimental= 25.26), it was concluded that the experimental group outperformed the control group significantly. And this shows the significant effect of the Form Focused Discovery Learning on the Speaking Ability of the learners.

Based on the results of the data analysis, the null hypothesis of the study which stated that "Form Focused Discovery does not have significant effect on Speaking ability of EFL learners " was rejected and the researcher came up with the result that embellishing a class with Form Focused Discovery Learning has significant effect on the reading Speaking ability of EFL learner .

The above-mentioned research increasingly supports the idea that adorning a class with Form Focused Discovery Learning enriches students' learning in unique ways. The presence of Discovery Learning approach in today's teaching and learning leads to learner's autonomy and deep processing (Tomilson, 1994).

Discussion

Researcher suggests that traditional instruction on isolated grammar forms is insufficient to promote their acquisition (Long1991; Long and Robinson 1998), yet purely communicative approaches have been found inadequate for developing high levels of target language accuracy (Harley and Swain 1984; Swain1985, 1998; Swain and Lapkin 1998). two general solution have been proposed in the research literature : one is to encourage learners to attend to target forms by noticing them in input (Schmidt 1990,1993;Doughty and William 1998a;R.Ellis 1994a,2000a) .thus assisting in their processing to produce output containing target forms, again enable learners to notice the gap between their current TL ability and the correct use of the target form (Swain 1985,2005).it has been shown that attention and noticing interact with the learner task and context ,as well as with various cognitive processing variables (Robinson 1995,2001,2005;skehen1996b,1998,N .Ellis 2002a,2002b).

Some studies have found that explicit instruction may be more effective than implicit instruction when learning involves simple rules (for example, Dekayser 1995; Robinson 1996; de graaff1997). The researches have addressed various issues related to the role of formal instruction including that of student -student or student -teacher interaction ,errors correction ,comprehension and production practices ,communicative and instructional activities ,and output and input, including learner revision and has led to important finding(for example ,Lightbown and Spada 1990 ;VanPattern 1990;Fotos and Ellis 1991;Fotos 1993,1994,1998,2002;VanPattern and Cardiero 1993;William 1995, 2005a ; Dekayser and Sokalski1996;Lyster and Ranta1997;Doughty and Varela 1998;Lyster 1998b;Swain 1998,2000,2005 ;white 1998 ; R,Ellis Basturkmen and Loewen 2001a;Swain and Lapkin 2001 Pennington 2003). form focused learning involves drawing learner's attention to linguistic forms as they arise incidentally in the text whose overriding focus is on meaning to communication(Long,1991).

Form Focused Discovery activities is regarded as a way to encourage learners to discover language for themselves while overall focus is on meaning (Bolitho and Tomilson 1980:1)Theoretical principles underlying Form Focused Discovery approach facilitate experiential learning, deep processing, self-investment, noticing that are beneficial for language learning (Tomilson ,1994).

The outcome of the posttest administration and analysis was the rejection of the null hypothesis which stated that " Form Focused Discovery Learning does have significant effect on speaking ability of EFL learners". The results of data analysis demonstrated the significant superiority of the experimental group over the control group on their posttest performance. Since the learners in both groups were homogenized with respect to their English listening , reading and writing proficiency and then randomly assigned to the two groups prior to the treatment, the final significant difference between their mean scores on the posttest could be attributed to effect of the speaking ability . Therefore, it can be claimed that Form Focused Discovery Learning has significant effect on EFL learners' Speaking ability.

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A CRITICAL EVALUATION OF INTER- AND INTRA-CULTURAL ENCOUNTERS OF TEXTBOOKS: INSIGHTS FROM IRAN

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ABSTRACT

Focusing on the vital role textbook evaluation plays in any educational system, the present study evaluated two textbook series in terms of the inter- and intra-cultural encounters they offer to Iranian EFL learners. Data for this study were gathered based on dialogues of Right Path to English 1 & 2 (RPE) and Prospect 1 & 2. Pennycook's (2004) distinction between consensual and conflictual dialogues and Long's (1996) notion of meaning negotiation constituted the theoretical frameworks of the study. Findings indicated that RPE provided its readers with consensual, inauthentic and highly cooperative dialogues which lacked any instances of meaning negotiation. Prospect, on the other hand, presented both consensual and conflictual dialogues which are also devoid of meaning negotiation. Implications of these findings for Iranian textbook writers are also discussed.

Key words: Consensual vs. conflictual dialogues, Critical discourse analysis, Meaning negotiation, Textbook evaluation.

1. Introduction

Education as an important system dealing with language is constructed by the society; hence, the prejudices, values and traditions of the society which are also reflected in textbooks can influence the educational system of a country. Textbooks as a part of each school and the educational system are of great significance in this regard since they may pave the way for such prejudices in the educational environment and in the society at large (Söylemez, 2010). Hence, practitioners must attempt to examine the contents of textbooks closely and to choose the best available textbook for use in instructional settings.

Evaluating different textbooks, some researchers have identified different characteristics for effective and good textbooks (e.g., Crawford, 2002). However, more recently, other researchers have adopted a newer perspective based on poststructuralist theory and critical discourse analysis. Based on studies of Second Language Acquisition (SLA), L2 learners and users experience identity conflicts while they try to participate in target language use contexts (Shradakova & Pavlenko, 2004). They might also experience denial or misunderstanding of their identities (Norton, 2000). Sometimes, L2 learners might feel that they lack the necessary linguistic resources needed for communication in situations involving gender, ethnicity, race or social class (Ehrlich, 2001; Polanyi, 1995; Talburt & Stewart, 1999). In such situations, textbooks can serve as a useful tool providing learners with the linguistic skills necessary to overcome such problems. They can introduce a variety of identity options to learners to make them more familiar with the social, ethnic and cultural norms of the target language community. If learners are unaware of these norms, they may feel vulnerable and powerless in real-life encounters with native speakers of the target language and this feeling might decrease their investment in the target language (Norton Peirce, 1995) and might even lead to their resistance to a particular language (Ehrlich, 2001; Ohara, 2001).

Textbooks can even be considered more crucial in EFL (English as a Foreign Language) contexts where students have little or no access to native speakers of English. In a country such as Iran, the

situation is even worse since in addition to being an EFL context, Iran has little contact with other countries of the world, especially English speaking ones, because of the sanctions imposed on it. Therefore, Iranian students are highly deprived of getting in touch with native speakers of English as role models. In such a situation, it is textbook writers' mission to compensate for this shortage by providing Iranian EFL learners with adequate and sufficient content.

Since textbooks play a pivotal role in making learners familiar with native speakers' norms, it is crucial for textbook writers to pay more attention to the information offered to the learners by their books. In this study, we will examine inter- and intra-cultural encounters offered to Iranian EFL students by four different textbooks; that is, Prospect 1 & 2 which are two recently published textbooks and are currently taught to first and second graders of junior secondary schools and RPE 1 & 2 which were previously taught to the students of the same levels at those schools. The aim is to find out whether the new textbook has made any progress in comparison to its former counterpart. To do this, characters in the texts are viewed as representative of two sets of identity options: learners and target language speakers. Therefore, this study seeks to answer the following research questions:

1. Did RPE 1 & 2 provide their learners with the linguistic skills needed to overcome difficulties in inter- and intra- cultural real-life encounters?
2. Do Prospect 1 & 2 offer their learners the linguistic tools necessary for participating in inter- and intra- cultural real-life encounters?
3. How do these two textbook series depict the imaginary world of native speakers for their learners?

2. Literature review

Many researchers all over the world have tried to examine and evaluate the published textbooks from different perspectives in order to inform teachers and practitioners of the merits and demerits of those books and to help them make informed decisions. For example, Sahragard and Davatgarzadeh (2010) investigated the linguistic representation of male and female social actors and construction of gender identities in the Interchange Third Edition. Results of their study revealed a differential representation of social actors in that females were portrayed as more prominent, successful, active, independent, expressive and assertive in comparison with males. They concluded apparently attempts have been made to bring women from margin to the foreground because females were associated with high status activities in this series. This kind of representation of female social actors challenges traditional values that exclude and demean the value of women in society implying that women are as crucial as men to the functions of the communities.

Söylemez (2010) tried to find out how social gender identity is constructed in the reading passages in two sets of textbooks, Face 2 Face and English File, elementary, pre-intermediate, intermediate and upper-intermediate. To collect the data, the reading texts in these textbooks were scanned and the adjectives used to describe both genders were identified and categorized to determine what kind of characteristics have been attributed to males and females and how their social identities have been constructed. Results indicated that although the adjectives seemed to have been chosen randomly, writers of the books reflected the general outlook on females and males; that is, deliberately or not, textbook writers had a tendency to use some adjectives with one gender rather than with the other.

Some other researchers expanded the focus of inquiry and took into account a range of social identities and the students' perceptions of identity options offered to them. As an example, Canagarajah (1993) examined a US-published ESL textbook in a Sri Lankan classroom and its "hidden curriculum", that is, implicit ideological values covered by the text. His results indicated that dialogues and narratives in the text presented racial and gender biases as well as implicit Western middle-class values like consumerism, thrift, delayed gratification and social mobility. In addition, he investigated the students' reactions to the text. Results showed that rural Tamil students employed a range of discursive strategies to deal with ideological conflicts posed to them by the texts. For instance, in some situations, they exhibited direct hostility while in others they opted for parody, exaggeration or mockery. Canagarajah (1993) recommended textbook authors to make use of discourses that are relevant to the students' lives and social and political realities in order to prevent students' resistance to the texts and even to English.

In Iran, Amalsaleh (2004) studied the representation of social actors (in terms of social class, gender, ...) in EFL textbooks. She found that all the books, irrespective of their goals and audience, mostly seemed to follow an almost similar trend. For example, all of them showed males and females

differently portraying the female social actors as belonging to home context or having limited job opportunities in the society.

Even though many textbook evaluation studies have been conducted in Iran (e.g., Bahrami, 2011; Darali, 2007; Gordani, 2010; Hajizadeh, 2008; Iraj, 2007; Jahangard, 2007; Kazempourfard, 2011; Ketabi, 2006; Mirza-Suzani, 2006; Rahimi Alagha, 2007; Rastegar, 1992; Razmjoo, 2007; Riazi & Aryasholouh, 2007; Riazi & Mosallanejad, 2010; Sahragard & Davatgarzadeh, 2010; Souzandehfar, 2011; Tajeddin, 2006; Zare Moayedi, 2007), to name a few, none of them has examined the types of dialogues offered to Iranian EFL learners in the textbooks taught to them. Therefore, in order to fill this lacuna, the present study intends to examine and compare the dialogue types offered to Iranian EFL students by the four textbooks: Prospect 1 & 2 and RPE 1 & 2.

3. Theoretical underpinning of the study

In this study, an attempt is made to explore the vital role textbooks play in the potential empowerment or disempowerment of language learners. In EFL contexts such as Iran where learners have few opportunities to encounter native speakers, textbooks can create “imaginary worlds” for the learners and sometimes misrepresentation, oversimplification or stereotyping of these worlds might lead to cross-cultural miscommunication, demotivation, frustration, conflict or even resistance on the part of language learners when they feel their own identities and values conflict with those values and identities imposed on them by the texts (Shardakova & Pavlenko, 2004).

To analyze dialogues and instances of inter- and intra-cultural encounters, Pennycook's (2004) distinction between conflictual and consensual dialogues and Long's (1996) notion of meaning negotiation were employed. According to Pennycook (2004, p. 338), consensual dialogues are cooperative without any power relations while conflictual ones “reproduce relations of power and may be seen as ideologically normalized” the assumption being that “there are no relations without power”. He believes that consensual dialogues are not only inauthentic but also “they provide passively cooperative subject positions for language learners”.

Long (1996) defines meaning negotiation as a process that speakers go through to reach a clear understanding of each other. It occurs when there is a breakdown in communication which interlocutors attempt to overcome. For instance, one of the participants in a conversation might say something that the other one does not understand. In such a situation, the participants will use various communicative strategies to help the interaction progress. These strategies may include slowing down speech, speaking more deliberately, requests for clarification, or paraphrases.

The role of imagination in the language learning process will be clarified based on Anderson (1991). Anderson (1991, p. 6) viewed nation-states as imagined communities “because the members of even the smallest nation will never know most of their fellow-members, meet them, or even hear of them, yet in the minds of each lives the image of their communion”. Using these frameworks, the researcher examined the dialogues offered to Iranian EFL learners by two textbook series and tried to find out whether any progress has been made by publishing and teaching a new book in the junior secondary schools of Iran.

4. Method

4.1. Materials for the study

This study analyzes two textbook series of RPE 1 & 2 and Prospect 1 & 2 taught in Iran. Previously, RPE 1 and 2 were obligatory in all Iranian junior secondary schools. However, recently, two new textbooks have been introduced to Iranian junior secondary schools. Although both these two textbook series are written by a group of Iranian teachers under the auspices of the Ministry of Education, the former ones are no longer taught in the junior secondary schools of Iran and have been replaced by Prospect 1 & 2. In fact, the latter two textbooks are recently published and are currently taught to first- and second-graders.

4.2. Data analysis procedures

Adopting the above-mentioned theoretical frameworks, imaginary worlds created for Iranian EFL learners by the two textbook series were investigated. Therefore, to answer the research questions, the researcher examined the textbooks closely to find out whether any interaction between native English speakers and non-native speakers was depicted and also to study the way they were depicted. To this end, dialogues of the two textbooks were analyzed.

The reliability of ratings is usually increased by having two trained raters make independent ratings. These independent ratings are averaged to obtain a final score. Researchers may also correlate the ratings of the two separate raters to obtain a coefficient of inter-rater reliability (Ary, Jacobs, Sorensen, & Razavieh, 2010). Therefore, to confirm the validity of the coding procedure, inter- and intra-rater reliabilities were checked. To this aim, the researcher asked one of her colleagues who was proficient enough in English and also an expert in critical discourse analysis studies to independently categorize inter- and intra-cultural encounters in the two textbook series once more. They agreed on labels for 87% of the cases. Differences for the remaining cases were resolved through discussion. "The size of the coefficient indicates the extent to which the raters agree. An inter-rater reliability coefficient of .70 or higher is considered acceptable for rating scales" (Ary et al., 2010, p. 215). Intra-rater reliability was also checked. The researcher herself rated the inter- and intra-cultural encounters of the two textbook series once and then after a few days, she rated them for the second time. The overlap between the two ratings was 90.4% which was quite acceptable.

5. Results and discussion

5.1. Inter- and intra-cultural encounters in RPE 1 & 2

Native and non-native identities were determined based on characters' names and the pictures accompanying them. Actually, no instances of inter-cultural communication between native and non-native speakers of English in the RPE series were observed. Therefore, it seems that Iranian EFL learners are seriously deprived of becoming familiar with how to overcome communication problems while interacting with native speakers. In addition, they are not taught how to negotiate meaning which is a vital condition for successful communication in order to compensate for communication breakdowns (Long, 1996). According to Long (1996), it is useful and beneficial for learners to encounter situations in which communication problems are negotiated between participants and this negotiation promotes production and comprehension and it will ultimately facilitate L2 development. The absence of native speakers and the lack of meaning negotiation instances are two major drawbacks of this series. Portraying the miscommunication exchanges is "extremely beneficial for the learners who need to learn how to negotiate meaning in less than friendly environments" (Shardakova & Pavlenko, 2004, p. 41). Almost all of the dialogues are consensual inauthentic ones which are not challenging for the learners and create a view of the "imaginary world" of English use as highly cooperative without any power relations. As an example, the dialogue on page 54 of Book 1 will be presented here:

Amin: Hello, Ali. How are you today?

Ali: Just fine. Thank you.

Amin: How is school?

Ali: It is OK.

Amin: Have you English today?

Ali: Yes, we have. What about you?

Amin: No, we haven't.

And another dialogue from Book 2 page 50:

Mansoor: Hi, Akbar.

Akbar: Hi.

Mansoor: This is my school.

Akbar: I go to Farabi School.

Mansoor: I walk to school every day.

Akbar: But I go by bus.

Mansoor: Nice to meet you.

Akbar: Goodbye. See you tomorrow.

In each of the above-mentioned contexts, two students are talking to each other very gently, cooperatively and kindly; hence, there are no challenges, disagreements and rejections. Such conversations are not, of course, characteristic of real-life encounters in which power relations lead to the use of different discursive strategies to persuade the people or to challenge their ideas. In addition to being inauthentic, such dialogues "provide passively cooperative subject positions for language learners" (Pennycook, 2004, p. 33). Practicing such conversations does not empower or enable learners to participate in real world challenging situations involving ethnic, racial, social and gender conflicts.

5.2. Inter- and intra-cultural encounters in Prospect 1 & 2

Like RPE series, Prospect series also portrays all encounters as intra-cultural ones; that is, interactions between non-native speakers of English who are mostly Iranian. However, all learners depicted in the texts are not highly proficient in the standard variety of English and their pronunciation is problematic in some instances. For instance, on page 34 of Prospect 1, Fatemeh is talking to her teacher:

Teacher: Fatemeh, look at this picture. What's the man doing?

Fatemeh: He's working*.

Teacher: Say it again.

Fatemeh: He's working*.

Teacher: He's working. It's the /w/, not /v/.

As is evident from the above conversation, Fatemeh does not make a distinction between /w/ and /v/ sounds in English and her teacher is drawing her attention to the difference in these two consonants' pronunciation in English. The reason for this mispronunciation is that in Persian, there is only one sound corresponding to these two sounds in English, namely, /v/. This kind of conversation helps Persian native speaker students distinguish between these two sounds consciously. In addition to depicting English learners' mispronunciations, Prospect 1 also portrays slightly conflictual dialogues between non-native speakers of English. As an example, on page 38 of Prospect 1, two students are talking about going to a friend's house in this way:

Omid: Ali's not well. I'm going to visit him today. Are you coming with me?

Hossein: What time are you going?

Omid: Around 5 in the afternoon.

Hossein: I'm not sure I can, but I'll try. What's his address?

Omid: 5 Azadi Street.

Hossein: Call me before you go. My phone number is 586-2144.

Omid: OK, bye.

Despite its simplicity, this conversation seems to be slightly conflictual and non-cooperative since Hossein does not readily accept Omid's suggestion of going to their friend's house. In fact, such a conversation is challenging for participants putting them in situations needing rejections, disagreements and noncooperation. This is the way we interact with other people in real-life situations. Hence, it seems to be a more authentic conversation which helps English learners empower themselves in order to be able to face the challenges of real world encounters with (non)native speakers. On page 10 of the same book, we can also see an instance of a consensual dialogue between three students who are talking in the school yard.

Ali: Who is that boy?

Parham: That's Erfan. He's our new classmate.

Ali: Let's talk to him.

Parham: Hi, Erfan. This is Ali.

Ali: Nice to meet you, Erfan.

Erfan: Nice to meet you, too.

Ali: Welcome to our school.

Erfan: Thank you.

As another example, on Page 26 of Prospect 2, two students are talking about their abilities in this way:

Elham: Wow! Your drawing is very good.

Sara: Thanks. Can you draw?

Elham: No, I'm not good at drawing. But I can take good photos.

Sara: Really? Can I see your photos?

Elham: Why not? Come to my house this afternoon.

Sara: Oh, I can't make it today. How about Thursday afternoon?

Elham: That's fine. You can bring your drawing book, too.

Sara: Sure.

In the above-mentioned conversation too, it can be seen that Sara declines her friend's invitation to her house. This is another instance of rejection and non-cooperative interaction which is more natural than those presented in RPE 1 & 2.

Based on the above analyses, it is possible to answer the three research questions of this study. In response to the first research question, it was found that RPE gives its learners an over-simplified picture of the target language use by depicting Iranian learners' interactions with each other in the context of their own native language and culture. RPE, it can be argued, portrays "imaginary worlds" which offer oversimplified and stereotyped identity options to Iranian EFL learners. Such limited options might influence and even sometimes shape "the students' motivation, degree of engagement with the target language and culture, and development of their intercultural competence" (Shardakova & Pavlenko, 2004, p. 27). Additionally, all RPE conversations are consensual in nature; that is, they are highly cooperative without any challenges or asymmetrical power relations. No native English speakers are present in those situations and no meaning negotiation is involved.

Regarding the second research question, it is worth mentioning that unlike RPE, Prospect provides its learners with both consensual and conflictual dialogues necessary for empowering them to engage in diverse real world conversations. Nevertheless, all of the presented conversations happen between nonnative (Iranian) speakers of English and no native English speaker is present in this textbook series.

To answer the last research question, as mentioned before, no native English speaker could be found in these two series. In fact, both series (over)simplified the language contact situations encountered by beginning level students. This oversimplified view towards real life encounters, in turn, will result in an oversimplification of the social world in which the language is used. One offspring of such viewpoints would be that "they provide passively cooperative subject positions for language learners" (Pennycook, 2004, p. 338).

6. Conclusion

This study intended to critically examine inter- and intra-cultural encounters in two textbook series which are published and taught in Iran, namely, RPE and Prospect. In fact, it sought to answer three research questions. Results indicated that RPE depicts "imaginary worlds" which offer oversimplified and stereotyped identity options and conversations to Iranian EFL learners. All these conversations are consensual in nature. Furthermore, no meaning negotiation is involved in those situations. Unlike RPE, Prospect provides its learners with both consensual and conflictual dialogues. Nevertheless, all of the presented conversations in both these two series happen between nonnative (Iranian) speakers of English and no native English speaker is present in the two series. In fact, both series (over)simplified the language contact situations encountered by beginning level students.

In sum, in both these two series, a number of identity options are hidden and this fact needs to be taken into consideration by Iranian textbook writers who are responsible for raising students' critical language awareness. They need to take steps to represent the diversity of native English speakers and English learners. By not depicting native speakers' identity options in their books, Iranian writers present English language use situations as simple, highly successful, and unproblematic encounters. This is, in fact, an ideal view of the contexts of foreign language use while in reality social interaction is constituted by gender, race, ethnicity, religious affiliation, age and many other factors. Materials developers in general and Iranian textbook writers in particular need to be aware that they are responsible for providing learners with adequate and sufficient linguistic skills needed for overcoming difficult and problematic exchanges involving racial, ethnic or religious discrimination. It is also suggested that Iranian textbook writers include more complex characters interacting in complicated situations needing meaning negotiation. For example, future texts can portray the diversity of the real world regarding all aspects of people's identity. So, we fully agree with Shardakova and Pavlenko (2004) on the need to include in the textbooks L2 users as role models for L2 learners. To sum up, the two series examined showed slightly different trends in depicting intra-cultural encounters. However, both present a limited range of such encounters for Iranian EFL learners with no native interlocutors available for communication.

Finally, based on the tenets of critical pedagogy, the goal of foreign or second language education is to help learners raise their critical language awareness and construct their identities by making use of different discursive strategies in order to be able to engage in meaningful interactions with real and heterogeneous native speaker groups in real situations involving varied communication strategies. Further research in this area is needed in order for textbook writers to have a complete and comprehensive view of the field of materials development. Teachers and materials users also need to be aware of the results of such research to be able to evaluate materials they intend to use and to

make informed decisions regarding which textbook is the most appropriate and useful one for their specific group of learners in their specific context.

It is worth mentioning that the results of this study are indefinite and subject to a number of limitations and drawbacks. Firstly, the number of books examined was limited due to an attempt to conduct an in-depth examination of the two series. Future studies need to be conducted to examine more textbooks of different proficiency levels produced by different writers from various parts of the world. It is also suggested that researchers study how various textbooks are used in actual practice in the classroom contexts and to examine the effect of textual diversity – or lack of it – on the students' language learning and use as well as on their identity construction.

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THE EFFECT OF WRITTEN CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK ON THE WRITING PERFORMANCE OF IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS

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ABSTRACT

The main objective of the study was to investigate the effect of written corrective feedback on the writing performance of Iranian EFL learners. To this end, feedback on writing was studied experimentally. To conduct the study at Iran language institute, 32 female students aged between early twenties to late forties were chosen through judgmental sampling. They were divided into experimental and control groups consisting of 16 homogeneous students. Both groups worked on the same argumentative topics provided by the same teacher-research. The only difference was on the focus of the study i.e. written corrective feedback which was given to essays written by the experimental group whereas the control group received no feedback at all during the three-month treatment. The data were gathered from a pre-test on essay writing given at the beginning of the semester in order to evaluate the two groups' writing proficiency and a post-test to compare the two groups' performance at the end of the course. To analyze their writing performance a scale by Jacob et al. was applied. The results revealed that although the two groups were very similar in the terms of scores at the time of the pre-test, only the experimental group was able to increase their overall writing performance while the control showed no increase in their scores in the post-test. These findings indicate, therefore, the superior effects of providing learners with direct feedback on writing skill over no feedback at all.

Key words: written corrective feedback

Introduction

For more than a decade now, a great deal of research has been done on the topic of written corrective feedback in second/foreign language writing. Nonetheless, what those research efforts really have shown as well as the possible implications for practice remains in dispute. Although researchers often examine similar phenomena in similar ways, they do not necessarily ask the same questions. EFL-focused researchers investigate whether written corrective feedback facilitates the acquisition of particular linguistic features. In contrast, second language writing researchers generally emphasize the question of whether written corrective feedback helps student writers improve the overall effectiveness of their texts. Understanding these differences in starting points is important because it provides a possible explanation for the conflicting methodologies and conclusions of various reviews on this topic (e.g., Ferris, 2003, 2004; Truscott, 1996, 2007).

The literature of second/foreign language writing error correction is replete with controversial ideas as well as arguments about the importance of error correction. More than two decades ago Zamel (1985) argued against error correction and warned teachers to "hold in Abeyance their reflex-like

reactions to surface level concerns and give priority to meaning". There have also been many attempts to investigate the error correction issue from the students' and teachers' point of view. The majority of these studies have targeted the accuracy in writing. In fact, written accuracy is important in many contexts that students themselves want and expect feedback in their written errors from their teachers. They value their teachers' practice in error correction very much (Ferris, Chaney, Komuras, Roberts & Mckee, 2000; Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1994; Ieki, 1991; Truscott, 1996).

The reason why this research has been conducted is that it deals with the effectiveness of error correction on writing performance of foreign language learners which is conducted in a "pre-test post-test" design. Therefore, this study will be an attempt to find out if there is a significant difference between the experimental group, who will receive feedback and the control group, who will not receive correction on their mistakes in their writing ability.

Review

2.1. The importance of writing

Writing, as one of the four skills, has occupied a significant place in more language classes; its presence is noticed in almost every element of language courses at all stages of language learning from elementary to advanced levels of language proficiency, and abundant amount of time is spent on practicing it. At the elementary stages, writing is viewed as the commonest way of examining students' performance in the target language. For more proficient learners, writing would be a means of recording, reformulating knowledge, and developing ideas, or a means of discovery, creativity, and self-expression. It is a form of language production which is part of communicative competence for many learners (Ferris, 2010), which in turn can contribute to students' language learning.

However, despite the approved significance of this skill and the excessive amount of effort made to improve it, not very satisfactory results have been obtained on the part of learners. Second language writers face unique challenges in building up different qualifications, especially those that are pertinent to writing accuracy (Evans, Hartshorne, McCollum, and Wolfersberger, 2010). In contrast to the other skills, practicing alone, here in the case of writing, does not prove to produce the desired fluency and accuracy needed (Chandler, 2003). This perceived difference between writing and other skills causes it to require a different type of treatment. That is, in addition to practice, improving ones' writing skill entails receiving and applying feedback (e.g. Ferris, 2003; Ferris and Hedgcock, 2005; F. Hyland, 2003).

2.2. The importance of feedback in writing

It is commonly agreed that writing is one of the most challenging skills for the most learners (Silva and Brice, 2004; Ellis, 2005), and teaching writing is an important and helpful skill if it is done in a way to provide the students with error feedback to improve their writing. It is believed that despite the fact that many studies have been conducted to examine this issue, every teacher is still following his/her own way of error feedback. They feel that there is still a need to conduct studies in different institutional contexts to see whether they have the same error or not.

The role of feedback has a place in most theories of foreign language learning and Language pedagogy. In both behaviorist and cognitive theories of foreign language learning, feedback is seen as contributing to language learning. In both structural and communicative approaches to language teaching, feedback is viewed as a means of fostering learner motivation and ensuring linguistic accuracy (Ellis, 2009). This article will draw on research in foreign language acquisition and language pedagogy in order to examine a number of controversial issues relating to one type of feedback – corrective feedback.

2.4. Correction versus non correction

Danielle Gue'nette (2007) pointed out that there was no virtue in using a no correction group, that is, a real control group that gets no feedback of any kind, since no one proposes "no feedback" as an option for a writing class. In addition, from a pedagogical perspective, if the study is carried out in a "real" classroom, it would appear almost unethical to single out a "no feedback" group (Ferris, 2004). However, if we want to know if error feedback helps second language student writers, both Truscott (1996) and Ferris (2004) agree that we must compare students who have received grammar correction with students who have not. As Ferris claims, "If correction is important for learning, then the former students should be better writers, on the average, than the latter" (p. 50). Ashwell (2000), Fathman

and Whalley (1990), and Ferris and Roberts (2001) did a correction/ no correction comparison and all three studies showed significant effects for the correction groups. Fathman and Whalley (1990) had three groups that either received feedback on form (FF), feedback on content (FC) or a combination of both, and a control group receiving no feedback. In that study, groups receiving both FF and FC showed gains in formal accuracy. Fathman and Whalley's results were difficult to dismiss, even for Truscott (1996), whose only argument was that although the study showed that students could produce better compositions with their teacher's help, it did not mean that they would continue to improve in the future. With a similar design, Ashwell (2000) obtained similar results: All groups receiving feedback made gains in formal accuracy. Ferris and Roberts (2001) provided evidence of substantial positive effects for feedback groups versus the non-feedback group; although the non-feedback group was more successful than the others in correcting lexical errors (word choice). However, these results can be explained – as the authors themselves point out – by differences in proficiency levels between their feedback and non-feedback groups. As can be seen from Ferris and Roberts's (2001) results, having a control group are not sufficient. What is needed is a control group that is in every way comparable to the experimental groups in terms of proficiency level, writing conditions, and instructional context. Only then can the correction/no correction comparison be really informative and help further our understanding of the effectiveness of error correction. Although most teachers would probably prefer to believe the assumption that feedback works, evidence that students receiving no error treatment correct their errors as often or effectively as students receiving treatment, for example, might bring teachers to develop other pedagogical techniques to address the grammatical needs of their learners. On the other hand, finding the opposite would confirm that the time spent correcting the students' errors are not in vain. Comparing correction and non-correction groups would also provide evidence to confirm or disconfirm Truscott's (1996) claim that a non-correction group might perform as well, better, or worse than a correction group (Truscott was referring particularly to Lalande (1982) and Robb et al. (1986) who did not have a "no-correction" group).

Method

3.1. Participants

32 female students who were studying English as a foreign language for almost three years involved in this study. They were enrolled in high-intermediate classes at the Iran Language Institute (ILI) in Boushehr. They met twice a week for 90 min, 21 sessions a semester, and 4 times a year with approximately equal length in each term. Ages ranged from early twenties to late forties, but the majority was in their late twenties and early thirties. In order to make the participants homogeneous, the researcher used a pre-test which was evaluated by the Jacob et al.'s rating scale. The participants whose scores were around the same mean were selected for the present study. They were in two different classes which consisted of sixteen students in each class. They were divided in two groups, experimental and control. Both classes were run by the same teacher-researcher.

3.2. Data collection

To answer the research question, two things were needed: a pre-test on essay writing assignments which aimed to evaluate the two groups' writing performance regarding error corrections. The data gathered on the first test used to determine students' level of writing performance in general and also it was a way of making sure they were at the same level of proficiency. This pre-test then was followed by more essays during a 3-month course with the experimental group receiving the written error correction through direct feedback. In error correction task, the teacher-researcher marked students' essays in the way they normally did in their own teaching situation. The errors were underlined and the correct forms were mentioned by the teacher-researcher. However, the control group received no feedback at all especially on grammatical points during the experiment. Finally, a post-test was given to both groups at the end of the course to compare the two groups' writing performance in order to investigate the effectiveness of error correction on writing assignments.

Direct feedback was preferred over indirect because it is relatively easy to identify errors and much useful for the students to know the correct forms so that they would not repeat the same mistake or if they repeated it, it was less than before. Although it was more time-consuming than indirect method, it generally had more positive effect on longer-term student improvement in accuracy and editing

skills and avoided students to fail to understand their teacher's comments due to indirectness which carried the very real potential for incomprehension and miscommunication (Hyland, 2001)

3.3. Data analysis

The research question investigated the effect of written corrective feedback on EFL learners' overall writing performance. As the number of the participants was below thirty in each group, a non-parametric test was needed. The results were analyzed by Mann-Whitney test used instead of the parametric t-test.

In analytic scoring, different aspects of content, organization, mechanics, etc. are considered when rating a text. This kind of scoring scheme as measures writing on several different aspects results in higher reliability and has higher construct validity for second language writers (Weigle, 2002).

ESL Composition Profile (Jacobs, et al., 1981) is one of the most widely used analytic scales. In this scale, texts are rated on five aspects of writing: content, organization, vocabulary, language use, and mechanics. The five aspects are differentially weighted to emphasize first content (30 points) and next language use (25 points), with organization and vocabulary weighted equally (20 points) and mechanics receiving very little emphasis (5 points). This scale has been adopted by numerous college-level writing programs, and is accompanied by training materials and sample compositions so that users can fairly quickly learn to apply the scale.

Results

The research question asked whether written corrective feedback has any effect on the Iranian EFL learners' overall writing performance or not. The results of the error correction in post-test between experimental and control group indicated that the written corrective feedback had a positive effect on learning English writing as there existed a significant difference between the two groups (0.01). In particular, direct written feedback proved to be effective in improving the students' accuracy in the post-test as the total scores are much higher in the experimental than the control group.

The following tables are concerned with the obtained results. The first table (4.1) shows the descriptive statistics. It should be mentioned that because the number of the participants were lower than 30 (which is required in experimental designs), the non-parametric counterpart of the independent samples T-test is used here. Findings of the Mann-Whitney test are presented in Table 4.2.

Mann-Whitney Test

Table 4.1: descriptive statistics Overall writing performance between two groups (post-test)

Feedback		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Postoveral	Feedback	16	20.59	329.50
	No Feedback	16	12.41	198.50
	Total	32		

Table 4.2: Results of Mann-Whitney Test for the overall writing performance between two groups

	Postoveral
Mann-Whitney U	62.500
Wilcoxon W	198.500
Z	-2.480
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.013
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	.012 ^a

a. Not corrected for ties.

b. Grouping Variable: Feedback

During the 3-month period of the study, the teacher explicitly corrected errors during the treatment. The students in both groups were of the same level of proficiency (Table 4.4, sig: 069) which was important as it showed no difference between the two groups' English writing at the very beginning.

Table 4.3: Overall writing Performance between two groups prior to the study (pre-test)

	Feedback	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Pre-overall	Feedback	16	15.84	253.50
	No Feedback	16	17.16	274.50
	Total	32		

Table 4.4: Results of Mann-Whitney Test for the overall writing performance between two groups prior to the study

	Preoveral
Mann-Whitney U	117.500
Wilcoxon W	253.500
Z	-.399
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.690
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	.696 ^a

a. Not corrected for ties.

b. Grouping Variable: Feedback

Table 4.5: Overall writing Performance of experimental group (pre &post-test)

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
PostoverallExp	Negative Ranks	2 ^a	2.25	4.50
	-Positive Ranks	13 ^b	8.88	115.50
PreoverallExp	Ties	1 ^c		
	Total	16		

a. PostoverallExp < PreoverallExp

b. PostoverallExp > PreoverallExp

c. PostoverallExp = PreoverallExp

Table 4.6: Results of Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test for the students in the experimental group

	PostoverallExp - PreoverallExp
Z	-3.155 ^a
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.002

a. Based on negative ranks.

b. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

The same analysis was conducted for the students in the control group. As expected, results showed that there were no differences between the overall writing performances of the students in the control group. Tables 4.7 and 4.8 are concerned with the descriptive statistics and results of Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test for participants of control group.

Table 4.7: Overall writing Performance of control group (pre &post-test)

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
PostoverallCon	Negative Ranks	2 ^a	2.00	4.00
	-Positive Ranks	3 ^b	3.67	11.00
PreoverallCon	Ties	11 ^c		
	Total	16		

a. PostoverallCon < PreoverallCon

b. PostoverallCon > PreoverallCon

c. PostoverallCon = PreoverallCon

Table 4.8: Results of Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test for the students in the control group

	PostoverallCon - PreoverallCon
Z	-.966 ^a
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.334

a. Based on negative ranks.

b. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

Discussion

Findings of the study showed that feedback improved the writing performance of the learners in this study. As feedback is a way to involve the students in their assessment, the learners feel that they are negotiated with regard to their performance. In this way, it could improve the writing performance of the learners.

The current study was designed with these points in mind to address the central question “does error feedback help L2 students’ written accuracy?” The answer to this question is a definite “yes.” Thus, the current findings do not support Truscott’s claim that written corrective feedback is ineffective. Truscott based this claim on the fact that no studies had demonstrated that written corrective feedback had a positive effect on acquisition. Truscott’s critique of written feedback research presented a challenge to researchers to develop methodologically sound studies. In this respect, the research reported in this article is a start in that direction.

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CHILD LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT FROM SOCIOCULTURAL THEORY POINT OF VIEW

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ABSTRACT

In the present paper, the central concepts of Vygotsky's Sociocultural Theory are discussed. Language is a social concept that is developed through social interactions. For him although biological factors constitute the pre-requisite for elementary processes, sociocultural factors are indispensable for elementary natural processes to develop. He regards it as the primary in developing higher forms of mental activity. So this paper discusses trends of development from dependency to independency through basic concepts in Sociocultural Theory such as mediation, scaffolding, regulation, ZPD, internalization and genetic domains.

Keywords: Sociocultural theory, mediation, scaffolding, regulation, ZPD, internalization.

1. Introduction

Sociocultural theory, originating in the socio-historical and cultural-historical work of Vygotsky and his Russian colleagues in the early decades of the twentieth century (John-Steiner & Mahn, 1996; Woodhead, 2000), is an approach to research that emphasizes relationships between people, contexts, actions, meanings, communities and cultural histories (Edwards, 2000). Cognitive development is seen as occurring through children's participation in the activities and practices of their community (Gauvain, 1998), is integrated with and constituted by social relationships, with cultural tools as mediating components of psychological functioning (Stetsenko, 1999). These cultural tools may be psychological (used to direct the mind), or technical (used to bring about changes in other objects) (Daniels, 2001). Commonly cited examples of cultural tools include language, different kinds of numbering and counting systems, writing schemes, mnemonic technical aids, algebraic symbols systems, art works, diagrams, maps, drawings and all sorts of signs (John-Steiner & Mahn, 1996; Stetsenko, 1999). Within sociocultural approaches, attention is paid to how specific tools and artefacts of a community serve to transform knowledge, rather than transmit knowledge (John-Steiner & Mahn, 1996). Thus, when adopting a sociocultural approach we need to examine the context, relationships, culture and activities in which children participate and the tools and artefacts they use, if we are to determine and understand their ideas. As Rogoff (1998, p. 688) has said, "It is not as if the individual could be taken outside of the activity to have their development analyzed. They are involved – part of the activity."

At the core of sociocultural theory (Vygotsky, 1978) is the principle that learning is the product of mediated interactions between an individual and the tools, symbols and people of a particular culture. We will discuss stages of "mediation" as follows:

2. Mediation, from inter-mental to intra-mental actions

Mediation is a central theme that runs throughout Vygotsky's thinking, according to which our contact with the social and physical world is not direct, but is indirect or mediated by signs. The term mediation has a long history in the behavioral sciences, frequently being used to describe a situation where one entity plays an intermediary causal role in the relation between two other entities. In the more limited context of sociocultural theories of development, it can refer to the process whereby individuals' understanding is refracted through the experience of others (e.g., Chesnokova, 2004). In its stricter Vygotskian sense, mediation involves the use of culturally-derived psychological tools, such as utterances in spoken or sign language, in transforming the relations between psychological inputs and outputs. Through encounters with these sources of mediation, individuals internalize the ways a culture goes about thinking, acting, and talking. In Vygotsky's concept of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) and the distance between the problems children can solve independently and those that they can complete only with help from others and specific types of human assistance play critical roles in cognitive change. From this perspective, learning moves from other-regulated (i.e., inter-mental) to self-regulated (i.e., intra-mental) actions (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994); this is a collaborative process that allows learners to participate in and learn cultural practices that are impossible without the assistance of others. Thus, interaction from a sociocultural standpoint suggests that learning originates, and is observable, through the social relationships of joint activity, where partners within a situated context use mediational tools to distribute cognitive demands amongst each other in order to perform actions together, that will later be completed individually.

2.1 scaffolding: from macro to micro scaffolding

Wood, Bruner, and Ross (1976) offer the term scaffolding to characterize the help that takes place during other-regulated interactions. Scaffolding serves six main functions:

- a) Recruitment and getting the student interested in the task.
- b) Reduction in degrees of freedom and dividing the task into multiple, smaller tasks.
- c) Direction maintenance and motivating students to pursue the task.
- d) Marking critical features and drawing students' attention to relevant areas of the problem or task.
- e) Frustration control and lessening the stress levels of the student during the task.
- f) Demonstration and modeling a desired outcome (p. 98).

Van Lier (2004) maintains that scaffolding is temporary and contingent, meaning that it is removed when learners can perform tasks individually. Furthermore, van Lier identifies three layers of

1. Scaffolding and planning task sequences, projects, and reoccurring classroom rituals (macro);
2. Planning each activity in terms of sequences of actions or moves (meso);
3. And the actual process of interaction from moment to moment (micro) (p. 149).

Through social and language interactions, older and more experienced members of a community teach younger and less experienced members the skills, values, and knowledge needed to be productive members of that community," says Harry Daniels, author of "An Introduction to Vygotsky."

3. Regulation: From Object Regulation and Other Regulation to Self-regulation

Vygotsky observed that children are mediated by others into using symbolic tools very early on. One example involves pointing. Initially, this simple gesture is not a gesture at all but an effort to grasp some object. When another person enters the picture, perhaps the mother, she interprets the move as a gesture. In other words, what for the child is an attempt to reach an object becomes for others a sign that directs their attention. Later, when the child understands the connection between the grasping attempt and the effect it has on others, the move comes to hold meaning – that is, to function as a form of symbolic mediation – but this is only after it has been imbued with meaning by adults (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 56). As children develop, they learn to use other symbolic tools, especially language, to influence others. Importantly, while children may use these symbolic tools to influence others, they in turn are influenced by others who are also using these same artifacts. Through this reciprocating relationship individuals develop the ability to use symbolic tools to regulate themselves in physical as well as mental activities. Vygotskian theory explains that human cognitive development involves passing from a stage of object regulation (where, like animals, our behaviors

are controlled by our immediate field of perception) to other regulation (when, for instance, we act under the direction of another person) and ultimately to the stage of self-regulation (characterized by the ability to mediate oneself through symbolic tools) (Vygotsky, 1986, 1997). To illustrate, consider the basic need to satisfy hunger. At the level of object regulation, psychological functioning is controlled by the environment rather than by the individual, and so in response to hunger the individual eats what is immediately available or goes in search of food. Deliberately delaying feeding is not an option. Others may enter the picture and perform a regulating function, perhaps ordering the individual to eat something or forbidding him from doing so. Individuals may also work in cooperation to achieve their ends, with each member of a group participating differently but contributing nonetheless to the realization of their common goal.

4. The Zone of Proximal Development: from 'present age' to 'the next age'

ZPD can be defined as "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86, emphasis in the original) or "what the child is able to do in collaboration today he will be able to do independently tomorrow" (Vygotsky, 1934/1987, p. 211, see also, 1934/1998b, p. 202).

The zone of proximal development was introduced as a part of a general analysis about child development. And its role is to point to an important place and moment in the process of child development. To understand this role, one must appreciate the theoretical perspective in which it appeared. That is, we need to understand what Vygotsky meant by 'development' in general, if we are going to understand what he meant by 'zone of proximal development' in particular. In this way, the reader can develop a generative understanding of the theoretical approach, which will be more valuable than a dictionary definition of the concept.

ZPD is used for two different purposes in the analysis of psychological development (i.e., transition from one age period to another). One purpose is to identify the kinds of maturing psychological functions (and the social interactions associated with them) needed for transition from one age period to the next. The other is to identify the child's current state in relation to developing these functions needed for that transition. Let us consider each use in turn.

For each age period, there are a group of psychological functions that are maturing in relation to the central new-formation, and which will lead to the restructuring of the existing functions to the formation of a new structure. This new-formation results in a transition to the next age period. There is tripartite constellation of 'present age', 'maturing functions', and 'next age' as the *objective* zone of proximal development. This zone is 'objective' in the sense that it does not refer to any individual child, but reflects the psychological functions that need to be formed during a given age period, in order for the next age period to be formed.

5. Internalization: from inter -psychological to intra -psychological plane

According to Vygotsky, learning to use symbolic tools as mediating artifacts through engaging in activities with others gives rise to new forms of cognition through a process known as internalization or "ingrowing" (Vygotsky, 1994b, p. 65). Symons (2004) draws on Vygotsky's concept of internalization as a mechanism for children's acquisition of self-other understanding through interpersonal engagement. This account places weight on children's ability to participate in conceptual (and thus to some extent theory-driven) conversations about mental states, which is arguably not likely to occur until children have already acquired some theory-like mental state understanding. Symons argues that conversations about mental states allow children to internalize concepts of self and other, which can then be used as a basis for reasoning about the relations between mental states and behavior.

Vygotsky acknowledged that humans, like other animals, are endowed with a biological capability to develop lower-level or natural psychological processes. What is unique to humans is that this biological substrate is radically changed as social and cultural forms of mediation are internalized and reemerge as higher-level cognitive functions. In this way, individuals gain control of their own cognition – that is, they come to self-regulate. As Vygotsky explained:

Culture, generally speaking, does not produce anything new apart from that which is given by nature. But it transforms nature to suit the ends of man ... it also consists of inner changes in that

which was given by nature in the course of the natural development of behavior. (Vygotsky, 1994b, p. 59)

Internalization was Vygotsky's solution to the nature-nurture dualism, a debate that continues in many circles to this day. In his view, it is inappropriate to attribute human psychological functioning solely to biology or to the social world as both are absolutely necessary, and, importantly, culture allows all individuals – even those with biologically rooted mental disabilities – to move well beyond the limits of biology (Vygotsky, 1993, p. 256). Moreover, Vygotsky saw internalization as an approach to unifying what have generally been regarded in psychology as two distinct spheres – the social and the mental. For 'every function in the child's cultural development appears twice: first, on the social level, and later, on the individual level; first, between people (inter-psychological), and then inside the child (intra- psychological)' (Vygotsky 1978, 57).

This leads to Vygotsky's well-known maxim, that all cognitive functions appear twice in the history of their development, initially as an interpersonal process (between an "I" and a "You") and later as an intrapersonal one (between "I" and "Me") (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 56). He explains its significance as follows:

The internalization of socially rooted and historically developed activities is the distinguishing feature of human psychology, the basis of the qualitative leap from animal to human psychology. (Ibid.)

Luria (1979, p. 45) eloquently expresses the magnitude of this perspective by observing that it is through the internalization of social and cultural forms of mediation that "the social nature of people comes to be their psychological nature as well."

6. From 'external speech' to 'private speech' and inner speech

Vygotsky's account of speech internalization is premised on the existence of three different forms of speech activity: 'external speech' (or 'social speech'), 'egocentric speech' (or 'private speech') and 'inner speech'. Vygotsky saw these three forms as structurally and functionally distinct but considered the first – 'external speech' – to be the primary linguistic variety from which the others are derived. Thus, he envisioned a developmental (or 'genetic') pathway stretching between the speech addressed to the child by others ('external speech') through to the older child's use of 'private speech' and then to 'inner speech'. As Feigenbaum (1992: 182) puts it:

Vygotsky viewed private speech as the link between early socially communicative speech and mature inner speech. Social speech is vocalized speech addressed and intellectually adapted to others, and inner speech is subvocalized speech directed and adapted to oneself, whereas private speech is vocalized speech addressed and adapted to oneself. Thus, private speech is neither social communication nor silent thought, but vocalized thought.

Moreover, research on private speech finds children's overt self-talk to be very common throughout early childhood and that such speech becomes less frequent and more internalized during the late preschool and early elementary school years (Bivens & Berk, 1990; Winsler, De Leo 'n, Wallace, Carlton, & Willson-Quayle, 2003; Winsler & Naglieri, 2003).

Since, by definition, nobody could directly observe 'inner speech', Vygotsky's case for the internalization of 'external speech' relies on an extrapolation from the structural and communicative properties of 'egocentric' or 'private' speech. Vygotsky argues that 'private speech', as it begins to be adapted to function as a means of self-regulation, bears witness to very specific types of structural deformation applied to 'external speech'. Through the development of inner speech, children straddle the divide between thought and language, eventually being able to express their thoughts coherently to others.

According to Adam Winsler (2003), co- editor of "Private Speech, Executive Functioning, and the Development of Verbal Self- Regulation". As young learners experience language development, they "can reflect better on their own thinking and behavior and reach greater levels of control and mastery over their own behavior,"

7. Genetic Domains: from Ontogenesis to Phylogenesis

Vygotsky sought to create a new psychology that 'conceived of the human mind as a functional system' (Lantolf 2000a, 1-2). From this perspective, biologically specified capacities are re-organized into higher, culturally shaped (and specifically human) forms of thinking 'through the integration of symbolic artifacts' (Lantolf 2000a, 2), including language. Vygotsky thus proposed that, although

humans are indeed endowed with certain (lower) cognitive abilities, the formation of higher psychological functions occurs through participation in culturally organised activity with more competent or mature members of the culture (Wertsch 1985). This view is captured in Vygotsky's (1978) writings about the genetic, or developmental, law.

Children's creation of homesign systems suggests a human capacity to create something like a proto-language (of course, using a human brain in a human sociocultural environment). However, for such a language to develop further, a community of users is needed. This would have existed for pre-humans, of course. And more complex structures could have emerged as a social product, like so many other achievements of human social and material technology. I would suggest, though, that such structures are emergent and are not pre-specified. They can be learned and refined, using various capacities. Similarly, none of the psychological functions are "pure" in the sense of a biologically-given module or faculty. Rather they were formed, both historically in the phylogenetic development of human societies, and individually in the ontogenetic development of persons within these societies.

On the plane of evolution, complex social products such as language can emerge, in part, in processes of interpersonal use. The claim, then, is that some aspects of our language capacity are not the result of learning from environmental evidence. Aside from divine intervention, the only other way we know of to get them into the mind is biologically: genetic information determining brain architecture, which in turn determines the form of possible computations. In other words, certain aspects of the structure of language are inherited (Jackendoff, 1987, p. 87).

The implications for teaching

Lidz and Gindis (2003, p. 100) point out that for Vygotsky, abilities are not innate but are emergent and dynamic. Dynamic assessment procedures have revealed that many individuals thought to have a biological impairment were in fact culturally impaired in that they had received an insufficient amount and kind of mediated experiences (Feuerstein et al., 1988). Importantly, cognitive abilities in this view are amenable to change; this implies that mediators must have an understanding of how they can be optimally supported so there is a need for flexible interaction. These included a willingness to adapt mediation to meet learners' needs as well as sensitivity toward learners' reciprocating behaviors during DA; intentional effort to render DA tasks increasingly complex to continually challenge learners; and an emphasis on presenting the object of study (in this case, a L2) in a manner that supports learners' development of psychological tools through the internalization of theoretical knowledge. In addition, Kaufman and Burden (2004, p. 108) observe that peer-peer interactions as a possible source of mediation. A number of studies suggest that peers can serve as effective mediators.

8. Conclusion

Vygotsky stresses the social nature of language learning, emphasizing the environment within which a child is raised. Significantly, the sociocultural perspective emphasizes that it is through involvement in activities with others that development occurs and shared understandings are created. Thus, for researchers and teachers, the implication is to examine more than just the individual child growing and developing through the predictable, sequential stages of childhood, and acquiring valued scientific knowledge. Rather, it is important to consider the contexts in which children are developing, the socioculturally relevant activities within those contexts, and the participation with, guidance and support of others.

This theoretical sociocultural perspective posits a mediated rather than direct relationship between humans and the world. This means that just as our concrete activities are mediated by the physical tools our culture provides, our mental activities are mediated by psychological tools, which are the forms of cognition that arise through the internalization of our interactions with others and our use of symbolic artifacts. In other words, our socially mediated activities change not only our surroundings but also ourselves. Cognitive development is the internalization of external forms of mediation and their reemergence as psychological tools, which allow us to mediate our functioning, an ability Vygotsky described as self-regulation. At any point in time, individuals' abilities include functions that have been fully internalized as well as other functions that are still in the process of developing. The purpose of psycho-educational assessment, from a Vygotskian perspective, is to understand the full range of individuals' abilities. As a logical corollary to the view of abilities as internalized forms

of mediation, Vygotsky argued that what individuals are able to do in cooperation with others indicates their future independent performance. Moreover, mediated interactions are the driving force of development.

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CROSS-LINGUISTIC INVESTIGATION OF REQUEST SPEECH ACTS AMONG NATIVE PERSIAN AND ENGLISH SPEAKERS

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ABSTRACT

Cross-Cultural studies of speech acts can result in finding similarities and differences between languages and therefore better understanding of the potential sources of communication breakdowns. This study was an attempt to compare the request strategies employed by native English speakers and native Persian speakers in English and Persian TV series. 300 requestive utterances in English series (150 male and 150 female) and 300 requestive utterances in Persian series (150 male, 150 female) were transcribed and coded for directness level and gender. The data was categorized based on Blum-Kulka and Olshtain's (1984) Cross-Cultural Study of Speech Act Realization Patterns (CCSARP) and was explained qualitatively. The results revealed that both native English and Persian speakers used the most direct level as their most frequently used strategy in their everyday interactions. However, while English speakers opted for conventionally indirect strategies more than Persian speakers, Persian speakers employed more non-conventionally indirect strategies when they made a request. Male and females did not indicate a significant difference.

Key words: speech act, request strategies, directness level, cross-cultural studies

1. Introduction

Being competent in a language is no longer equal to having grammatical or textual competence. Although grammatical knowledge is vital for communication, by redefinition of communicative competence and emergence of some theoretical models by Canale & Swain (1980), Bachman (1990), and Bachman & Palmer (1996), more emphasis is given to pragmatic competence.

Communicative competence is composed of knowledge of grammar, vocabulary of a language, rules of speaking, knowing how to use and respond to different types of speech acts, and how to use language appropriately (Richards, Platt, and Weber, 1985). According to Hymes (1971), communicative competence includes both knowledge of linguistic rules and socio-cultural rules for appropriate use. Bachman and Palmer (1996) emphasize two subcomponents of communicative ability: language knowledge and strategic competence. Bachman (1990) further classifies language knowledge into organizational competence and pragmatic competence. Kasper (1997) defines pragmatic competence as knowledge of communicative action, how to carry it out, and the ability to use language appropriately according to contextual factor. One aspect of pragmatics is the concept of speech act. In 1962, Austin introduced the idea that when uttering a sentence, we do things as well as say things. He identified three facets of speech acts: locutionary, illocutionary and perlocutionary. Locutionary act refers to what is actually said, while illocutionary act is what is intended by what is said. Perlocutionary act is what is done by what is said. Illocutionary speech acts are classified into six types: representative, directive, question, commissive, expressive and declarative, each including different actions (Searl, 1975). A request is a type of directive. Bach and Harnish (1979) define a request as a speech act which indicates a desire on the part of the speaker for the hearer to perform an action with the added proviso that the hearer takes it as the motive to act. Requests are known to be face-threatening acts (Brown & Levinson, 1978), because by making a request, the speaker limits the hearer's freedom of action. So speakers of a language use different strategies to mitigate the impact of the imposition. Indirectness is considered to be one way to do so. Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984) define three levels of directness that are manifested universally by requesting strategies: the direct,

explicit level; the conventionally indirect level; the non-conventionally indirect level. Each level has some sub-levels called 'strategy types'. All in all there are nine strategy types which are: *Mood Derivable, Explicit Performatives, Hedged Performatives, Obligation Statements, Want Statements, Suggestory Formulae, Query Preparatory, Strong Hint, and Mild Hint.*

Brown and Levinson (1987) consider direct requests to be impolite and face-threatening, because they directly intrude the hearer's territory.

However people in different countries apply the speech acts rather differently and these differences and the lack of an awareness of these differences may cause misunderstandings and communication breakdowns. In order to make appropriate requests in another language, learners need to acquire both pragmatic and socio-pragmatic knowledge to avoid being considered rude or impolite by native speakers. Research has shown that native speakers believe pragmatic errors are more serious than phonological or syntactic errors (Kioke,1995; Thomas,1983; Wolfson,1989). So it seems vital for learners of a language to acquire sufficient knowledge of speech acts of the target language (in addition to grammatical knowledge and vocabulary) in order to avoid these kinds of communication problems. Therefore cross-cultural investigations of speech act patterns in different languages can serve this purpose. It can find different strategies native speakers use and also can pinpoint similarities and differences across languages.

2. Review of literature

Previous studies on request strategies have investigated them from different perspectives.

-Some studies have analyzed requests in a single language. For example, Shams and Afghari (2011) examined the effects of gender and culture on the comprehensibility of indirect requests in Persian using a questionnaire. The results showed significant effect of culture on interpretation of indirect speech acts. Gender had no effect. In another study, Felix-Brasdefer (2005) investigated the notions of indirectness and politeness in requests of Mexican Spanish using five role-play situations. They found conventional indirectness to be the most common means of requesting when the speaker is in the position of power and directness is most common when relationship between speaker and hearer is close.

-Some other studies deal with interlanguage pragmatics. Vahid Dastjerdi and Rezvani (2010), Kuhi and Jadidi (2012), and Jalilifar (2009) are some examples. Amooaliakbari and Paramasivam (2012) studied Iranian EFL students' pragmatic knowledge and compared their performance of requests native English speakers to investigate to what extent they were close to native speakers in using external and internal modifications. Categorizing data by means of CCSARP (Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realization Pattern), they came to conclusion that Iranian EFL students overused external modifications and underused internal modification compared to NSs, but an increase in language proficiency level can cause pragmatic development.

-The third group of studies on request speech act is cross-cultural investigations which examine languages to find native speakers' strategies and similarities and differences between different languages. Some of these studies include: Blum-Kulka, House, & Kasper (1998), Australian English, Canadian English, Hebrew, and Argentinian Spanish; Placencia (1998): Ecuadorian and Peninsular Spanish; Blum-Kulka (1987): Hebrew and American English; Sifianon (1992): Greek and British English; and Marquez-Reiter (2000): Uruguayan Spanish and British English. Also, Abdolreza Pour and Eslamirasekh, A. (2012) investigated the possible correlation between using mitigation devices and request compliance in Persian and American English via open role-play and stimulated recall procedure. According to the results, American requestors were more confident than Iranians that the requestee would accept their requests using fewer mitigation devices. In another study, Eslamirasekh (1993) made a cross-cultural comparison of request patterns of Persian and American native speakers by gathering data via controlled elicitation (open questionnaire) and came to conclusion that Persian speakers used more direct requests than American speakers, though they used more alerts, supportive moves and internal modifiers to compensate for level of directness. This study seems to be in contrast to Shams and Afghari's (2011) study in which the results revealed "Iranian participants try to use indirect requests rather than direct form" (p.283). No other research was found by the researcher of the current study which aimed at comparing English and Persian speakers' requestive patterns cross-culturally. Furthermore in most of the studies done in this area, the tool of gathering data was questionnaires or DCT or role-plays. Tatton (2008) questions whether responses gathered in this way (DCT) could be reflective of natural conversations and he suggests that "...before evaluating

appropriate methods of instruction, it is essential that real data be gathered in order to develop relevant instructional materials. So, the researcher of the current study gathered authentic data by investigating TV serials in English and Persian. The differences in the employment of request strategies between male and female speakers were also taken into consideration. More specifically, the current study addressed the following research questions:

1. How do NPSs and NESs differ with regard to the request strategies they use?
2. How do male and female speakers differ with regard to the request strategies they use?

3. Method

3.1 Participants

There are no participants involved in this study. The data was gathered by observing English and Persian TV series and transcribing them. 300 requestive utterances in English (150 male and 150 female utterances) and 300 requestive utterances in Persian (150 male and 150 female utterances) were transcribed. The researchers chose the first 150 requestive utterances made by females and the first 150 utterances made by males in both TV series. After transcribing the utterances (N: 600), they were coded both for directness level and gender.

3.2 Instruments

The main tool for gathering data was through TV series conversations. The usual tool for gathering data in cross-cultural and interlanguage pragmatics is DCT (discourse completion task). Of course, some researchers question their reliability to gather real data. Considering the importance of gathering authentic data regarding request speech acts and the impossibility of gathering natural face to face data from native speakers in the current study, the researchers decided to use scripts from TV series as representative of naturally occurring discourse.

The TV series chosen were *Desperate Housewife*, as the American English sample, and *Ghalbe Yakhi* (Frozen Hearts) as the Persian sample. The reason for choosing these two series were their being teemed with everyday conversations and thus full of requestive utterances.

3.3 Procedure

As mentioned before, the main tool to gather data was through TV series analysis which approximated the authentic discourse in real communication. As the current study investigated requests with regard to the level of directness, the classification proposed by Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984) in Cross-Cultural Study of Speech Act Realization Pattern (CCSARP) was applied. In this model, first three segments are recognized for request utterances: a) Address Term; b) Head Act; c) Adjunct(s) to Head act. For example, in this sentence:

Mary/ would you lend me some money/ I should pay my tuition by the end of this week.

- a) 'Mary' is the Address term
- b) "would you..." is the Head act
- c) "I should pay..." is the Adjunct to Head act

Only the Head act is realized in classifying the levels of directness in requests. To gather the data, the first 300 requestive utterances appeared in the American TV series (150 uttered by male speakers and 150 uttered by female speakers) and also first 300 requestive utterances in the Persian TV series (150 uttered by male speakers and 150 uttered by female speakers) were transcribed.

3.4 Data analysis

Each utterance was placed under appropriate category in CCSARP directness level and the frequency of each category was calculated and reported. Moreover, the utterances were coded for gender and the frequency of different strategies uttered by male and female speakers was investigated.

4. Results

In order to better understanding of the obtained results, it is better to reconsider the research questions here prior to reporting the findings. As illustrated in chapter 1, the current study was carried out mainly to address the following research questions:

- Q1. How do NPSs and NESs differ with regard to the request strategies they use?
- Q2. How do male and female speakers differ with regard to the request strategies they use?

the researchers analyzed the transcribed request strategies (n: 600) uttered by speakers in English and Persian TV series to find the similarities and differences between them. Emerging themes were also written down. To address the first research question, the researchers tried to compare the frequencies

by which the NESs and NPSs applied the nine request strategies introduced by Blum-Kulka and Olshtain(1989). In order to find the answer to the second research question, the researchers coded the requests for male and female utterances and tried to find the potential differences between them.

Research Question 1: Comparing request strategies used by NPSs and NESs.

Although the majority of speakers in both Persian and English series opted for *Mood derivable* strategy, it can be inferred from Table 1 that NPSs used it more than NESs, with frequencies of 67.3% and 48.3% respectively. NPSs also employed *Explicit performatives* with a higher frequency, that is, 5.3% compared to 2.3% by NESs. They did not indicate a big difference in the use of *Hedged performative*, though NESs used this strategy slightly more frequently than NPSs, 1.7% and 0.6% respectively. NESs also indicated a greater interest in employing *Locution derivable* strategy than NPSs did. They employed it in 8.3% of their utterances, while NPSs used it just in 5% of their requests. As can be inferred from Table 1, a significant difference can be seen in the frequencies with which English and Persian speakers used *Scope stating*. The English employed it almost three times as much as the Persian did, that is, 13.3% compared to 5%. Frequencies were closer with regard to the *Suggestory formula*, NESs (1.7%) used it slightly more than NPSs (1.3%). Another big difference in the frequencies can be noticed in the seventh strategy, being *Reference to preparatory condition*. NESs demonstrated a marked preference for this strategy and used it as their second favored request strategy, with a frequency of 20 %, while NPSs employed it much less than NESs did, that is, just in 6.3% of their requests. NPSs, on the other hand, opted for *Strong hint* as their second most frequent strategy and employed it in 9% of their requests; NESs used them in 4.3% of their requests. *Mild hints* were absent in both NPSs and NESs requests.

Table 1. Comparing Request Strategies Used by NPSs and NESs

Request Strategies	English	Persian
Mood derivable	48.3%	67.3%
Explicit performative	2.3%	5.3%
Hedged performative	1.7%	.6%
Locution derivable	8.3%	5%
Scope stating	13.3%	5%
Language specific suggestory formula	1.7%	1.3%
Reference to preparatory condition	20%	6.3%
Strong hint	4.3%	9%
Mild hint	0%	0%

All in All, there seems to be a difference in the request strategies NESs and NPSs employed in these TV series. Although both opted for *Mood derivable*, which belongs to the most direct level, as the most frequent strategy they use in majority of their requests, NESs used *Reference to preparatory condition*, a conventional indirect strategy much more than NPSs did, and NPSs applied *Strong hint*, in nonconventional indirect level, with a higher frequency than NESs did.

Furthermore, while investigating the request strategies in Persian series, the researchers came across a strategy employed by NPSs which did not fit in any categories in Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1989)'s model of strategy types and since it was not mentioned in any other studies done about Persian request strategies, the researchers had to choose a new name for this strategy. It is necessary to

mention, this strategy is not solely used in making a request. In fact, it is a politeness strategy which is very common in Persian speakers' conversations, but it is used with a greater frequency in requestive utterances. The strategy is:

-*Pluralizing the verb and pronouns* : this strategy is used by Persian speakers to mitigate the degree of imposition in requests by increasing the degree of politeness. In this strategy, the structure of the utterance can be imperative (as in *Mood derivable* strategy), or interrogative (as in *Query preparatory*); in both cases the verb and probably existing pronouns or possessive adjectives are pluralized.

example: Mmitunam karte **shoma** ro dashte basham?

(Can I have your card?)

Lotfan inja ro ye emza konin.

(Please sign this part.)

Since in English there are no plural verbs, this strategy does not make sense in English.

Research Question 2: Comparing strategies used by all male speakers (English & Persian) and all female speakers (English & Persian).

It can be obviously noted in Table 2 that males and females used the most common request strategy, *Mood derivable*, with very close frequencies, males 57% and females 58.7%. The frequencies were even closer in *Explicit performative*, 4% male utterances and 3.7% female utterances. Females indicated a slight preference in the application of *Hedged performative*, they used it in 1.7% of their utterances, while males used it in merely 0.6% of the requests they made. The same slight difference can be noticed in the realization of *Locution derivable* strategy, though it was applied more than the previous strategy by both male and female speakers who used in 7.3% and 6% of their utterances respectively. *Scope stating* is more frequently used by females, that is, in 10.3% of the requests compared to 8% male requests. Table 4.6 indicates females also employ the sixth strategy which is *Suggestory formula* (2.7%) more than males, who employed it only in 0.3% of their utterances. Both males and females indicated an interest in employing *Reference to Preparatory condition*, though the frequency was higher among male speakers which was 14% compared to 12.3% among females. Similarly, as can be inferred from Table 3, males showed higher tendency toward using *Strong hint* than females did, yet the difference was not noticeable. They used *Strong hints* in 6% of their utterances, compared to 4.7% female utterances.

Table 2. Comparing Request Strategies Used by all Males (English and Persian) and all Females (English and Persian)

Request Strategies	Males	Females
Mood derivable	57%	58.7%
Explicit performative	4%	3.7%
Hedged performative	.6%	1.7%
Locution derivable	7.3%	6%
Scope stating	8%	10.3%
Language specific suggestory formula	.3%	2.7%
Reference to preparatory condition	14%	12.3%
Strong hint	6%	4.7%
Mild hint	0%	0%

All in all, male and female speakers do not seem to have a noticeable difference in the type of strategies they choose when they make a request.

5. Discussion

The first research question dealt with the type of request strategies used by NPSs and NESs. After classifying all request strategies uttered in Persian and English TV series according to Blum-Kulka and Olshtain(1984)'s directness level, the researchers noticed NPSs employed *Mood derivable* strategy as their most frequently used strategy in their daily conversations. This strategy belongs to the most direct level in the model proposed by the above-mentioned authors. This result accords with the findings of Eslamirasekh(1993) that, "Persian speakers use significantly more direct strategies"(p.91). However, it is in opposition with the findings of Shams and Afghari (2011) and Salmani(2008) who believe that Iranian participants use indirect requests rather than direct ones.

The preference of direct strategies by Persian speakers cannot be taken as a reason that they are less polite than the English speakers. It was often argued in the literature on politeness and indirectness that these two concepts are parallel dimensions. Leech (1983), for instance, argued that it is possible in the same propositional content "to increase the degree of politeness by using a more and more indirect kind of illocution"(p.108). Also, according to Brown and Levinson's (1978) politeness theory, people opt for indirect forms to show politeness. Reexamining the notions of politeness and indirectness, Blum-Kulka(1987) tapped native speakers' perceptions of these two concepts in Hebrew and English in a series of experiments. He argued the two notions are not necessarily the parallel dimensions, rather they are perceived to be different from each other. He mentioned the definition of politeness as "the interactional balance achieved between two needs: The need for pragmatic clarity and the need to avoid coerciveness"(p.131). In the case of conventionally indirect requests, this balance is achieved and in his study this level was considered as the politest one. But nonconventional indirect level which doesn't satisfy the need for pragmatic clarity is considered less polite than conventionally indirect level, in spite of the fact that it is more indirect. Therefore, he concluded that the most indirect strategies cannot be perceived as the most polite ones.

Another important point which is related to this discussion can be Brown and Levinson's (1978) two notion of negative and positive politeness. Although indirectness is usually connected with politeness, its social meaning may be different in different cultures. Negative politeness can be shown by verbal strategies which indicate deference and also such as indirect forms. Positive politeness, on the other hand, is effort on the side of the speaker to indicate solidarity with the audience, such as using direct forms among other verbal strategies. In western world, politeness is believed to be expressed by negative strategies (Cottrill, Forthcoming &Matsumoto,1988 ;Wierzbicka,1985, cited in Eslamirasekh, 1993). In cultures like Iranian culture considering a person as a member of that community is more important than considering the person's autonomy. So, positive politeness strategies will be employed in these cultures.

Another finding revealed in this study was NESs' use of Mood drivable strategy as their most frequent strategy. This finding is in opposition with the results found in Eslamirasekh(1993), Jalilifar(2009) and Yang(2009) , in all of which the NESs opted for conventionally indirect strategies as their favorite strategies. There are some reasons considered by the researchers of this study for these oppositions. First of all, this study investigated the frequency of request strategies employed in everyday conversations without any consideration of factors such as power of the speaker and degree of imposition. In our everyday conversations, most of our requests are made referent to our friends and family members with whom we do not feel the necessity of mitigating our requests as much as when we communicate with strangers or interlocutors in the position of power.

Secondly, the previous studies all have used Discourse Completion Test (DCT) or its modified form (open questionnaire in Eslamirasekh, 1993) to elicit the data. Although this tool has some advantages, its reliability has been questioned by some researchers. As Nurani(2009) mentions " what people claim they would say in the hypothetical situation is not necessarily what they actually say in real situations"(p.667). As the current study used authentic data gathered from the requests uttered in TV series, and as the conversations in TV series have been proved to resemble the authentic conversations (Fernandez-Guerra ,2008), the data gathered from this study might be a better representative of authentic conversations. Of course, it is necessary to mention here that the

researchers do not claim that the results can be generalized to all conditions and situations in different contexts.

The second research question dealt with the type of request strategies used by male and female speakers. To this aim, all requestive utterances were coded for gender while being transcribed. Then their frequencies of appearance were compared to find the potential differences between them. According to the results, females opted for Mood derivable as their most frequently employed strategy just as males did, that is, there was no difference between males and females in the level of directness. This result accords with Ishikawa(2013) who investigated the gender differences in American requests. Using four kinds of role-plays, he came to conclusion that women tend to use direct requests. Although these results were somehow unexpected if we consider the common beliefs about women and also Williams and Best's (1982) adjective checklist which views females as being more pleasant, emotional and obedient, one explanation for this can be women's increasing assertiveness as a result of modernity and the altered role of women from being a mere housewife and mother to educated individuals who have a say in their society.

6. Conclusion

May(1998) recognizes language as an inseparable part of life which is a tool to convey messages and to express opinions, ideas and feelings. Human beings are able to socialize and to maintain their position in the society via language. However, having a mere grammatical or textual knowledge is not enough to have a successful communication with others in the society. There are factors such as cultural norms which play a crucial role in appropriate communication and which may not be similar in different cultures and in different situations. Therefore, having pragmatic competence is an important aspect of successful communication.

Requests as one of the speech acts are Face Threatening Acts (FTA) which need to be mitigated in order to reduce their degree of imposition. An important question which is raised here is whether different languages use universal strategies to mitigate requests or they differ in this respect. The best way to find the answer to this question is cross-cultural investigation of speech acts which is suggested by many researchers (Flowerdew, 1988, 1990; Rintell, 1981; Blum-Kulka et al., 1989).

This study was as answer for this call which attempted to investigate English and Persian request strategies to find differences and similarities between them. Moreover, it aimed at investigating the realization of requests by male and female speakers to find out whether they employ similar or different strategies. The results of the study did not support Blum-Kulka and Olshtain's(1984) CCSARP research which claimed the universality of preference of non-conventionally indirect requests. In fact, according to the findings of this research, in everyday conversations, both NESs and NPSs used direct level (Mood derivable) more frequently than other levels of directness. However, NESs used more indirectness than NPSs which are the result of socio-cultural differences between two languages.

Furthermore, males and females did not indicate a significant discrepancy in the use of strategies to request. It can be concluded that in considering ways to mitigate a speech act like requests, some other factors such as the context in which the request is made and the interlocutors' social distance and power play a more significant role than gender.

The results of the current study can indicate some implications for ESL and EFL teachers who can recognize the strategies used by native speakers in authentic conditions and then teach them to the language learners to enhance their pragmatic competence. They can also have implications for language learners, who can avoid communication breakdowns by having familiarity with the appropriate request strategies that native speakers use in different contexts. The other group who can benefit from the results of this study is the material designers in the field of language teaching in general and pragmatics in particular. In their effort to specify the materials, they can incorporate different ways of expressing request speech acts to increase the authenticity of the dialogs, role plays, communication practices and other activities in their books.

This study can also pave the way for other researchers to conduct studies on other aspects of request strategies in future. More comprehensive study of requests can be done with including other aspects of request strategies such as mitigating devices and alerters and point of view operation which can lead to more reliable findings and conclusions. Also, variables introduced by Brown and Levinson(1987), including the relative power of the hearer, the degree of imposition, and the social distance between interlocutors can be considered in future studies.

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Glossary

Pragmatics: the study of how language is affected by the context in which it occurs.Yule(1996) defined it as the study of intended speaker meaning.

Communicative competence: the cluster of abilities that enable humans to convey and interpret messages and to negotiate meanings interpersonally within specific contexts(Brown,2007,cited in Ghazanfari et al.2012).

Pragmatic competence: Knowledge of communicative action, how to carry it out and the ability to use language appropriately according to contextual factors(Kasper,1997).

Speech act: The idea first introduced by Austin(1962) that " in uttering a sentence, one can do things as well as say things."

Request: a speech act which expresses the speaker's desire for the hearer to perform an action with the added proviso that the hearer takes this expressed desire as the reason to act (Bach & Harnish, 1979).

Cross-cultural studies: the comparison of a particular aspect of language in different languages in order to find the similarities and differences between them.

CCSARP: (Cross Cultural Study of Speech Act Realization Patterns) a significant collaborative effort from linguists that aim to empirically study the speech acts of requests and apologies.

Appendix

Appendix 1: A Combination of Levels of Directness and Strategy Types: Taken from Belza (2008, p.84)

Levels of Directness	Strategy Types	Examples		

Direct	1. Mood Derivable: where the grammatical mood of the verb determines its illocutionary force as a request, e.g. the imperative.	Close the door.		
	2. Explicit Performatives: where the illocutionary intent of the utterance is explicitly named.	I'm asking you to close the door		
	3. Hedged Performatives: where the naming of the illocutionary force is modified by hedging expressions	I would like to ask you to close the door. I must ask you to close the door.		
	4. Obligation Statements: where the illocutionary point is directly derivable from the semantic meaning of the locution.	You should/will have to close the door.		
	5. Want Statements: where the utterance expresses S's desire, intention that H carries out the act.	I want you to close the door.		
Conventionally Indirect	6. Suggestory Formulae: where the utterance contains a suggestion to do A.	Why don't you close the door?		
	7. Query Preparatory: where the utterance contains reference	Could you close the door, please? Would you mind closing the door		

	to a preparatory condition (e.g. ability, willingness or possibility to perform the act) as conventionalized in any specific language.	<i>please?</i>		
Non-conventionally Indirect	8. Strong Hint: where the utterance contains partial reference to object or elements needed to implement the act.	<i>The door is open</i>		
	9. Mild Hint: where no reference is made to the request proper (or any of its elements) but interpretation is possible from the context.	<i>There is a draught in here.</i>		

Appendix 2: Some Examples of Request Strategies Transcribed in English and Persian TV Series:

Strategies	Persian	English
<i>Mood derivable</i>	Sabr kon ta xodam behet begam che kar koni.(Wait for me to tell you what to do)	Stop stalling and go.
<i>Explicit performative</i>	Kharesh mikonam ye kam arum sho. (I beg you to calm down a little)	I'd really appreciate it if you said something.
<i>Hedged performative</i>	Majburam azat bekham ke hameye harfhai ke zadim pishe (I have to ask you to keep it as a secret between us)	I'm gonna want you to be home by eleven.
<i>Obligation statements</i>	Bayad bery.(You must go)	You should slow things down.
<i>Want statement</i>	Mixam dige tu zendegim nabashi.(I don't want you in my life anymore)	We need you to do something for us.

<i>Suggestory formula</i>	Bia sa'ay konim be in mas'ale adat konim.(Let's try to get used to it)	Why wouldn't you just drop me off and go home.
<i>Reference to preparatory condition</i>	Mitunm karte shoma ro dashte basham?(Can I have your card?)	Can I store some odds and ends in your garage?
<i>Strong hints</i>	Un nabayad zende bemune.(He shouldn't be alive)	I kicked my ball in your back yard.

SOME TENTATIVE SUGGESTIONS FOR LOCALIZING EFL TEXTBOOKS IN CONTEXT OF IRAN

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ABSTRACT

The concept of 'globalization' has been widely discussed by scholars from a wide range of disciplines including history, political science, cultural studies, education, etc. (Marlina, 2013). But, global communication requires not only a shared channel (like the internet or video conferencing) but also a shared *linguistic* code (Block & Cameron, 2002). Therefore, globalization and localization progress and develop hand in hand with mutual effects on each other and every developed material is the result of the balance and repercussion of both elements as the constitutive factors in its overall organization. Being cognizant about the balance, however, one encounters the challenging issue of the methods and procedures for localizing the materials. For this purpose, the researchers discuss some tentative suggestions in the betterment of localization process in the text books. Finally, the researchers conclude that for localizing the text books, the best evaluators are the learners themselves and with the feedback they provide, the material developer can make a precise balance between localized and globalized materials. Using the questionnaire in order to obtain the learners attitudes about the extent to which localized materials should be included is another useful technique in gathering data from the learners' perspective who are the consumer of the innovations of practitioners and material developers.

Key words: Localization, Globalization, Reading skill, Speaking skill, Listening skill, Course books

1. Introduction

The concept of 'globalization' has been widely discussed by scholars from a wide range of disciplines including history, political science, cultural studies, education, etc. (Marlina, 2013). As Block (2008) argues, globalization is framed as the ongoing process of the increasing and intensifying interconnectedness of communications, events, activities and relationships taking place at the local, national or international level. But, global communication requires not only a shared channel (like the internet or video conferencing) but also a shared *linguistic* code (Block & Cameron, 2002). This definition is truly compatible with what Piller (2007) introduces as "new world order" which is the result of how capitalism has been restructured in a global scale, and she continues to declare that such an order has to link people from different cultural and linguistic backgrounds.

To be truly globalized, however, Blackmore (1999, as cited in Tien & Talley, 2012) states that 'localization' is a valid response. As Douglass (2005, cited in Tien & Talley, 2012) claims, all globalization is in fact subject to local (or national and regional) influences. The localization process is most generally related to the adaptation or translation of some cultural norms, lexical items, physical, or technical issues. Localization can be done for regions or countries where people speak different languages or where the same language is spoken (Mckay, 2013).

Therefore, it can be elicited from the aforementioned facts that globalization and localization progress and develop hand in hand with mutual effects on each other and every developed material is the

result of the balance and repercussion of both elements as the constitutive factors in its overall organization. However, the central issue is that none of the trends can be separated from the other one due to the interdependence nature of both trends which mandate every individual theorizer and practitioner to contemplate about a middle approach to design curriculum and course syllabi in a fashion that the learners both move towards the direction of being globalized and at the same time being oriented and attached to their own values, customs and view points in their own culture and in other aspects of life.

Being cognizant about the balance, however, one encounters the challenging issue of the methods and procedures for localizing the materials in a way that both learners benefit from the course books and moreover, the objectives of the course would be met. Based on the above-mentioned factors and with the purpose of developing the course books to meet special needs of the learners, in the following sections, the researchers discuss some tentative suggestion in the betterment of localization process in the books.

2. Localized course books and the target/first language culture

Generally, people's culture includes their beliefs, rules of behavior, language, rituals, art, styles of dress, ways of producing and cooking food, and religion. So culture distinguishes one group of people from others. Brown (1994) asserted that culture is like the glue that ties a group of people together. It is necessary to incorporate culture into an EFL curriculum with a view to increase the cultural awareness. Such a cultural awareness can develop students' understanding of the target culture and, therefore, develop their tolerance for those whose attitudes and values are different from theirs. For example, the materials in Interchange Series make the series as a heavily culturally-loaded textbook.

Despite its wonderful appearance, however, globalization is regarded as the source of social inequality (McMichael, 2008). Most importantly, it has a propensity for the homogeneity of cultural norms and values (Stromquist & Monkman, 2000). That is why globalization, in Giddens' (2000) words, is almost equal to westernization or, particularly, Americanization.

In this vein, the effect of the foreign language culture makes the learners as the followers of that culture and ethically they would be affected by their cultural norms even to the extent that the way of dressing and behaving would be the reflection of the foreign language culture. Moreover, although the global English culture is, to some extent, included in the syllabus of the institutes, it would seem that such a culture has merely focused on topics such as traditions and holidays which are only considered as one aspect of culture, namely, the aesthetic aspect (Adaskou, Britten, & Fahsi, 1990).

On the other hand, especially in elementary levels, teaching a totally new culture would pose cognitive load for the learners (Lin & Chen, 2006). For instance, the novice learners of English have to listen to teachers explanations for a long time in order to understand a very specific cultural ritual in a European country. At the end of the explanation, some of them would comprehend it and others would be confused whether they came to the correct understanding or not. Sometimes, the last resort for the teacher is code switching to the first language for saving the class time.

Therefore, from the author's point of view, it is recommended that learners in, especially elementary levels be confronted with course books that are culturally adapted and there is balance between native culture and the foreign language culture.

In the following sections, the specific suggestions for optimal localization of different parts of the course books in EFL context are provided with the aim to make corrective actions on the utilized material for making the learners avail of the benefits of course books.

3. Tentative suggestions for localizing reading section of EFL course books in Iran

One of the factors which deserve the focus and attention of material developers is localizing the text books and still providing the material that is motivating for the learners. As we know in literature, the main factor in Gardner's socio-educational model of learning English language is motivation. Therefore, motivation is the cornerstone for a vivacious English classroom. Gardner and Lambert (1972) proposed that if individuals had a strong interest in another language community, or an open appreciation and interest in other language groups in general, this could make them more open to learning a second language.

In the context of Iran, as a developing country, all learners are enthusiastic to learn English, not just the linguistic part of it, rather the cultural component in order to be familiar with the lifestyle of

foreigners (Piller, 2003) as some Asian learners consider themselves culturally and socially inferior in comparison to western countries. Therefore, the stereotypes in the foreign culture are the models of their imitation.

Therefore, teaching English in an Iranian and Islamic culture poses complex questions for both teachers and learners. On the other hand, the overseas material developers do not seem to be much worried about ethical language teaching, i.e. language teaching targeted merely at empowering learners; they only intend to improve their trade and protect investments overseas (Phillipson, 1992). The situation can be exacerbated to the extent that the phenomenon 'cultural invasion' in Freire's (1985) words can be dominant in the society in which invaders pierce into the cultural context of another group, in discourtesy of the latter's potentialities; they impose their own view of the world upon those they invade and inhibit the creativity of the invaded by limiting their utterances and intentions. For example, signs of cultural invasion is regularly seen in teenagers and young learners, as for the customs, festivals, dressing, etc.

On the other side, emphasis on the target/foreign culture may have a negative impact on language learners who do not acculturate and as a result may leave language learning (Alptekin, 1993). Therefore, some scholars like Prodromou (1992) went to the extreme and dispute the value of including cultural content in language teaching materials since including western culture in a non-western society, such as Iran, may not be very beneficial to the young learners and it may cause culture conflict. As a solution some other countries such as Japan and Chile strongly rejected the inclusion of western culture in their English teaching materials and they have separated teaching English from western cultural values.

All in all, as instructors of foreign language teaching for several years, the researchers are advocates of including the native language norms as the main themes in all parts of the textbooks, including reading, writing, speaking, etc. and the target language culture be presented as a cross-cultural point in each section.

For example, in the reading section, the topics should be organized based on the social relevancy. Altan (1995) thinks that foreign culture-based situations such as "finding a flat in Manchester", "purchasing a pet", "playing rugby", "watching a game of cricket", ... and their ingrained values, beliefs, and norms are impertinent to the learners' native environment and background. Moreover, it is thought that teaching the literary and cultural aspects of a foreign language is of little use in a world where foreign languages are mainly needed for science, technology, business and international communication. That is why, most textbooks are grammatically and lexically organized. In Iran, subjects like public transportation, job application, and environmental problems like pollution are the daily topics of an Iranian individual. Therefore, they deserve priority.

One practical method can be after introducing the topic of reading and the particular aspects of it in the context of Iran, another short text can accompany the main reading passage and in that passage, the cross cultural notes can be focused on. For instance, if the topic swivels round the landmarks and the sights in Iran, the main reading can discuss the beautiful natural places in Iran or the holy places for pilgrimage. As a case in point, there are different historical and monumental places in Iran such as, to name just a few, Persepolis/Pasargad in Shiraz, Hegmataneh in Hamadan, Mosques with unique architectures in Isfahan, the Burnt city in Sistan o Balouchestan, and the Castle of Falakol Aflak in Lorestan, which may be interesting and fascinating not only for the Middle East residents but for all people around the world. Next on a separate reading following the main one, the beautiful sights and cultural attractions of other countries can be pointed out and explained by the teacher for the learners. This way our purpose would be twofold, Iranian culture can be introduced to all nations and by comparing Iranian culture with others, the learners would recognize the contrasts.

Also, it is suggested that some pieces in Iranian literature be translated in the English language and be inserted as the reading material in the reading section. This way both our literature can be revived in these types of international books and students can impart our historical and social values to the whole world. Also the cognitive load for learning new vocabulary and new grammatical points in the reading would be reduced since students already have familiarity with Iranian literature (Lin & Chen, 2006).

Another suggestion would be to use Iranian proper names in the articles. When the reading is about the daily life of an Iranian family, it is better to use Iranian names in order to value the personality of Iranian people. Also when the topic is about food and cooking, the reading comprehension can swivel round introducing an Iranian stew and the steps to preparing it. Even if there is no word for a special

meal like “abgusht”, the researchers believe it is possible to coin an English word for it and introduce it globally. The second passage that follows would be allocated to introduce foreign famous foods eaten in different countries such as “stir-fried tofu” or “tuna sushi”. This way, students can be familiar with different ways of preparing food like frying, baking, poaching, grilling, etc.

Therefore, the best practice is to modify the original material and adapt them based on the ideas of ELT professionals. First and foremost, elements of the Iranian culture, history, religion, values, customs, etc. should be outlined exclusively by Iranian, not Western, ELT professionals. Next, it is recommended that new English textbooks be designed by groups of native and non-native experts within the ELT field.

In the information and high-tech era, therefore, the issue today is not whether to include but what aspects of culture to include, how culture should be taught and more importantly at what age in the language classrooms in Iran. For example, an ESL textbook from the UK that is used in an EFL context might contain scenarios that are performed quite differently across cultures, such as a job interview, or a boy asking a girl for going out on a date (Thi Cam Le, 2005). Therefore, these topics should be modified in our culture but the cultural point should be placed in the following reading to make the point clear in other countries and help the learners make a comparison between them.

To set another example, some Asian students might find it hard to feel the beauty of this comparison made by Shakespeare in his 18th Sonnet: “Shall I compare thee to a summer’s day?” The terribly hot summer in most Asian countries makes people feel tired, and they often link the season with something unfavorable. Therefore, the point should be clarified for the learners on the spot. Another example can be seen in the reading about giving directions and the address for specific places. The reading could have students speculate about how people in different cultures give names to streets. In Iran, some streets are named based on the family name of the martyrs in Iran-Iraq war. However, streets in American countries are based on the name of trees such as oak tree and that should be reflected in a passage. As another instance, many Iranian learners might feel free to ask English-speaking visitors their age or marital status without realizing that this is generally unacceptable, even though it is acceptable in their home culture.

Therefore, the contrast between the main passage about local norms in the reading section and the periphery passage which reflects target language norms would direct the learners mind to both cultures and observation of the differences.

4. Tentative suggestions for localizing speaking section of EFL course books in Iran

Much was said on localizing the reading passages since reading is the most important skill in language learning. However, in this section, some brief points are mentioned with regards to speaking skill. One of the important elements in any educational context is promoting the critical thinking of the learners. Critical thinking is reasonably and reflectively deciding what to do or believe (Ennis & Weir, 1985). Facione (1990) defines it as purposeful, self-regulatory judgment which leads to interpretation, analysis, evaluation, and inference, as well as explanation of the evidential, conceptual, methodological, criteriological, or conceptual considerations upon which that judgment is established.

As a prerequisite in any educational context and even in the daily life of individuals, the teacher should devise some strategies to promote the skill and course books are the ancillary helps in this regard.

However, unfortunately, the biased stereotypes of foreign cultures have been overgeneralized to all Asian students to such an extent that they are generally thought to be lacking the skills for evaluation and critical thinking (Samuelowicz, 1987). Most learners are the followers of the second language culture. A major drawback of such linguistic and cultural domination is ESL/EFL learners’ loss of identity. This unfortunate phenomenon is still prevalent in English language classrooms when learners are asked to assume English names. According to Pennycook (1998), renaming learners is a symbol of disrespect, scorn and insensitivity to the different linguistic, historical and cultural backgrounds the learners bring to the language classrooms. Therefore, in order to promote critical thinking in the learners, the materials should be devised in a way that respect the learners’ identity and cultural values.

As a solution to these problems, it is suggested that in the speaking section of the course books, some controversial questions which look up to or look down on a particular issue be inserted. In other words, for example, if the topic is about religion, one question can focus on freedom of religion in Iran

and claims that religion freedom is limited in Iran. This controversial topic would persuade the learners to defend from the statement or reject it. Then, other questions in the speaking section can ask the students about religion freedom in other countries. Learners can recount their experiences if they have any about a religious point in some other cultures or they would be motivated to surf the net to make themselves familiar with the religion freedom concept in other places.

Even some photographs of real world can accompany the discussion that denotes whether religion freedom exists in a particular country or not. By the activity, students would have a virtual travel to the target country.

Moreover, the exercise may ask the learners to use variety of languages to impart their particular view points. Although more formal language typically dominates language classrooms, the inclusion of informal discourse features – such as redundancies, reduced forms, and colloquial language – lets learners experience the type of natural conversation that takes place regularly in social situations. In this case, the content of the discussion can be localized towards using the Persian structures (both formal and informal) to describe an event and the target language structures by quick code switching between the two languages. In fact, although in some points there are contrasts between the social, cultural and psychological context of first language and foreign language learning, but according to Byram (1992), the cultures share ‘translatable’ similarities.

In speaking part of the course book, an important proficiency is the pronunciation of the learners. Though pronunciation has a pivotal role in accuracy in language, today’s scholars consider fluency and comprehensibility superior to accuracy. Unfortunately, unfair evaluation of international students merely on the basis of their non-native accent can lead to lower grades for these learners in most classroom activities (Munro, Derwing & Sato, 2006). Widdowson (2003) contend that there is no longer any particular distinction between the native and non-native speakers of English, and that non-native speakers have now taken the ownership, through appropriation, of the English language. Moreover, during the postmodern era of ELT, the idea of World English was replaced with the notion of World Englishes, with an emphasis on the inclusivity and pluricentricity of new varieties of English (Kachru, 1996).

Therefore, it is suggested that at the entry of each unit, the phonetics of the words for their correct pronunciation be removed since some course books place the new words of the unit at the beginning of the chapter in a decontextualized manner and provide the phonetics for the words. It is better after each 3 or 4 units to introduce one aspect of pronunciation like the first stress of the word and in other units some other aspects like the difference between the phonetics for /ch/ and /sh/. In this way, the correct way of pronouncing the words would be learnt implicitly. As we have variety of Englishes in postmethod era, why just sticking to the standard British or American accent? (Kachru, 1996) Why not having Korean English? Japanese English or even Iranian English. If the purpose is fluency, some minor problems can be ignored at the expense of fluency.

5. Tentative suggestions for localizing listening section of EFL course books in Iran

Listening is one of the four language learning skills, targeted variously by experts. Schmitt (2002) asserts that listening involves making sense of spoken language, normally accompanied by other sounds and visual input, with assistance of our relevant prior knowledge and the context in which we are listening. It is often assumed that listening could be acquired through exposure rather than teaching. That’s why maneuvering on this domain is really a valuable process in applied linguistics and in related disciplines in the new millennium. Ever since the advent of communicative approaches in teaching, lots of efforts have been made by material developers and educational policy makers to make learning materials as real-life (Dat, 2003).

However, the role of background knowledge can not be ignored in appropriating the material for listening section of the book. If learners have familiarity with the text, necessarily their intake from the input would be increased. Moreover, as was mentioned above, one of the purposes of education is promoting critical thinking in learners. Listening part of the books provide such arena that helps to promote critical thinking as well.

In researchers’ idea, one technique to stimulate critical thinking is for the material developer to provide two texts that present totally different views on the same matter and invite students to listen to them and debate the issue. The material developer can also find texts that contain a foreign perspective about the students’ country or culture, so that they can see themselves through the eyes of others. For example, the listening section can encourage the learners to listen to a topic like marriage

ceremony in Iran. This brings an interesting cultural topic for discussion, as well as a good lesson on English grammatical structures by using the conjunctions to show the contrast.

Another technique would be to provide videos of the topic in the native country and introduce the event by a third person. Since the learners have a good background knowledge about the topic, they can learn the new vocabulary introduced in the listening and remember them for a long time with teacher extra explanation. Since they are making association between the word and the context, it is assumed that the word would move to their long term memory and its retrieval would be faster in its future use (O'malley & Chamot, 1990). Then another listening activity can follow the first one, however, the topic is related to marriage ceremony in Unites States. This way both the new words and grammatical points are learnt quickly through the first text and the cultural point in the target language context is elucidated for the learners.

Again like the reading section, the slight and sharp contrasts between the native language and the target language can be juxtaposed which seems, in researchers' point of view, a helpful process for comprehensive understanding.

6. Conclusion

As a result of globalization and localization, scholars shift away their focus from the development of native-speaker competence towards more realistic competencies to prepare learners for engaging in intercultural communication with speakers from a wide range of cultural backgrounds (Xu, 2013). As Sharifian (2013) argues, more proficient speakers are those who have been exposed to, and show familiarity with, various systems of cultural conceptualizations, participating with flexibility in an English international language communication and effectively articulating their cultural conceptualizations when their interlocutors need this to be done. The kind of competence that underpins the skills that are described here may best be termed *meta-cultural competence*. However, this objective can only be achieved if the material developers perform their duties optimally. Some scholars, such as Kramsch (1991), believe that the culture that is taught in a classroom must not be limited to four Fs; foods, fairs, folklore, and statistical facts. Likewise, Hassan (2008) states that second and foreign language practitioners must not only have the knowledge of the target culture, but also the ability and training that is necessary to teach it. In other words, teaching culture is not only talking about some figures and rates in a foreign culture. A comprehensive grasp and understanding of the material developers of the subtleties of the foreign culture makes it tangible for the learners.

With the abovementioned purpose in mind, in this brief article, several methods for localizing the books were introduced. Course book localization's paramount importance is closely related to the concept of individualism. In a similar manner, Kumaravadivelu's (2006) first pedagogic parameter, namely the parameter of particularity, states that any postmethod pedagogy "must be sensitive to a particular group of teachers teaching a particular group of learners pursuing a particular set of goals within a particular institutional context embedded in a particular sociocultural milieu" (p. 171). Therefore, the main purpose for localization is accommodating the needs of a particular audience. Needs analysis is a device to know the learners' necessities, needs, and lacks in order to develop courses that have a reasonable content for exploitation in the classroom. In fact, if feedback and consultation are included in the learning cycle, a learning activity can in itself become a kind of needs analysis, which allows the teachers to conceive and provide for needs as they arise. These Objectives can be modified in the light of feedback from learners (Seedhouse, 1995). Therefore, the researchers suppose for localizing the text books, the best evaluators are the learners themselves and with the feedback they provide, the material developer can make a precise balance between localized and globalized materials.

Using the questionnaire in order to obtain the learners attitudes about the extent to which localized materials in different parts like reading comprehension, listening comprehension, etc. should be included is a useful technique in gathering data from our audience perspective who is the consumer of the innovations of practitioners and material developers.

Overall, the organization of the topics in the book should be in a way that reflect the native language social concern. Even the characters in the books should, especially in elementary levels have native names, dressing and appearance. So the cognitive burden of recognizing the strange cultural points would be reduced. However as Kumar eloquently states above, the note should be kept in mind that we are devising material for specific audience, in specific context and with specific needs. So the Iranian EFL experts with the collaboration of target language practitioners should compile the

material and the expert knowledge of both would result in a comprehensive international course book.

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A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF LANGUAGE FUNCTIONS AND ELEMENTS OF SOCIAL CONTEXT IN FOUR CORNERS SERIES, TOP NOTCH SERIES, INTERCHANGE SERIES, AND ILI TEXTBOOKS FROM A PRAGMATIC POINT OF VIEW.

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ABSTRACT

This study aimed at analyzing the conversations in four different textbook series. Data analysis was done from a pragmatic point of view within Halliday's (1978) framework for language functions to determine the distribution and frequency of the targeted features in the series. For this purpose, two textbook levels (Intermediate and Advanced) were selected. Each language function in the conversations was codified based on Halliday's (1978) functional model and checked for the relevant frequency along with its contextual variables present in the co-text regarding the effective social elements in terms of tenor, field, and mode. It was concluded that the absence of the imaginative function, specialized language and different forms of conversation could be considered as a recurrent weakness of these textbooks. The results also indicated that the conversations in these textbooks are with some pragmatic problems with regard to language functions and social context elements.

Key words: language function, social context elements, pragmatics, textbook evaluation

1. Introduction

The selection of a textbook is certainly one of the most crucial responsibilities of a teacher who will have to shape the content and nature of teaching and learning. It entails matching the materials against the context in which it is going to be utilized, following the aims of the teaching program, as well as fitting the personal methodology of the teacher. In the EFL classroom, materials are an important aspect of the curriculum. For many professionals, ELT textbooks are basic elements in ELT teaching and are the most extensively used instructional materials in schools at present. Explaining the vital role of "textbooks" in ELT teaching, Benevento (1984) states that "whenever foreign language teachers meet each other, the first words after "How do you do?" are usually "What course-books do you use?". Dubin and Olshtain (1986) hold that "the tangible element that gives a language course face validity to many learners and teachers is the textbook" (P.167). Regarding the primary purpose of the ELT textbooks, Byrd (2001) states that ELT textbook embody two kinds of information, which are thematic/topic content (family, school, etc.) and linguistic content (grammar, vocabulary, skills). The

users of ELT textbooks are engaged in the content of the document to obtain the linguistic knowledge needed so as to communicate in a foreign language.

Hutchinson and Torres (1994) argue that the textbook has a very important and positive part to play in teaching and learning of English. They state that textbooks provide the necessary input into classroom lessons through different activities, readings and explanations. Thus, they will always survive on the grounds that they meet certain needs. Textbooks can also give purpose to the learners; if no textbook exists, learners do not take their learning seriously. Textbook can be used as a syllabus. If there is no textbook in class, students will lose their focus and it becomes a kind of teacher-dependent class. Furthermore, textbooks can be used as a supporter and helper for new teachers.

The importance of the role of textbooks is clear in teaching and learning process from the teachers' and students' perspectives. All educational materials and especially Textbooks should meet certain standards and criteria. Materials should raise the learners' interest and attention in order to have an effect on their learning English language as a foreign language (Tomlinson, 2001). Tomlinson also states that the students can learn more if the materials and textbooks they use include lots of white space and different activities in them. He believes that the confidence of learners can be developed through these activities by engaging them in using the targeted language. Textbook selection in Iran is very important due to the vast applicants of English learners. Therefore, one of the teacher's tasks is selecting the textbook which is suitable for that specific context. Also because there are a lot of different textbooks available in the market, these books should be evaluated in order to find out the best and most appropriate one. According to Riazi, teacher is considered the most important factor in language classroom and after the teacher, textbook plays a very crucial role in language teaching and learning. Textbook is a tool in the hands of the teacher, and the teacher must know not only how to use it, but also how useful it can be.

2. Literature review

The relationship between textbooks and language teaching is not something which has only recently been commented on. It has a long history because the quality of teaching and learning has always been of interest to all people in general. Keeping this source up-to-date requires educational materials receive evaluation and revision time and again. Sheldon (1988) has offered several reasons for textbook evaluation. He suggests that the selection of a language textbook often signals an important administrative and educational decision. A thorough evaluation, therefore, would enable the managerial and teaching staff of an institution to discriminate between all of the available textbooks on the market. Moreover, it could aid in identifying the particular strengths and weaknesses in textbooks already in use.

Tok (2010) presented the merits and demerits of English textbook 'Spot on' which is used in primary schools in Turkey. The course book was evaluated based on layout and design, activities, language type, subject, context and skills and whole aspect. His study revealed that 'Spot on' textbook was not suitable for a systematic in-depth analysis.

One of the most recent studies in textbook evaluation has been performed by Khalid Mahmood (2010) which aimed at the exploration of textbook evaluation process through analysis of the approved textbooks by the Ministry of Education in Pakistan. Eight textbooks in the subjects of science and mathematics, developed in the public and private sector, were analyzed. The results showed that there is a need to make the criteria objective with respect to content coverage in relation to curriculum content scope, concept building, cognition level of assessments given in the end of chapter exercises, format and design, and building for its durability.

In Turkey, Hamiloglu and Karliova (2009, cited in Soozandefar, 2011) examined and evaluated five selected English language course books from the viewpoint of vocabulary selection and teaching techniques they employ. As an examination and evaluation method, content-analysis was preferred in this study. As a result of this evaluation, it was seen that all selected course books integrated lexis into their syllabuses, giving emphasis to word knowledge by means of separate headings and additional sub-headings, such as Vocabulary, Word Building, Word Formation, Easily Confused Words, Keyword Transformation, Near-synonyms and Synonyms.

Cakit (2006) ran a study to evaluate the EFL textbook series "New Bridge to Success 3" from two opposite perspectives; from those of the teachers and the learners. His result revealed dissatisfaction of both teachers and students. They preferred easier reading. They also believed that the textbook does not match to their level and age and it does not take into consideration the different people's

learning styles. Some comparison studies in the area of textbook evaluation have also been conducted. One of the most recent ones allocated to Vellenga (2004) who made a comparison between EFL and ESL textbooks. She believed that textbooks rarely provide enough information for learners to successfully acquire pragmatic competence. The results showed that the textbooks include a paucity of meta-linguistic and explicit meta-pragmatic information, and the comparison of EFL and ESL textbooks revealed that although the amount of pragmatic information is small across all texts, a larger percentage of pages of EFL texts are comprised of pragmatic information.

In context of Iran, Moafian (2012) ran a study to analyze the conversation sections of Talk Time series by Susan Stempleski (2007) within Halliday's framework of language functions and Searle's speech act taxonomy to determine features of the book in general and the strengths and weaknesses of it, in particular. The speech act categories and language functions used in the conversations were analyzed. The researcher concluded that the absence of the declarative speech act and imaginative function in the conversations can be considered as the weakness of these textbooks.

Abbasian and Hassan Oghli (2011) did a study to evaluate the EFL textbook series taught at Iranian public high schools from two opposite perspectives; from those of the teachers and the learners. To this end, three questions addressing degree of compatibility or variability of teachers and learners views about the series and the extent of their satisfaction or dissatisfaction were raised. The teachers showed to be less satisfied with the EFL textbooks than their learners. Cakit (2006) has done the same research. His result revealed that both teachers and students do not feel positively against most of "New Bridge to Success 3". They prefer easier reading. They also believed that the textbook does not match to their level and age and it does not take into consideration the different people's learning styles.

Soozandefar's (2011) study is concerned with language functions and speech acts in *Top Notch*. The data were analyzed based on Searle's (1976) model of speech acts and Halliday's (1978) model of language functions. In the result he reported that some of the language functions and speech acts were not used frequently and also they were not distributed equally.

Some research has also been done in public schools of Iran. For instance, Rashidi and ZareAsl (2011) evaluated two pre-university English textbooks based on Littlejohn's framework. Their research revealed that the Current Textbook has superiority over the Old Textbook in both Task Analysis and the Design. The activities and tasks in CT were more engaging than OT for students. Furthermore, the new book is more in line with the objectives of ELT in pre-university centers.

Bahrami (2011) attempted to conduct an in-depth evaluation of *intermediate Top Notch* based on Littlejohn's (1998) evaluative framework. The results showed some beneficial points for English teachers in many language institutes regarding the strengths and weaknesses of these intermediate textbooks which might give them some insights into the course book they use and how they can exploit it better.

Gordani (2010) explored different types of learning objectives inherent in Iranian guidance school English textbooks from the viewpoint of Bloom's taxonomy. The primary data in this study were the English textbooks taught in Iranian guidance schools at the present time. The study used Bloom's taxonomy of educational objectives (1956) in analyzing the material found in Iranian guidance school English textbooks. The results showed that all of the items were concentrated on the first three levels of Bloom's taxonomy which are referred to as the lower levels of cognitive skills. In addition, a significant difference was found between the textbooks in their inclusion of different levels of cognitive skills.

3. Methodology

3.1. Materials

The materials in the present study are *Top Notch*, *Interchange*, *Four Corners* and *Iran Language Institute (ILI)* textbooks. Generally, *Top Notch* series consist of 12 textbooks on the whole, written by Joan Saslow and Allen Ascher, and published in the United States of America by Pearson Longman Incorporation in 2006, *Four Corners* series consist of 4 textbooks on the whole, written by Jack C. Richards and David Bohlke, and published in the United States of America by Cambridge University Press in 2012, *Interchange* Series consist of 4 textbooks on the whole written by Jack C. Richards, Jonathan Hull, and Susan Proctor, and published in the United States of America by Cambridge University Press in 2005. On the other hand, the *ILI* English books consist of 18 textbooks on the

whole that are published by Iran Language Institute in Iran. The focus of the present study is on two different levels (Intermediate, Advanced) in each of these textbooks.

3.2. Data collection procedure

According to Guerin (2004, p.6), "To have an appropriate sample size in conversation analysis, we need to analyze samples of "natural" conversations based on the topics, or recall of such conversations if necessary, and find out how the topics are being used in these conversations: are they jokes; are they serious discussions of issues in which the speakers try to persuade each other; are they to entertain the group listening; are they gossiping devices? To do this, we must find ways to obtain far more social context or topics for any conversation or text than has been done before."

According to this explanation about the sampling of conversation analysis, the criterion for sampling must be based on different topical contexts or themes. The data for this study contains the conversations in Top Notch series textbooks, Interchange series textbooks, Four corners series textbooks and ILI textbooks. Only the conversation sections have been evaluated since the focus of the current study is on the pragmatic aspect of the conversations in these books. The researcher has chosen two levels (Intermediate, Advanced) from each of these textbooks and has tried to analyze this data based on Halliday's (1978) framework. To be able to get more precise result the researcher analyzed most of the conversations in the two mentioned levels. In qualitative research, it is actually suggested to utilize 10% of the whole population. Therefore, to have a reliable outcome, this study covers the appropriate number of data.

3.3. Data analysis

The complete analysis of the current study has been done by careful survey of the conversations included in Top Notch, Interchange, Four corners and ILI textbooks on the basis of Halliday's (1978, p.19) language functions which are:

1. Instrumental function
2. Regulatory function
3. Interactional function
4. Personal function
5. Heuristic function
6. Imaginative function
7. Informative function

The analysis of context was done in terms of field, tenor, and mode. These three components offer a system which helps illustrate any socio-linguistic occurrence.

The purpose of this study was to figure out the types of language functions and social context elements involved in the contents of the conversations. To do this, each language function in the conversation was codified on the basis of Halliday's (1978) functional model and checked for the frequency of each selected function along with its contextual variables present in the co-text regarding the effective social elements in terms of tenor, field, and mode. Then, frequencies of each language function were counted. To make sure about inter-coder reliability, two raters went through the above-mentioned processes.

Basically counting the frequencies of the occurrence of each language function and social context elements based on Halliday's (1978) language functions model as well as their percentages presented in different tables and shown on several figures were the only quantitative analysis performed in this study. Moreover, the chi-square test was used in order to better illustrate the distribution levels of these pragmatic variables.

3.4. A sample from ILI textbook

Halliday's Approach

Conversation (intermediate 3 p. 53)

Paul: Why did you stop me, officer? [Heuristic]

Policeman: You know why? [Heuristic] You're driving without a front license plate. [Informative]

Paul: I'm sorry; [Interactional] it fell off. [Informative] I haven't had time to have someone fix it. [Informative]

Policeman: Could I see your driver's license, please? [Instrumental]

Paul: well... er... it's at home, [Informative] I'm afraid. [Interactional]

Policeman: Your insurance? [Instrumental] Is the car insured? [Heuristic]

Paul: Yes, but I don't have my insurance documents on me. [Informative]

Policeman: Then bring your license and documents to the police station within seven days. [Regulatory]

And the contextual analysis of this text which is based on field, tenor and mode is like this:

Field: The language of this conversation is not specialized but it is every day language.

Tenor: The language is relatively formal and the two partners in this conversation don't have equal status and they have relatively low contact.

Mode: This conversation is a face to face and a contextualized one.

4. Results

Q1. What are the types of language functions presented in the conversations of the four different series under investigation?

After a careful inspection of all conversations in the textbooks of Four Corner, Top Notch, ILI and Interchange, the data were analyzed. The frequency of the language functions on the basis of Halliday's (1978, p.19) language functions used in the conversations is presented in the following tables (Tables 4.1, 4.2, 4.3, and 4.4).

Table 4.1. Types and frequency of the Language Functions in the Four Corner Series

<i>Language Function</i>	<i>Frequency</i>
Instrumental	21
Regulatory	21
Interactional	49
Personal	84
Heuristic	104
Informative	228
Imaginative	5
Total	512

According to the information given in Table 4.1, all of the language functions in Halliday's (1978) functional model (Instrumental, Regulatory, Interactional, Personal, Heuristic, Informative and Imaginative) are included in the conversations of the Four Corner Series.

Table 4.2. Types and frequency of the Language Functions in the Top Notch Series

<i>Language Function</i>	<i>Frequency</i>
Instrumental	17
Regulatory	13
Interactional	23
Personal	87
Heuristic	66
Informative	109
Imaginative	2
Total	317

Based on the results presented in Table 4.2, the conversations of the Top Notch series contain all of the language functions in Halliday's (1978) functional model.

Table 4.3. Types and frequency of the Language Functions in the ILI Books

<i>Language Function</i>	<i>Frequency</i>
Instrumental	11
Regulatory	11
Interactional	10
Personal	51
Heuristic	35

Informative	84
Imaginative	0
Total	202

As Table 4.3 shows, six types in Halliday's (1978) functional model (Instrumental, Regulatory, Interactional, Personal, Heuristic and Informative) are included in the ILI books. But there is not any imaginative function in the conversations of the ILI books.

Table 4.4. Types and frequency of the Language Functions in the Interchange Series

<i>Language Function</i>	<i>Frequency</i>
Instrumental	14
Regulatory	9
Interactional	20
Personal	62
Heuristic	75
Informative	217
Imaginative	5
Total	402

Table 4.4 reveals that all of the language functions in Halliday's (1978) functional model (Instrumental, Regulatory, Interactional, Personal, Heuristic, Informative and Imaginative) are included in the conversations of the Interchange Series.

Q2. What are the types of social contextual elements used to provide appropriate contexts for language functions in such conversations?

Following the objectives of the study, the second question of the study delved into the frequency of the social context elements used in the conversations. The findings are presented in the following tables (4.5, 4.6, 4.7 and 4.8).

Table 4.5. Types and frequency of the Social context Elements in the Four Corner Series

<i>Social Context</i>	<i>Frequency</i>
Face to Face	18
Phone Call	4
Specialized	3
Non-Specialized	29
Formal	4
Informal	28
Total	86

As the findings in Table 4.5 show, face to face, phone call, specialized, non-specialized, formal, and informal are the social context elements used in the conversations of the Four Corner series.

Table 4.6. Types and frequency of the Social Context Elements in the Top Notch Series

<i>Social Context</i>	<i>Frequency</i>
Face to face	32
Phone call	1
Specialized	4
Non-specialized	28
Formal	11
Informal	23
Total	99

As Table 4.6 shows, the conversations in the Top Notch series contain face to face, phone call, specialized, non-specialized, formal, and informal social context elements.

Table 4.7. Types and frequency of the Social Elements in the ILI Books

<i>Social Context</i>	<i>Frequency</i>
Face to face	15
Phone call	1
Non-specialize	16
Formal	2
Informal	14
Total	48

The information provided in Table 4.7 shows that the conversations in the ILI books contain face to face, phone call, specialized, non-specialized, formal, and informal social context elements.

Table 4.8. Types and frequency of the Social Elements in the Interchange Series

<i>Social Context</i>	<i>Frequency</i>
Face to face	28
Phonecall	4
Specialized	4
Non specialized	28
Formal	4
Informal	28
Total	96

Table 4.8 depicts the social context elements in the conversations in the Interchange series. Like what was observed in the aforementioned series, the Interchange series contain face to face, phone call, specialized, non-specialized, formal and informal social context elements.

Q3. How frequently is each language function presented in these four different series?

The frequency of the language functions and the social elements of the four series used in the conversations are presented in the following tables (Table 4.9, 4.10, 4.11, and 4.12).

Table 4.9. Frequency and Percentage of the Language Functions in the Four Corner Series

<i>Language Function</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>	<i>Cumulative Percent</i>
Valid	Instrumental	21	4.1
	Regulatory	21	8.2
	Interactional	49	17.8
	Personal	84	34.2
	Heuristic	104	54.5
	Informative	228	99.0
	Imaginative	5	100.0
	Total	512	100.0

Based on the results presented in Table 4.9, from among language functions presented in the series, 4.1% refers to instrumental, 4.1% to regulatory, 9.6% to interactional, 16.4% to personal, 20.3% to heuristic, 44.5% to informative, and 1% to imaginative. For a faster and better understanding of the distribution of language functions in the conversations, Figure 1 gives a bar graph of the frequencies.

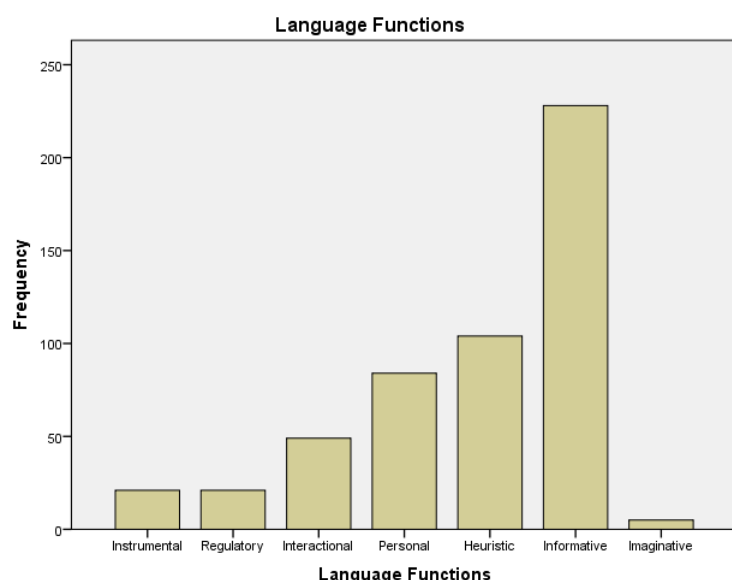


Figure 1 Bar Graph of the Frequency of the Language Functions in the Four Corner Series

Table 4.10. Frequency and Percentage of the Language Functions in the Top Notch Series

	<i>Language Function</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>	<i>Cumulative Percent</i>
Valid	Instrumental	17	5.4	5.4
	Regulatory	13	4.1	9.5
	Interactional	23	7.3	16.7
	Personal	87	27.4	44.2
	Heuristic	66	20.8	65.0
	Informative	109	34.4	99.4
	Imaginative	2	.6	100.0
	Total	317	100.0	

Concerning the language functions of the conversations included in the Top Notch series, Table 4.10 shows that 5.4% refers to instrumental, 4.1% to regulatory, 7.3% to interactional, 27.4% to personal, 20.8% to heuristic, 34.4% to informative, and .6% to imaginative. The following bar graph (Figure 2) depicts the distribution of the frequencies.

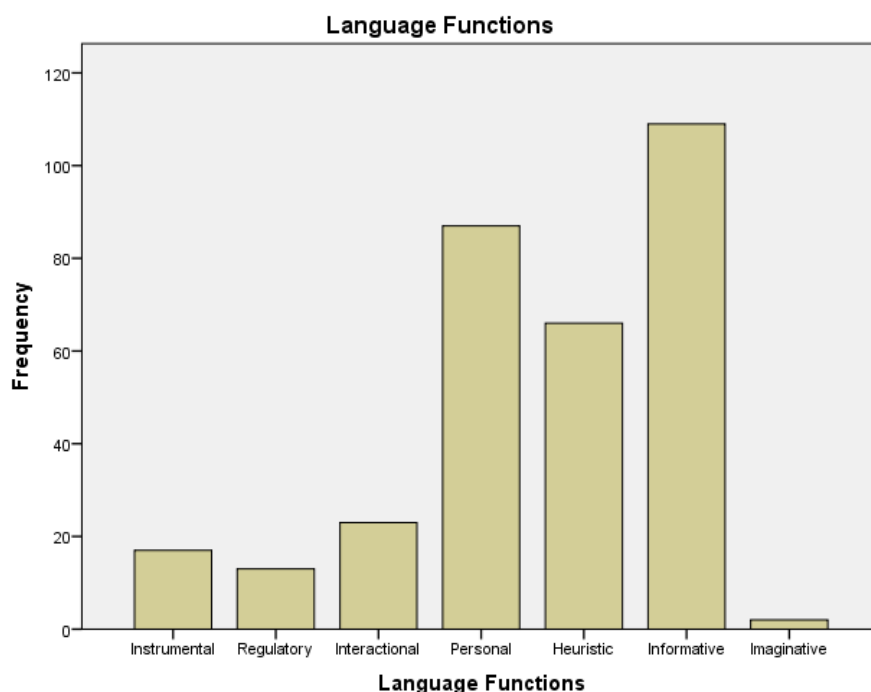


Figure 2 Bar Graph of the Frequency of the Language Functions in the Top Notch Series

Table 4.11. Frequency and Percentage of the Language Functions in the ILI Books

<i>Language Function</i>		<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>	<i>Cumulative Percent</i>
Valid	Instrumental	11	5.4	5.4
	Regulatory	11	5.4	10.9
	Interactional	10	5.0	15.8
	Personal	51	25.2	41.1
	Heuristic	35	17.3	58.4
	Informative	84	41.6	100.0
	Total	202	100.0	

Table 4.11 reveals that from among the language functions contextualized in conversations in the ILI textbooks, 5.4% refers to instrumental, 5.4% to regulatory, 5% to interactional, 25.2% to personal, 17.3% to heuristic, and 41.6% to informative functions. No imaginative function is included in the conversations of the ILI books. Figure 3 shows the frequencies distribution.

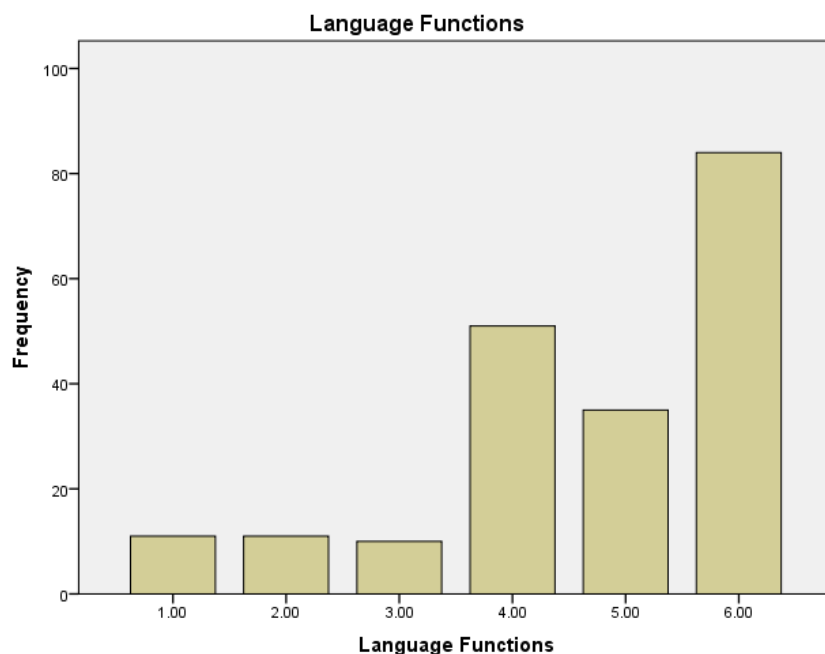


Figure 3 Bar Graph of the Frequency of the Language Functions in the ILI books

Table 4.12. Frequency and Percentage of the Language Functions in the Interchange Series

Language Function		Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Instrumental	14	3.5	3.5
	Regulatory	9	2.2	5.7
	Interactional	20	5.0	10.7
	Personal	62	15.4	26.1
	Heuristic	75	18.7	44.8
	Informative	217	54.0	98.8
	Imaginative	5	1.2	100.0
Total		402	100.0	

The results presented in Table 4.12 indicate that 3.5% of the whole percentage of the language functions refers to instrumental, 2.2% to regulatory, 5% to interactional, 15.4 to personal, 18.7 to heuristic, 54% to informative, and 1.2% to imaginative function. The following bar graph (Figure 4) shows the frequencies distribution of the language functions in the Interchange series.

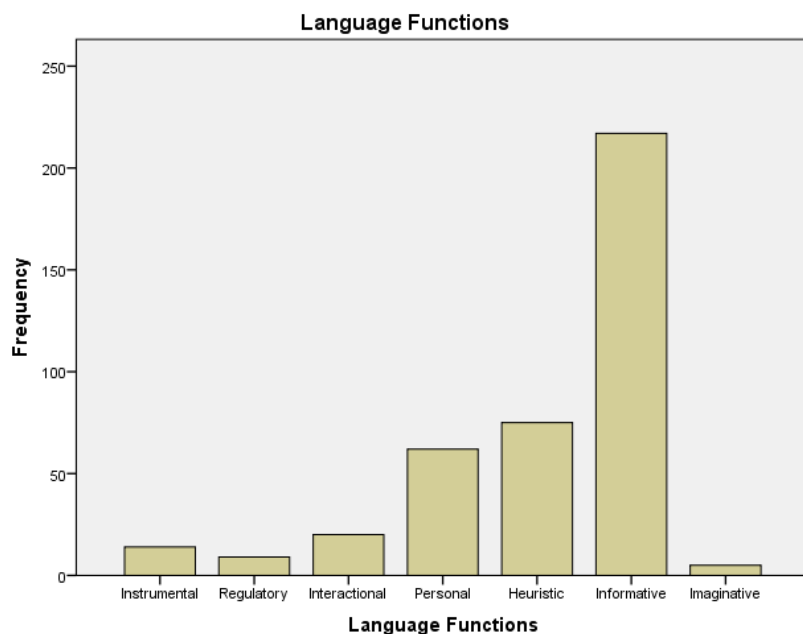


Figure 4 Bar Graph of the Frequency of the Language Functions in the Interchange Series

Q4. How frequently are social context elements used in these four series?

After codifying the social context elements, the frequency of these elements was checked. The following tables (4.13, 4.14, 4.15 and 4.16) show the pertaining results.

Table 4.13. Frequency and Percentage of the Social Elements in the Four Corner Series

<i>Social Context</i>		<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>	<i>Cumulative Percent</i>
Valid	Face to Face	18	20.9	20.9
	Phone Call	4	4.7	25.6
	Specialized	3	3.5	29.1
	Non-Specialized	29	33.7	62.8
	Formal	4	4.7	67.4
	Informal	28	32.6	100.0
	Total	86	100.0	

According to Table 4.13, 20.9% of the total percentage of the social elements in the Four Corner series refers to face to face, 4.7% to phone call, 3.5% to specialized, 33.7% to non-specialized 4.7% to formal, and 32.6% to informal. The following bar graph (Figure 5) better depicts the results.

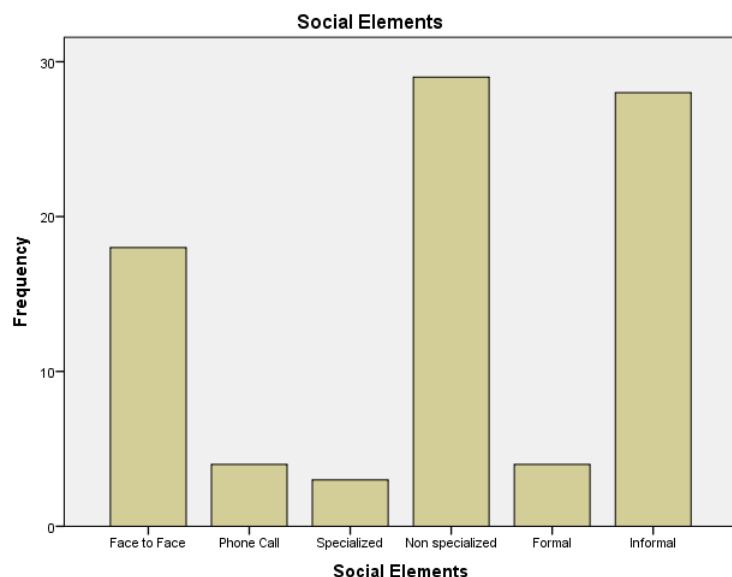


Figure 5 Bar Graph of the Frequency of the Social Context Elements in the Interchange Series

Table 4.14. Frequency and Percentage of the Social Elements in the Top Notch Series

<i>Social Context</i>		<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>	<i>Cumulative Percent</i>
Valid	Face to face	32	32.3	32.3
	Phone call	1	1.0	33.3
	Specialized	4	4.0	37.4
	Non-specialized	28	28.3	65.7
	Formal	11	11.1	76.8
	Informal	23	23.2	100.0
Total		99	100.0	

As the findings in Table 4.14 show, 32.3% of the whole percentage of the social elements used in the conversations in the Top Notch series refer to face to face, 1% to phone call, 4% to specialized, 28.3% to non-specialized, 11.1% to formal, and 23.2% to informal. To provide a clearer image, Figure 6 shows the frequencies.

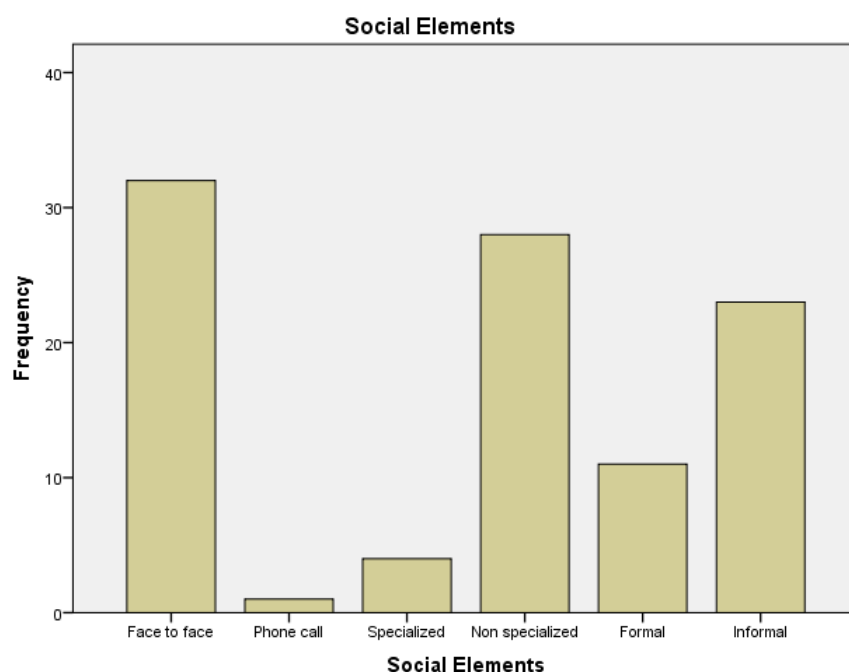


Figure 6 Bar Graph of the Frequency of the Social Context Elements in the Top Notch Series

Table 4.15. Frequency and Percentage of the Social Elements in the ILI Books

<i>Social Context</i>		<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Valid Percent</i>	<i>Cumulative Percent</i>
Valid	Face to face	15	31.3	31.3
	Phone call	1	2.1	33.3
	Non-specialize	16	33.3	66.7
	Formal	2	4.2	70.8
	Informal	14	29.2	100.0
	Total	48	100.0	

Based on the information depicted in Table 4.15, 31.3% of the whole percentage of the social elements refers to face to face, 2.1% to phone call, 33.3% to non-specialized, 4.2% to formal, and 29.2% to informal. No specialized social element is used in the conversations of the ILI books. Figure 7 depicts the frequencies.

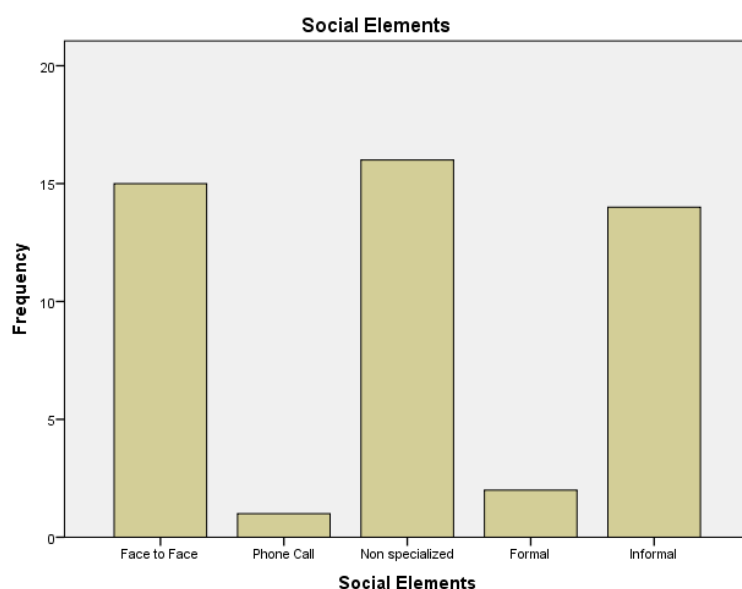


Figure 7 Bar Graph of the Frequency of the Social Context Elements in the ILI Books

Table 4.16. Frequency and Percentage of the Social Elements in the Interchange Series

<i>Social Context</i>		<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>	<i>Cumulative Percent</i>
Valid	Face to face	28	29.2	29.2
	Phonecall	4	4.2	33.3
	Specialized	4	4.2	37.5
	Non specialized	28	29.2	66.7
	Formal	4	4.2	70.8
	Informal	28	29.2	100.0
	Total	96	100.0	

Concerning the social elements included in the conversations of the Interchange series, Table 4.16 shows that 29.2% refers to face to face, 33.3% to phone call, 37.5% to specialized, 29.2% to non-specialized, 4.2% to formal, and 29.2% to informal. The following bar graph (Figure 8) depicts the results.

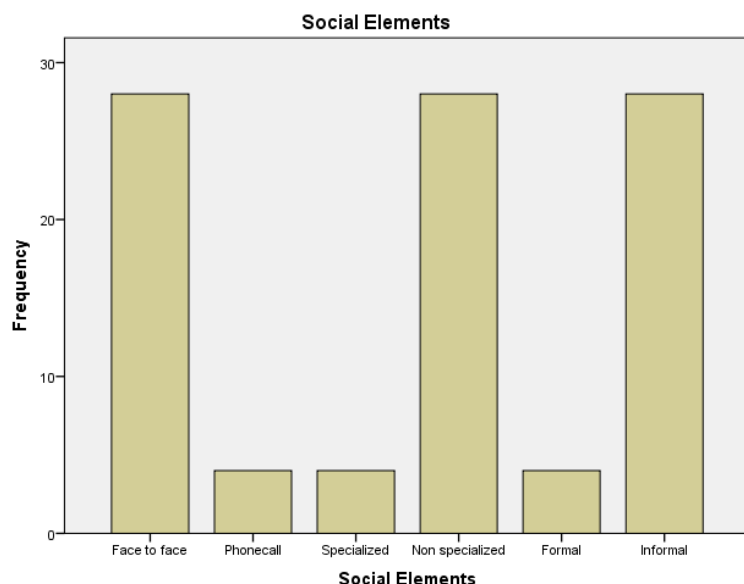


Figure 8 Bar Graph of the Frequency of the Social Context Elements in the Interchange Series

Q5. Are there any significant differences in the frequency of language functions and social elements presented in the conversations included in the book series analyzed?

To investigate if there are any meaningful differences between the frequency of language functions and social elements presented in the conversations included in the ILI textbooks and other series, Chi-square tests were run. The findings are presented below (Tables 4.17, 4.18, 4.19, 4.20, 4.21 and 4.22).

Table 4.17 Chi-square of the Language Functions (ILI and Four Corner series)

Language Function	ILI Textbook	Four Corner	Chi-square Result	df	Sig.
Instrumental	11	21	13.821*	6	.032
Regulatory	11	21			
Interactional	10	49			
Personal	51	84			
Heuristic	35	104			
Informative	84	228			
Imaginative	0	5			

Table 4.18 Chi-square of Social Elements (ILI and Four Corner series)

Language Function	ILI Textbook	Four Corner	Chi-square Result	df	Sig.
Face to Face	15	18	3.682	5	.596
Phone call	1	4			
Specialized	0	3			
Non specialized	16	29			
Formal	2	4			
Informal	14	28			

As presented by the Table 4.17, there is a significant difference between the frequencies of the language functions in ILI and Four Corner series (sig. =.032). Based on the results presented in Table 4.18, the difference between the frequencies of the social elements included ILI and Four Corner series is not significant (sig. =.596).

Table 4.19 Chi-square of the Language Functions (ILI and Top Notch series)

Language Function	ILI Textbook	Top Notch	Chi-square Result	df	Sig.
Instrumental	11	17	5.507	6	.481
Regulatory	11	13			
Interactional	10	23			
Personal	51	87			
Heuristic	35	66			
Informative	84	109			
Imaginative	0	2			

Table 4.20 Chi-square of Social Elements (ILI and Top Notch series)

Language Function	ILI Textbook	Top Notch	Chi-square Result	df	Sig.
Face to Face	15	32	4.715	5	.452
Phone call	1	1			
Specialized	0	4			
Non specialized	16	28			
Formal	2	11			
Informal	14	23			

As the Table 4.18 shows, there is not any significant difference between the frequencies of the language functions in ILI and Top Notch series (sig. =.481).Based on the information depicted in Table 4.20, the frequencies of the social elements of ILI and Top Notch series are not significantly different (sig. =.452).

Table 4.21 Chi-square of the Language Functions (ILI and Interchange series)

Language Function	ILI Textbook	Interchange	Chi-square Result	df	Sig.
Instrumental	11	14	19.152*	6	.004
Regulatory	11	9			
Interactional	10	20			
Personal	51	62			
Heuristic	35	75			
Informative	84	217			
Imaginative	0	5			

Table 4.22 Chi-square of Social Elements (ILI and Interchange series)

Language Function	ILI Textbook	Interchange	Chi-square Result	df	Sig.
Face to Face	15	28	2.628	5	.757
Phone call	1	4			
Specialized	0	4			
Non specialized	16	28			
Formal	2	4			
Informal	14	28			

According to the results of the Chi-square test (Table 4.21), the difference between the frequencies of the language functions in the conversations of ILI and Interchange series is significant (sig. =.004). The results presented in Table 4.22 show that there is not any significant difference among the frequencies of the social elements presented in the conversations of ILI and Interchange series (sig. =.757).

5. Discussion

In this section, the first focus is on answering the research questions along with some detailed interpretations in line with the results of the study. Then, a comparison between the results of the present study and those of other investigations on textbook evaluation has been made.

Research Question 1

What are the types of language functions presented in the conversations of the four different series under investigation?

Based on the findings presented in the previous chapter, all types of language functions have been used in Four corners series, Top Notch series and Interchange series but in ILI textbooks the imaginative language function has not been used. In other words the instrumental, regulatory, interactional, personal, heuristic and informative language functions are used in all series, and also imaginative language function is used in Four corners series, Top Notch series and Interchange series but it is not observed in ILI textbooks. However, the absence of the imaginative language function in the conversations of these textbooks can be regarded as an important weakness in these textbooks.

According to Halliday (1978), the imaginative function is one of the important and effective functions in the real-life communication which is applied to create a world of one's own or extend one's own environment for humorous esthetic purposes such as telling jokes. The conversations in ILI textbooks are communicatively and functionally powerful. The significance of the imaginative function is revealed in the moments of thinking, assuming, remembering, telling jokes, problem-solving, doing puzzles, playing tongue twisters, inventing, painting, doing artistic things, and many other activities one does in everyday life.

Research Question 2

What are the types of social context elements used to provide appropriate contexts for language functions in such conversations?

As the analysis of findings in chapter four indicate, all types of social context elements i.e. face to face, phone call, specialized language, none specialized language, formal language and informal language have been used in Four Corners series, Top Notch series and Interchange series and in ILI textbooks all social context elements are used except one of them which is specialized language that is another weakness of ILI textbooks.

With regard to what Cutting (2002) states, a good conversation takes all the felicity conditions or the real context and the roles of participants into account. Therefore, it can be concluded that one of these conditions or contexts in real-life situations deals with those contexts in which specialized language is used. ILI textbooks lack these contexts in their conversation sections.

Research Question 3

How frequently each language function is presented in these four different series?

In pragmatics, to know the frequency of language functions is so crucial that it may change the viewpoints towards textbooks and put them under the limelight of total judgment and overall evaluation. One of the main focuses of the present study is to know the frequency of these pragmatic variables, i.e. language functions, in the conversations of Four Corners series, Top Notch series, Interchange series and ILI textbooks. In fact, it is the frequency of these language functions that reveals the main part of the answer to the most important research question of the present study, i.e. Research Question 5, which will be discussed later.

The findings illustrated that there is no imaginative function in the conversations of ILI textbooks. Therefore, the frequency and percentage for this function is zero, which is a significant shortcoming of these books. However, imaginative function is present in Four Corners series, Top Notch series and Interchange series with a low frequency, i.e. the percentage of this function in these books are 1 in Four Corners in, .6 in TOP Notch and 1.5 in Interchange series. Regarding the percentage of language functions, the informative function has the highest frequency and percentage in all four series, and imaginative function has the lowest frequency in all four series. Looking at overall tables in these four textbooks, one can recognize the unequal distribution of these seven language functions.

Frequencies and percentages of language functions are revealed fluctuations in the presentation of these pragmatic variables in the conversations. According to Halliday (1978), a good conversation consists of all the language functions with an equal distribution throughout the textbook. In other words, real conversations in real-life situation contain all of the Halliday's (1978) language functions. Although in many cases of real communications and authentic conversations, there exist restricted types of language functions and perhaps there would be no need to apply all their types, a good textbook must include conversations containing all types of these language functions distributed

equally throughout the conversations of the book so as to make learners pragmatically competent in their speaking performance.

Research Question 4

How frequently social context elements are used in these four series?

A good text book should contain different conversations with the equal distribution of social context elements which are mentioned before i.e. phone call and face to face conversations, formal and informal conversations and also conversation with specialized and non specialized language.

Results of the analyses made it clear that specialized language is not used in any of conversations of ILI text books; another token of weakness in light of materials development regarding the ILI textbooks. In the other series specialized language is of very low frequency, too. Furthermore, the frequency and percentage of phone call is lower than other elements.

Since textbooks are simply expected to prepare learners to be able to get involved in communicative activities in a variety of contexts, we can conclude that the lack or low percentage of some of these elements can be of negative effect on the efficiency of ELT materials.

Research Question 5

Are there any significant differences between the frequency of language functions and social context elements presented in the conversations in the book series developed abroad and those in the ILI series?

To be regarded as pragmatically competent, the conversations in these four textbooks must include all types of language functions and social context elements which are all used in the real-life communications. Besides, these language functions and social context elements must be used and distributed among the conversations in such a systematic way that when being read, studied, and practiced, all types of them can be recognized in learners' speaking performance.

According to the points discussed in the previous research questions with regard to the types and the frequency of language functions and social context elements in the conversations, it is revealed that ILI textbooks as the materials which were published in Iran in comparing with those which were developed abroad have several shortcomings, such as lack of imaginative language function and also lack of specialized language in the conversations of intermediate and upper intermediate levels. The other difference that I can mention here is that ILI textbooks have no conversations in advanced levels, that it can be one of the most important problems in these books since language learners in each level or age that are, need to practice enough conversations to be familiarized with different situations which they may encounter in their real life.

One positive point that Top Notch series have, is that they have two different forms of conversations in each unit, some of them are authentic and the rest are unreal conversations. The other point which I should be mentioned is that the frequency of conversations in Top Notch series are more than the other books that were analyzed in this study.

One shortcoming that can be referred to all of these textbooks is the inequality and variation in the distribution of both language functions and social context elements. In other words, not only must all types of these Halliday's (1978) language functions and social context elements be present in the conversations of the books, but also they must be distributed equally and at the same frequency or percentage among all of the conversations.

Furthermore, with regard to what Guerin (2004) states in terms of the type of sampling and the criterion for this sample to be analyzed, this equality in the distribution of language functions and social context elements must be on the basis of topical or thematic contexts. These contexts in these textbooks are, actually, in the same line with different units or chapters of the books, each of which deals with a particular and real-life topic or theme. Therefore, these pragmatic variables, i.e. language functions and social context elements, must be distributed equally not only all over the entire conversations of these two books, but also in each of the units, which focuses on a particular and natural theme in everyday life.

Therefore, according to what has been said up to this point, Four Corners, Top Notch, Interchange and ILI textbooks, have significant problems with regard to the pragmatic dimension. Lack of imaginative function and specialized language in ILI textbook and low frequency of them in the other series, and also low frequency of phone call and formal conversations in total conversations are among the problems with regard to this research.

5. Conclusions

The purpose of the present study was to evaluate the efficiency of Top Notch series, Four Corners series, Interchange series and ILI textbooks as EFL materials for Iranian learners of English by examining the conversation sections of these textbooks from a pragmatic point of view. The main reason for performing such a research was that so little has been done in evaluating the efficiency of textbooks and EFL materials among language institutes in Iran, especially in terms of fulfilling learners' communicative needs or as Austin (1962) put, in terms of helping learners of English do things with words.

According to the research questions stated before, assessing textbooks that appear efficacious on the surface and are used frequently here and there just on the basis of a vague perception of the people about them becomes necessary for those who are making these choices. Four Corners series, Top Notch series, Interchange series and ILI textbooks which are the focus of the present study, are also in the same vein. In other words, since Top Notch series and Four corners are new or newly arrived textbooks, they have become so popular in the context of Iran and those who choose to start learning English through these two series mention just one main reason for their choice, and that is their novelty, and the learners who choose to study Interchange series believe that it is one of the most suitable book in the market and they have been taught in different institutes in Iran from about one decade ago or more, but this story about ILI institutes is a little different since this institute itself claims that it has the most number of learners in Iran and no institute or textbook can compete with it regarding learning and teaching English, so a lot of English learners because of this claim are eager to study in Iran Language Institutes. Therefore, this study was so curious to know about the pragmatic nature of these textbooks and started its work from analyzing the conversations of Intermediate and advance levels of four textbooks, i.e. Top Notch series, Four Corners series, Interchange series and ILI textbooks, so as to illustrate how the conversation sections of these textbooks provide the learners with adequate communicatively and pragmatically appropriate information.

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TEST FORM AND ESP: A STUDY OF IRANIAN UNDERGRADUATE BUSINESS MANAGEMENT STUDENT'S TRANSLATION SCORES

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ABSTRACT

Testing or formal assessment, always have been considered as the usual means of measuring learners' achievements in a foreign language. New requirements to proficiency in ESP suggest developing various ways of evaluating learner's performance. The integration of innovative assessment into the English classes increases learners' motivation in perfecting language skills throughout the academic year. It is believed that the form of the test might be a facilitating or debilitating factor which affects the testis performance. In the ESP course, teachers can actually get a lot of assessment done during the course. This study was conducted to investigate test form an Esp.: a study of Iranian undergraduate Business management student's translation scores. Two types of translation tests were used to collect data (multiple choice test and text translation). After collecting data, the result showed that multiple choice format of the test improved that participant's performance is better than the translation the text.

Keywords: ESP., Test format, Learner's performance, Translation

1. Introduction

Masaryk (2007) as a teacher has spoken about his students that they had translation as a practicing and testing device since the fourth grade and they are quite successful. They usually translate from English into Czech in a written way and from English into Czech orally just to check they understood well. On the contrary, they are more successful at completing multiple choice items as they may also guess and it is probably easier work for them. He found out many times that the students are able to choose the correct answer within the sentence but even a short time after if they are asked to say or write the whole sentence in English without being allowed to see it in the test, they frequently make many mistakes. That is the reason why he has decided to investigate how this process will turn out in other classes. The researcher has expected quite high scores in both testing means which were used: Multiple choice tests and Translation. The researcher would like to prove that the translation method is a very useful kind of testing because it shows more about students' knowledge and their ability to apply the language than multiple choice tests. That is why the students will achieve a higher score in multiple choice tests than in creating their own complete sentences, they simply may guess in the first case. He concluded that, the students who fill the multiple choice test firstly and the translation after, will reach a higher score than the students who will do it the opposite way. They may remember the sentence constructions from the test or they just remind the grammar issues, which helps them in the translation.

2. Review of literature

Some theoretical justification and framework for translation is recommended to be used for specific purposes. Some issues about ESP, ESP testing and evaluation are mentioning here. Horst Frenz emphasized translation that translation is neither a creative art nor an imitative art, but stands somewhere between the two. This emphasis on terminological debate in English points again to the problematic of English Translation Studies, in which a value system underlies the choice of term.

2.1. Translation and translation studies

We should pay attention to some changes in translation studies changes from formalist approach to extra

-Textual factors. Focus is on faithfulness in translation. A translation study was based on linguistics and comparative literature. We consider the power of translation, transferring of one context to the other. Hans Vermeer, Katharina Reif (Rein & Vermeer, 1984) that developed skopos theory. According to this

Theory, the objective function of translation is the reflection of culture. Even Zahra's (1978) claimed that, "cultures translate according to need seems self-evident today, but in its time it was an extremely important statement, for the implications of history of cultural change were enormous". Michael Cronin (2000:150) claimed that, "translators and travelers are the same. They are confronting with different languages with different cultures. The travelers and the translators have the same role, because both of them engage with cultures.

2.2. Experiments on translation competence

Testing process is based on three basic elements: the knowledge of skill, the learner and the teacher. The most important factor is the methodology and translation competence. Also their experience is more important and this is related to their bilingualism. According to Harris (1977), "for many authors a bilingual is a natural translator, because the bilingual, in addition to acquiring competence in both languages also acquires the ability to translate from one language to the other." p.19

According to Dray fuses (1986), "skill in any domain is measured by the performer's ability to act appropriately in situations that might once have been problems but are no longer problems and so do not require analytic reflection." P.156. Communicative competence focused on the system underlying knowledge and skills that is needed for linguistic communication. According to Canale (1983), "a distinction is made between linguistic, discourse and social- linguistic component. By evaluating translation competence we mean evaluating production and evaluating the product. It is based on the decision-making and revision of the production process. The aim of evaluating of a text can be to assess the suitability of the text for its intended reader and use or to evaluate language competence. We can use it for determine the levels of intercultural awareness or to identify the level and types of translation competence. According to Bell (1991:43), "Translation competence is considered as the knowledge and skills the translator must possess in order to carry out a translation." Hurtado Albir claimed that, "Translation competence is considered as the ability to transferring from comprehension of the source text to re expression of the target text."

2.3. Teaching and testing translation

Volosinov (1973:105) claimed that, "no utterance can be put together without value judgment. Every utterance is above all on evaluative orientation. Therefore, each element in a living utterance not only has a meaning but also has a value." Volsinove claimed that, "evaluation is not limited to only a word, nor even to a comment on the propositional content" p.11 Evaluation exists in every form of communication -in the form of the word in intonation of speech, in the form of genre, and in form of language and dialect. Lemke (1989:39) following Bakhtin claimed that, "texts construct putative models of their addressees and of the discourse world of competing voices in which they are to be heard." White and Thomson (2008:11) claimed that, "it is a feature of attitudinal invocations /tokens that they are typically conditional by the co-text and will often are subject to the beliefs, attitudes and expectations the reader brings to their interpretation of the text." Torrance (1995) claimed that, "assessment experts have for the past couple of decades recognized and argued in favor of assessment as an essential component to learning". Farahzad (1992) stated that, "researchers seek to develop models that provide the instructor's need in evaluating student's translations and try to

minimize the gap between translation theory and practice.” Khodabakhshi states, teachers should tend to adopt the most suitable teaching methodologies in their classes to "put what they have elicited from their students in to practice"(Khodabakhshi, 2009). Translation teaching and testing are no exceptions. A suitable test to assess translation students' knowledge lets the instructor select the best way of teaching in translation classes (Heaton, 1990)

3. Research Question and Hypothesis

This study tries to answer the following question:

1. Is there any relationship between management student's English test format and their performance on the translation test?

Due to the formational discussion and research questions cited above, the following

Research question could be developed.

1. There is relationship between management student's English test format and their performance on the translation test.

4. Methodology

The purpose of this study is to find out the effectiveness of translation test types on management of female student's performance through a multiple choice test and one selected test to be translated. This chapter is organized based on the methodology and design of it. The first section will explain about theme and the hypothesis of this study. Then the theoretical framework applied by the researcher, the aim and how the study will be conducted. The second section of this study will be about the samples, participants or subjects to help the study to be conducted. In this section, the researcher will explain about the number of the participants, their characteristics and how they were chosen by the researchers. The third section of this study will explain about the materials in order to collecting data that will developed to test the hypothesis of this study. This part will provide enough details about the study. The forth section will be included the all procedures and it will summarize all steps that are considered in data collection from the two groups in details. This section is included two subsections that are scoring procedure and ethical consideration. The last section is concluded the methods of data analysis, it will describe the data gathering procedures from the sample and by means of which statistical method will be analyzed.

4.1. Participant

For this study 50 management students were selected. All of these students were selected from the Rahbord Shomal University in Rasht. These students divided in to two groups. Both of them were 25. The purpose of this study is to investigate the effectiveness of these two types of tests on two different groups. All of these students passed the texts that were selected for choosing related sentences and one paragraph for translation. Students were selected randomly among management students of this university. A very important issue in conducting this study was that the researcher could not force students to be a part of her population of the study. Therefore, she should have relied on the professor's help and because the study was based on two types of tests, multiple choice tests and translation text, all the students were not ready to translate the text because it was more difficult than choosing correct answer in multiple choice tests. So, the researcher wants to express her feeling about their help and inspired students to participate.

4.2. Procedures

The research was conducted in management university (Rahbord Shomal). Participants were 50 BA management students. Students were supposed to pass passages related to their English book. Then they were divided in to two groups: The experimental group (Ne=25) and the control group (NC=25). The participants have passed the English management book. All sentences which were chosen for multiple choice questions (control group) and text for translation was selected for experimental group were chosen from English for students of management book. The researcher selected two groups. Each of them were 25. One group was supposed to answer multiple choice questions and the other one translate the paragraph that was chosen from English for students of management book. The reliability of selected text was estimated in anointer- rater manner. At the start of the session, the multiple choice questions distributed among one group of BA management students and the text for translation dedicated for group two. And a certain amount of time according the length of the text

and number of questions were allocated to students of two groups to answer questions and translate the text individually.

4. 3. Methods of analyzing data

In the present study, the data gathered from two post test (experimental and control group). The data related to the hypothesis, "the test format (multiple choices versus text translation)" affects EFL learner's performance on the English translation test. The result showed that test format affected the performance on the translation test of the two groups. And the internal consistency of this study will be analyzed via applying an independent sample test between the post tests scores of two types of scores of translations in both groups. The logical reason of applying an independent sample t- test is that the difference between means of two types of scores of two groups is vital to this study. So, we can compare the results and evaluate student's translation ability via two types of test.

5. Results and Discussion

The main goal of the present research was to investigate the possible effects of test format (multiple – choice versus translation text) on Iranian management university students' performance on translation test. A total number of sixty-five management students were selected based on their performance on general English test (15 subjects for pilot study and 50 for the main study). Then the participants of the main

Study was randomly divided into two groups each containing twenty-five subjects (one control and one experimental group). Translation text type of test was given to the experimental group while Multiple-choice test was given to the control group. The data gathered through the pretest of general English test and posttest of translation test that was administered in two distinct forms (multiple – choice versus text translation) to the groups. In the analysis stage of this research, the results achieved from the general English test and final translation test were summarized, and the procedures of descriptive statistics (including means, standard deviations, etc.) along with inferential statistics namely independent samples T-tests were run. The parametric Independent samples t-test was run in order to find out if there was any significant difference between the control and experimental groups in terms of their performance on translation test at the end of the study. Before running the main statistical analyses of the present study, normality that is the main assumption of parametric tests was examined for the experimental and control group's distributions as well as the scores given by the two raters. Moreover, the reliability of the researcher- made tests employed in the study including multiple –choice test and translation text were estimated through a pilot study on 15 EFL students who were also selected based on their scores on general English test. In this chapter, the results of the study and their interpretation are presented. The first part of this chapter is specified to the statistical analyses of the study. Then, the findings of the study are discussed in connection with the previous studies mentioned in the literature review.

5.1. Pilot Study

5.1.1 Reliability analysis of the multiple-choice test

The reliability of 20 items of the multiple choice translation tests was approximated through a pilot study on 15 EFL learners. Similar to the main participants of the study, they were selected from among those who had scored within the range of ± 1 SD from the mean score on general English test. Thus, they were representative of the main participants in terms of their general foreign language proficiency. Besides, the indices of reliability were interpreted according to the reliability standards suggested by Barker, Pesting, and Elliott (1994).

The determined value of Cronbach alpha for the multiple- choice translation test equalled .784, which was higher than the minimum required (i.e. .70). The results are presented in Table 4.2.

Table 5.2: Reliability Statistics for the Multiple –Choice Test

Cronbach's Alpha	N	of N of sample
	Items	
Multiple- choice translation test	.784	20 15

5.1.2 Reliability analysis of the translation text test

The reliability of the translation text test was estimated by test- retest method through administering the test to the pilot study group twice and the correlation between these two sets of scores was computed. The total score for each participant on the translation text test was the mean of the two ratters' scores. In using test- retest reliability analysis, the assumption was that no significant change takes place in the examinees' knowledge during the determined interval time between the two administrations since there was a logical amount of time between the two administrations (two weeks). The reliability of the translation text test over time was estimated by computing the correlation coefficient between the two sets of scores obtained from the two administrations of the test to the same group. The coefficient of correlation that was the reliability estimates presented in the following table:

Table 5.3: Correlations between First and Second Administration of Translation Text Test

		Total translation scores (second administration)
Total translation scores (first administration)	Pearson Correlation	.763**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001
	N	15

Cohen's (1988) guidelines were employed to interpret the findings of the Pearson test. Based on this guideline, values between 0.0 and 0.1 show that there is Little or no relationship between X and Y, Values between 0.1 and 0.5 show that X and Y are weakly related, and the correlation indices between 0.5 to 0.9 show that the relationship is strong. Furthermore, the correlation index of (1) shows perfect relationship between the two variables (Cohen, 1988). Thus the results showed that the association between the two administrations of the translation text is relatively high ($r = .763$). Therefore, Table 5.3 showed the results of the Pearson correlation that was run for estimating the reliability index of the translation text test through test- retest method. The value obtained was .763 that showed considerably high correlation between the results of the test on two different administrations.

5.1.3. Inter- Ratter Reliability Analysis of the Translation Text Test

In assessing each learner's translation, two different ratters who were experienced foreign language teachers scored the translation. The consistency of the two ratter's evaluations was tested using correlation analysis that showed a relatively high level of inter-ratter reliability for the translation text test scores in the pilot study. The obtained reliability index for the two ratters was ($r_1 = 0.723$) respectively:

Table 5.4: Correlations between the two ratters' scores (inter- ratter reliability analysis)

		Ratter B
Ratter A	Pearson Correlation	.796**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	15

Table 5.4 depicted the results of the Pearson correlation for the two ratters' scores of the translation text test. The value of correlation coefficient reported amounted to .796 suggesting that there was an actable correlation between the two raters who took part in scoring procedure of the translation text test.

5.2. Main study

5.2.1. Measure of General English

To select homogenous sample, a total number of 65 management EFL learners were selected from among those who scored within the range of $\pm 1SD$ from the mean score in the general English text. Then, 50 of them were selected for the main study and were randomly divided into two groups (one control and one

Experimental). The rest fifteen students participated in the pilot study. Measures of central tendency (mean, median, and mode) and measures of dispersion (range, variance, standard deviation) along with measures of distribution (Skewness and Kurtosis) were presented for the general English test. For the present study, the main sample including 50 homogeneous participants were selected, based on those whose score fell within the range of ± 1 SD from the mean score (14.6458 ± 3.01916 , $14.6458 - 3.01916$). Therefore, a cut-point of (11.62) to (17.66) was set and 65 learners were selected.

5.2.3. Examining the Research Question:

Concerning the first research question, i.e., whether test format (multiple-choice versus text translation) affects EFL learners' performance on the English translation test, an independent sample T-test was run to the results of the final translation tests. It was applied to compare the experimental and control groups in terms of their performance on translation test administered in text type to the experimental group and in a form of multiple-choice test for the control group. The results showed that test format affected the performance on the translation test of the two groups differently ($t=2.79$, $0.007 < .05$). In fact, learners' performance in the control group (Mean = 15.8800) far outweighed that of the experimental group (Mean = 14.4400) in final translation test.

Table 5.7: Statistics For The Control And Experimental Groups' Performance On Final Translation Tests

	groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Final translation scores	experimental	25	14.4400	1.85023	.37005
	control	25	15.8800	1.78699	.35740

Table 5.7 depicted the values of means and standard deviation along with standard error of mean for the two groups on final translation tests. The mean score of the experimental group (mean_{experimental group} = 14.4400) is 1.44 points lower than that of the control group (mean_{control group} = 15.8800).

However, the standard deviation for the experimental group was a little higher than that of the control group ($SD_{\text{experimental group}} = 1.85023$, $SD_{\text{control group}} = 1.78699$).

The independent sample T-test procedure offered two tests of the contrast between the control and experimental groups. The assumption for the first row was that the variances of the two groups were similar. The Levene statistic assessed the fairness of the variances. The significance index of the statistic was .75. Since this value was higher than (.05), it could be assumed that the groups had equal variances and thus the second test was ignored and the findings of the first test (first row) were documented. The results of independent samples t-test for the final translation tests (multiple-choice versus translation text) in tables 5.7, and 5.8 showed that there was a significant difference between the two groups in their performance on final translation test ($\text{sig} = .007$, $p < 0.0$). According to the findings, although the two groups were homogenous in terms of their general foreign language proficiency (as depicted by the results of the general English test), the control group who took multiple-choice form of translation test markedly performed better than the experimental group who attended translation text form on the final test. The results showed that multiple-choice form of translation test had been beneficial in enhancing management students' performance on translation test for the control group and thus the null hypothesis was rejected. In other words, test format (multiple-choice versus text translation) affects management students' performance on the English translation test. The following figure depicts the two groups in final translation test at the end of the study.

6. General Discussion

This study aimed at identifying the effect of two types of translation tests on management student's scores. It investigated according to the effect of these two types of tests (multiple choice test and translation text) on management student's performance. The finding showed that through testing student's ability by two types of tests (multiple choice tests and translating text), they had highest scores when they answered multiple choice test. Additionally, a significant difference was found between these two groups. Of scores regarding student's problems in translation text. The finding showed that students who answered multiple choice questions were more successful in achieving highest scores. One reason can be

Included in preparing all possible choice to answer the related sentence and students could select one of related choice. According to findings, I concluded that there were many problems among students to translate the text. They could select related dictionary and according to the specified time they could translate the text. Enough time was considered in order to translate and in my consideration, other problems like, lack of concentration and having problems related to the context (grammar and finding relevant meaning of the words) made difficulties to translate the text.

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COMPARING THE USE OF PERSUASIVE SPEECH ACT BY IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS' AT TWO DIFFERENT LEVELS OF LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY

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ABSTRACT

The present research was to find out the type of persuasive speech act strategies which Iranian EFL learners at two different proficiency levels use in their L2 productions and to discover whether there are any significant differences between participants' persuasive strategies with respect to their proficiency levels. It was also intended to explore whether gender and EFL learners' uses of persuasive strategies are interrelated. Furthermore, another focus of the study was on the differences, if any, between Iranian students at two different proficiency levels in the use of English and Persian persuasive speech acts. The participants were 80 (40 males and 40 females) Iranian students at Gorgan Islamic Azad University. They were selected from among freshman and senior BA students of English at Gorgan Islamic Azad University, majoring in TEFL. The participants were divided into two groups of low and high proficient learners of English according to their scores in a quick placement test. The data was gathered using Discourse Completion Test (DCT) questionnaires in English and its translated version in Persian. To analyze the data, the frequencies and percentages of the answers, as well as the Chi-Square test were run. Analyzing the results indicated that there was not a significance difference in persuasive strategies used by Iranian students at two levels of proficiency. Another result was that there was not any significant difference between Iranian students' use of English and Persian persuasive speech act at two proficiency levels. The third result was that the differences between freshman males and females persuasive strategies were not significantly different, but senior male and female participants showed some differences in using English persuasive strategies.

Key words: Language Proficiency, Persuasive Speech Act, Pragmatic Competence, Speech Act,

Introduction

Interacting with speakers of other languages and cultures needs linguistic or grammatical competence as well as pragmatic competence or knowledge, this is considered as one of the indispensable parts of language competence. Sociocultural norms and constraints influence individuals' speaking in their first or second language as well as the way of interaction with others. Rizk (2003) cautions the issue of appropriateness of the utterances and asserts that what is perceived as an appropriate utterance or response in one language or culture may not be the exact case in another culture or vice versa. This

highlights the pragmatic dimension of the language competence which is perceived as an essential element of communicative competence (Farashaiyan & Hua, 2012). This study compares the pragmatic competence in performing speech act of persuasion.

The modern study of speech acts begins with Austin's (1962) engaging monograph *How to Do Things with Words*. This widely cited work starts with the observation that certain sorts of sentences, e.g., *I christen this ship the Joseph Stalin*; *I now pronounce you man and wife*; and the like, seem designed to *do* something, here to *christen* and *wed*, respectively, rather than merely to *say* something. Such sentences Austin dubbed '*performatives*', in contrast to what he called '*constatives*', the descriptive sentences that seem, to be employed mainly for saying something rather than doing something. While the distinction between performatives and constatives is often invoked in work on the law, in literary criticism, in political analysis, and in other areas, it is a distinction that Austin argued was not ultimately defensible. The point of Austin's lectures was, in fact, that every normal utterance has both a descriptive and an effective aspect: that saying something is also doing something (Sadock, 2012).

Searle (1969) presents a theory which is a development of the account presented in Austin (1962). Searle claims that four acts are characteristically performed in the utterance of a sentence (p. 24):

- a. Uttering words (morphemes, sentences) = performing utterance acts
- b. Referring and predicating = performing propositional acts
- c. Stating, questioning, commanding, promising etc. = performing illocutionary acts
- d. perlocutionary act.

Correlated with the notion of illocutionary act is the notion of the consequences or effects such acts have on the actions, thoughts or beliefs of hearers. For example, by arguing I may persuade or convince someone; by warning him I may scare or alarm him; by making a request I may get him to do something; by informing him I may convince him, or inspire him.

Today, successful presentation of the speech acts, as an important part of pragmatic competence, in a language demands not only the speaker's linguistic proficiency, but also his/her socio-pragmatic perception of speech acts. However, to perform the speech acts appropriately in both first and second language is very challenging, and the challenges not only stem from the linguistics variations between the languages, but also the variations between cultures (Hassani, Mardani, & Vahid Dastjerdi, 2011).

In intercultural communication, foreign language speakers not only should acquire grammatical competence to achieve linguistic accuracy, but also need to internalize sociolinguistic rules to help them use appropriate linguistic forms (Yi Shih, 2006). Students, as foreign language speakers, must be able to carry out some communicative tasks to progressively develop their communicative competence. These form a set of actions that have a concrete communicative purpose within a specific scope. For their accomplishment, different linguistic and discursive skills are used in contexts.

Robin Lakoff (1982) defined persuasion as the 'attempt or intention of one party to change the behavior, feelings, intentions, or viewpoint of another by communicative means' (p. 32). Therefore, advertising, propaganda, political oratory, court language and religious sermons are examples of persuasive discourse; however, persuasion can also be used in daily interactions. Persuasion, according to Searle (1969), is regarded as a directive speech act in which the speaker's intention is to make the hearers to commit him or herself to perform some form of action; in other words, persuasion is an attempt of speaker to match the world with his/her words (Bu, 2010, cited in Pishghadam & Rasouli, 2011). In this sense, Iranian might have different perceptions for how this speech act should be conducted. The present study is designed to discover the pragmatic knowledge of persuasive speech act of Iranian EFL learners to see if males and females use this speech act in the same way at two proficiency level.

Review of Literature

The study of Bu (2010) investigated pragmatic transfer in persuasion strategies by Chinese learners of English. The subjects of the study included ten native English speakers, ten Chinese learners of English, and ten native Chinese speakers. All of them were university students. The data was collected by means of a discourse complete test questionnaire. The Chi-square test was used to compare frequencies of the use of persuasion strategies by the Chinese learner of English, the native English group and the native Chinese group. Results indicated that although all three groups used complaint strategy most frequently and opting out strategy least frequently, the Chinese learner of English group displayed advice/suggestion/recommendation strategy more frequently than the

native English group. The Chinese learner of English group also used opinion-proving strategy less frequently than the native English group and never used consolation/ condolence strategy. Such pragmatic transfer was transferred from Chinese culture and Chinese thinking pattern, which provided pedagogical implication for language teachers to develop Chinese students' English pragmatic competence.

The study of Hardin (2010) examined the types of speech acts produced by intermediate Spanish learners as well as their selection of pragmalinguistic forms to communicate these acts. In contrast to much of the research on speech acts and pragmatics in interlanguage which has emphasized learner errors in comparison to native speakers, this study primarily examined what learners were able to produce, and it did so in the specific context of persuasive discourse. The college students in this investigation responded orally to two situations that involved an attempt to get a lazy spouse to do some work and to offer advice for finding a new girlfriend after a break-up. The student monologues in the first situation were compared with those of five native speakers to determine similarities and differences in preference for and production of speech acts. The results supported existing second language acquisition research on pragmatic developmental patterns and suggested some principal lexical and pragmatic learner strategies for speech act production. Moreover, he analyzed speech act realization as it pertained to three goals of persuasive discourse, thereby demonstrating how this subset of intermediate learners was beginning to understand the use of certain constructs to persuade in Spanish.

The study of Pishghadam and Rasouli (2011 a) aimed to investigate the application of persuasive strategies among Iranian learners of English as a foreign language. 150 Iranian English learners took part in this study. The data were collected by means of a discourse completion test (DCT) consisting of 6 questions similar to real life persuasive situations. The Chi-square test was applied to compare the frequencies of persuasion strategies' application among Iranian EFL learners. Moreover, the influence of gender on the preference of persuasive strategies by respondents was discussed. Results demonstrated some differences and similarities in utilization of this speech act by male and female Iranian learners. Finally, the results were discussed in the context of language teaching and learning.

Another study of Pishghadam and Rasouli (2011 b) aimed to recast the issue of production of speech act of persuasion in English and Persian languages. This study first attempted to analyze the types of persuasive strategies used in English and Persian. To this end, 184 Persian speakers and native speakers of English participated in this study. The participants of this study were all university students. The data was collected by means of a discourse completion test (DCT). The questionnaire consists of 6 items in different contexts close to real life persuasive situations. Chi-square test was used to analyze the data. The participants' responses were analyzed, and the influences of gender and culture on the speech act of persuasion were discussed. Results indicated some differences and similarities between Persian and English native speakers in the employment of this speech act which provided some pedagogical solution to pragmatic difficulties of English language learners in classrooms and their miscommunications in general.

The study of Lykke (2013) presented the concept of persuasive technology and investigated persuasive principles as a means to guide users and improve their understanding and use of information organization and search features. The assumption was that persuasive principles can be used in information retrieval to enable particular searching behaviors by making them simpler, easier, and thus more attractive to the user. The analysis was based on a case study approach. Persuasive principles were analyzed and compared to features at the public portal that provided information and services for entrepreneurs and growth businesses. The analysis showed that persuasive principles of *tailoring*, *reduction*, and *tunnelling* may ease complex query formulation through simplifying the user-system interaction. The principles *suggestion* and *monitoring* might be used to inform and encourage the user to take advantage of system features.

Research Questions

The present study attempts to find answers to the following questions:

- 1) Do EFL students at two different levels of language proficiency enjoy different pragmatic knowledge of persuasive speech act?
- 2) Is there any significant difference between Iranian students' use of English and Persian persuasive speech acts at two different proficiency levels?

- 3) Is there any significant difference between male and female EFL learners' use of persuasive pragmatic knowledge at two different language proficiency levels?

Methodology

Participants

A population of 80 students including 40 females and 40 males in the first and fourth year of university at BA level studying English at Gorgan Islamic Azad University, Iran, participated voluntarily in the study. The rationale behind choosing freshman and senior BA students as a source of data collection was their heterogeneity in terms of their academic and linguistic experiences. The participants in the present study were also heterogeneous with respect to their gender.

Instruments

The data was collected via a language proficiency test (Oxford Placement Test) by Oxford University Press and the University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate as a widely recognized reliable and valid test. It has been pretested and validated by more than 19,000 students in 6 countries to determine proficiency levels of university participants. Another instrument was a discourse completion test (DCT) including 6 situations in both Persian and English, in which the participants wrote what they thought they would say in persuasive situations. The participants responded to 6 persuasive situations in which power relationship among them was distributed differently; for instance, the hearer is either of a lower status (+power), or the interlocutor were of equal status (=power), or the hearer was of a higher status (-power) (Pishghadam & Rasouli, 2011a). In addition, the participants were asked to fill out the same DCT translated into Persian at the same time. It was designed for the comparison of Iranian students' use of English and Persian persuasive speech acts. It is worth mentioning that in translating DCT, some minor modifications were made to make the questionnaire appropriate for the Iranian context (Pishghadam & Rasouli, 2011b). It is worth mentioning that the discourse completion test was previously piloted and it showed a high level of reliability and validity.

Procedure

Before filling out the questionnaire, the purposes of the study were explained to the participants, so they were encouraged to take part in this research. All 80 students were then volunteer to participate in the study. Then, a language proficiency test (Oxford Placement Test) was administered to ensure students in the first and those in fourth year of university were homogeneous separately, and if the freshman and senior groups belong to different proficiency levels. Then, the English and Persian questionnaires were given to the participants at the same time. The participants had about a 45-minute allocated time to answer the questions. They were ensured that their responses would be kept confidential.

To analyze the data gathered from the participants, a particular coding scheme, the Cross Cultural Speech Act Realization Project (CCSARP) was used, which is a universally valid scale of directness and subsequently empirically tested, and it was used by many researchers (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984, as cited in Pishghadam & Rasouli, 2011 b).

The CCSARP is classified in three categories: directness level, internal modification and external modification. The focus of this study was directness level of persuasive strategies which could be classified as nine-point scale: Mood, Performatives, Hedge performatives, Obligation statement, Want statement, Suggestory formulae, Query preparatory, Strong hints and Mild hints. This coding scheme consists of direct level, conventionally indirect level and non-conventionally indirect level (Pishghadam, & Rasouli, 2011 b).

a. Direct Level

- *Mood derivable*: Imperatives are the dominant forms of utterances of this type. For example, *lend me the pen*.
- *Performatives*: are utterances in which the illocutionary force is used in them explicitly. For example, *leave me alone*.
- *Hedge performatives*: are utterances in which the illocutionary force is softening by the use of hedging expressions. For example, *I would like to ask you to leave me alone*.

- *Obligation statements*: are utterances in which obligation is imposed by the speaker to the hearer to perform the act. For example, *You should come back early.*
- *Want statements*: are utterances which include the speaker's needs, desires, wishes, and demands. For example, *If you let me do this thing, I can do it better.*

b. Conventionally Indirect Level

- *Suggestory formulae*: These utterances use the formulae to suggest the hearer to perform something. For example, *How about going cinema tonight? Or let's do it in this way?*
- *Query preparatory*: This category includes the interrogative or an interrogative conditional form. For example, *Would you mind closing the door?*

C. Non-Conventionally Indirect Level

- *Strong hints*: Utterances which make partial reference to the act or may indicate reason or support for the desired act. For example, *The game is boring.*
- *Mild hints*: utterances which make no reference to the desired act but it is inferred by the context. For example, *Are you busy?*

After collecting the data, responses were analyzed quantitatively based on the CCSARP nine-rating scale. The unit of analysis was the head act of utterance or sequence of utterances.

Results

In order to place the first and fourth (senior and junior) year BA students of English participants in two levels of proficiency and ensure that they are homogenous in their groups, the participants took a proficiency test. Running a One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test showed the homogeneity among first and fourth year learners. Table 1 indicates the result of this test for first year learners.

Table 1. The Results of One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test for Freshman Learners

		Number
N		40
Normal Parameters	Mean	39.88
	Std. Deviation	4.636
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.123
	Positive	.123
	Negative	-.090
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		.780
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.577

As Table 1 shows, the first year participants were homogenous as $\text{Sig} > 0.05$. Running a One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test also showed the homogeneity among fourth-year learners. Table 2 indicates the result of this test for fourth-year learners.

Table 2. The Results of One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test for Senior Learners

		Number
N		40
Normal Parameters	Mean	45.10
	Std. Deviation	3.233
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.097
	Positive	.067
	Negative	-.097
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		.611
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.849

As Table 2 shows, the fourth-year participants also were homogenous as $\text{Sig} > 0.05$. The next step was to ensure that participants were significantly different in two groups regarding their language proficiency. So a *t*-test was run. Table 3 shows the descriptive statistics of the participant's proficiency test scores.

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics on the Proficiency Test Scores

	Learners	Number	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
	First year	40	45.10	3.233	.511
	Fourth year	40	39.88	4.636	.733

According to Table 3, the mean score of fourth-year learners was 45.10, and this was 39.88 for first-year participants. Table 4 indicates the results of *t*-test for two groups of participants.

Table 4. t-test to Show the Difference between Two Groups of Learners

		Levine's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Number	Equal variances assumed	7.829	.006	5.846	78	.000	5.225	.894	3.446	7.004
	Equal variances not assumed			5.846	69.672	.000	5.225	.894	3.442	7.008

Table 4 shows that the difference between two groups of participants was significant, as sig=0.000.

The First Research Question

The first research question was to investigate whether EFL students at two different proficiency levels enjoyed the same pragmatic knowledge of persuasive speech act. To find the answer to this question; the data were collected by using English Discourse Completion Test. Then they were classified according to CCSARP (Cross Cultural Speech Act Realization Project) nine-rating scale, which was a universally valid scale of directness and subsequently empirically tested and vastly used by many researchers (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984, as cited in Pishghadam & Rasouli, 2011 b). The unit of analysis was head act of utterance or sequence of utterances. The data then were entered into SPSS for analyzing the frequency of the responses. After computing frequencies and percentages, the data was analyzed by using Chi-square test. Table 5 illustrates the results of Chi-Square test for the first question.

Table 5. The Results of Chi-Square Test for Two Groups of Learners

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	7.847 ^a	8	.449
Likelihood Ratio	8.678	8	.370
Linear-by-Linear Association	2.266	1	.132

N of Valid Cases	462		
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As it is indicated, there is not a significant association between types of persuasive strategies and the participants' levels of proficiency. Therefore, this result retains our first hypothesis that EFL students at two different proficiency levels enjoy the same pragmatic knowledge of persuasive speech act.

The Second Research Question

The second research question was to investigate whether there is any significant difference between Iranian students' use of English and Persian persuasive speech act at two different proficiency levels.

In order to do this, a Chi-square test was run. Table 6 illustrates the results of Chi-Square test for the second research question.

Table 6. Relationship between Freshman Learners' English and Persian Productions

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	7.006 ^a	8	.536
Likelihood Ratio	7.815	8	.452
Linear-by-Linear Association	.139	1	.709
N of Valid Cases	459		

As Table 6 shows, there is not any significant difference between Iranian students' use of English and Persian persuasive speech act at low proficiency level, as Sig>0.05. Table 7 shows the result of Chi-square test for the second group of participants.

Table 7. Relationship between Senior Learners' English and Persian Productions

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	4.849 ^a	8	.774
Likelihood Ratio	6.010	8	.646
Linear-by-Linear Association	.035	1	.851
N of Valid Cases	472		

As Table 7 shows, there is not any significant difference between Iranian students' use of English and Persian persuasive speech act at high proficiency level, as Sig>0.05. Therefore, this result retains the second research hypothesis that there is not any significant difference between Iranian students at two different proficiency levels in the use of English and Persian persuasive speech acts.

The Third Research Question

The third research question was to investigate the differences, if any, between male and female freshman and senior EFL learners' use of persuasive pragmatic knowledge at two different proficiency levels. Table 8 shows the results of Chi-square test for the third research question.

Table 8. The Result of Chi-Square Test for Strategies Used by Freshmen Considering Gender

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	8.464 ^a	8	.390
Likelihood Ratio	10.449	8	.235
Linear-by-Linear Association	.221	1	.638

N of Valid Cases	228		
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As Chi-Square test result shows, the differences between freshman males and females' persuasive strategies were not significantly different.

Table 9 shows the results of Chi-Square test for high-level participants.

Table 9. The Result of Chi-Square Test for Strategies Used by Seniors Considering Gender

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	25.211 ^a	7	.001
Likelihood Ratio	28.171	7	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.383	1	.240
N of Valid Cases	233		

As Chi-Square test results show, senior males and females differences in using persuasive strategies were significantly different, as $\text{sig}=0.001<0.05$. Therefore, the third research hypothesis stating that there is a significant difference between male and female EFL learners at high proficiency level in the use of persuasive pragmatic knowledge is retained while for the low proficiency level, the differences between male and females' use of persuasive strategies were not significantly different.

Discussion

The first hypothesis, which was retained, was that EFL students at two different proficiency levels enjoy the same pragmatic knowledge of persuasive speech act. The results of this study were not in line with Keshmiri's (1999) study. He investigated the effect of proficiency level on the interpretation of conversational implicatures by Iranian and American students. Analysis of the results indicated that more proficient participants interpreted the implicatures included in the test significantly better than the less proficient ones. He also found that not all types of implicatures had equal difficulty, even for American NS participants, and even NSs differed in their ability to interpret at least some types of implicatures.

The result of the present research was in line with the study of Farashaiyan and Hua (2012). They found that there was not a significant difference between seniors and freshmen performances regarding their pragmatic knowledge. It was found that there is not a positive and significant relationship between language proficiency and the pragmatic knowledge. In addition, it was also revealed that the difference between the three groups of language proficiency (high, mid and low) in terms of their pragmatic knowledge was not significant. In other words, the learners with different proficiency levels did not perform differently in the pragmatic test.

The second hypothesis stated that there is not any significant difference between Iranian students at two different proficiency levels in the use of English and Persian persuasive speech acts.

The results of the study of Eslami-rasekh (1993) for the distribution of main request strategy types, clearly showed that the Persian speakers were more direct compared to American speakers. Her findings indicated that Modern Persian shared with English a rich repertoire of requesting strategies which was fully exploited in actual use. Yet, if viewed from a cross-cultural perspective, the general level of directness in Persian speaking society was relatively high. This difference in directness level did not necessarily imply that the speakers of one language were more polite than the speakers of the other language. There was evidence to suggest that indirectness and politeness were not necessary correlates of each other universally or for any given culture (Blum-Kulka, 1987).

Our study supports Wannaruk (2008) in which the two groups shared most of the speech act strategies. Also, our study findings are in line with Liu and Zhao (2007) who considered modals as one of the most frequent strategies by both natives and EFL learners. This might be related to the pedagogical materials employed in Iran, because English teaching books teach these strategies directly (Jiang, 2006). Additionally, they can be considered as universal forms which are utilized in the Persian language, which can be transferred positively.

Findings of the study of Pishghadam and Rasouli (2011 a) revealed that generally the most dominant strategy for EFL learners was Query preparatory which was the conventionally indirect strategy type, which was represented by interrogative or an interrogative –conditional form.

Findings of this study also confirmed previous findings in Persian (Pishghadam & Rasouli, 2011 b). In Pishghadam and Rasouli's study, although, both groups, English and Persian speakers, utilized all the persuasive strategies, they differed in their frequencies, Persian speakers utilized Query preparatory and Mood derivable and Mild hint as the most preferred strategies whereas in English Want statement and Hedge-performatives regarded as the most dominant strategies.

The third hypothesis stated that there was a significant difference between senior male and female EFL learners in the use of persuasive pragmatic knowledge. A multitude of studies on language and gender have been devoted to identifying, and trying to explain, differences in the speech styles of men and women. One of the main differences has been found in the area of linguistic politeness. In one of the most comprehensive bodies of evidence to date, Holmes (1995) characterises women's speech as more polite than men's. Such a characterisation stems from her own and others' work on language and gender over the past three decades, according to which women are more likely than men to express positive politeness and to use mitigating strategies to avoid or minimise threatening their interlocutors' face. For example, women tend to interrupt less in conversation and "to be more attentive listeners, concerned to ensure others get a chance to contribute" than men (p. 67). They also interpret and use certain speech acts differently to men. For instance, not only do women use more apologies than men but their apologies serve more often than men's "as remedies for space and talk offences – areas of interaction where women are particularly vulnerable and where they may have developed a greater sensitivity" (p. 185, cited in Lorenzo-Dus & Bou-Franch, 2003).

Conclusion

One related issue to the above findings to consider in the interpretation of observed pragmatic similarities between two languages in linguistic behavior may seem to be a confirmation of the universality of politeness as a mutual face-saving strategy proposed by Kasper and Rose (2003, p. 165). The observation that there were more similarities than differences in the results may also be a manifestation of Ochs' (1969, p. 425) Universal Culture Principle which states that: "There are certain commonalities across the world's language communities, and communities of practice in the linguistic means used to constituent certain situation meanings". This principle suggests that human interlocutors use certain similar linguistic means to achieve certain similar social ends (Hassani, Mardani & Vahid Dastjerdi, 2011).

The other interpretation is that the social meanings carried by persuasive behaviors and choices made along the continuum of directness may not necessarily mean the similarity among languages, but this is associated with the fact that L1 pragmatic transfers occurred among Iranian EFL learners.

Then, what can teachers of second language do to teach pragmatic knowledge and try to inhibit negative transfer from learner first language? In the pedagogical field, the study suggests that language and culture should not be taught separately. The necessary condition for pragmatic learning to take place is conscious attention to the pragmatic information to be acquired. As a result, a direct approach to teaching the pragmatics of the second language is in order. As Kasper (1995, p. 160) put it: "pragmatic knowledge should be teachable". The idea seems to be that if the non-native student is consciously aware of the pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic similarities and differences between his or her native and target languages, then negative outcomes of transfer will most probably be inhibited. Teachers should develop learner understanding of the frames of interaction and rules of politeness within the target culture. It is also important to provide learners with knowledge of the linguistic forms or stylistic strategies appropriate to convey the intended meaning in different contexts or situations. Teachers have the responsibility of providing the student with the necessary tools to make the appropriate pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic decisions in the target language. The information, together with examples taken from authentic materials, the Internet and movies should provide a useful tool for a teacher of second language to raise students' awareness of cultural similarities and differences between L1 and L2. The conflicting patterns may require an explanation, as an inappropriate response to a compliment can cause communication breakdown or offence. Teachers can also help students become pragmatically aware and improve their pragmatic knowledge by providing them the sort of metapragmatic information such as the social value judgments of the target society, etc. Effective activities of teaching these aspects of language and culture include

student research projects (e.g. movie studies), role-plays and internet search. On the other hand, syllabus designers should examine learners' needs considering the understanding and production of speech acts in the target language. Learners should be made aware of native speakers' usage of the variety of expressions to realize a certain function, depending on the situation where they are used. (Yousefvand, 2010).

Limitations

Some of the limitations of this study were the relatively small number of participants, and the fact that defining and interpreting speech acts is not an exact science. The other limitation was that persuasive speech act strategies were examined in freshman and senior productions; this research could be done related to productions of participants in three levels of proficiency. Discourse Completion Test (DCT) was the main instrument in the present study, but the biggest challenge is the fact that the collected data by this instrument may be different from those collected naturally or by using other instruments such as interviews.

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THE EFFECT OF TEACHER CREATIVITY ON SELF-ESTEEM OF BEGINNER EFL LEARNERS

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ABSTRACT

In foreign language education domain, teacher creativity is a fundamental trait for well-qualified teachers. Creative teachers can engage and motivate learners (Jack.C.Richards, 2013) and consequently improve the self confidence in EFL learners and more specially beginner learners. Therefore, improving the students' self-confidence become more important when we know that a person who lacks self-confidence will lack initiative to develop his different kinds of abilities (Huang Xi Ting 1997). This paper tries to investigate the answers to the following questions from the perspective of researches done all around the world. What is the creativity? In what ways it can be related to self-confidence? Why creativity is important in language learning? How creativity can help learners to be more successful? It is noteworthy that special attention is given to the unique role that creativity can play in improving self-confidence of beginner learners in foreign language class because they don't have enough knowledge to use. In other words, they are insecure learners.

Key words: creativity, self-confidence, beginner EFL learner, foreign language education

Introduction

The intrinsic factor of self-confidence has been reported as one of the personality factors present during any cognitive or affective activity in foreign language classroom.(Joumana. Kanafani,2009). The components of self-esteem are four: what he/she thinks of their personal value, the kind of work they do and its consequences, personal achievements or lack thereof, and, most importantly, what they believe other people think of them. Simply talking to the students with positive words will never be sufficient; the task requires the following from all teachers(J.C.Sprenger,2006).

Because of the important role that self-confidence plays in learning a foreign language and specially among beginner learners ,one of the most difficult tasks for any teacher, whether beginner or experienced, is building self-esteem in students who clearly show a low level of confidence(Jack.C.Richards,2013).The notion of what it means to be a good teacher is a complex one, since good teachers draws on many different qualities that teachers bring to their classes-reflecting the knowledge ,skills, and understanding they have built up from their professional education and from their experience of teaching. One of these qualities is ability to bring a creative disposition to teaching.(Jack.C.Richards).

Creativity in learning is often highlighted as a skill essential for success in the 21st century. Daniel Pink (2005) notes that creative thinking is increasingly necessary to accomplish goals in our complex, interconnected world, and education researchers and psychologists tout the social, emotional, cognitive, and professional benefits of possessing creative abilities (Sternberg, 2006).

1-what is creativity? In what ways can it be related to self-confidence?

Creativity is defined as tendency to generate or recognize ideas, alternatives, or possibilities that may be useful in solving problems, communicating with others, and entertaining ourselves and others.

Three reasons why people are motivated to be creative:

1. need for novel, varied, and complex stimulation
2. need to communicate ideas and values
3. need to solve problems .(Robert.E.Franken,2013).

Creativity in teaching means having a wide repertoire of routines and strategies which teachers can call upon, as well as being ready to depart from established procedures and use one's own solutions.

In order to be creative, you need to be able to view things in new ways or from a different perspective. Among other things, you need to be able to generate new possibilities or new alternatives. Tests of creativity measure not only the number of alternatives that people can generate but the uniqueness of those alternatives. The ability to generate alternatives or to see things uniquely does not occur by chance; it is linked to other, more fundamental qualities of thinking, such as flexibility, tolerance of ambiguity or unpredictability, and the enjoyment of things heretofore unknown.

There is consensus among researchers that creativity should be defined as the production of both novel and appropriate work (Sternberg & Lubart, 1996; Lubart, 2000). Novel refers to original work, work that could not be predicted. Appropriate simply concerns the usefulness of the product towards a certain need. Lubart (1999) points out that this is a product-oriented, "western" definition of creativity. Furthermore, the assessment of creative work can only be done in the social and historical context of its making (Lubart, 1999; Amabile, 1983; Csikszentmihalyi, 1996; Sternberg & Lubart, 1995 in Sternberg, 2001, p.361).

In recent years, research and theorizing on the nature and impact of creativity has been a focus in almost every discipline and domain, from those where it has traditionally been central such as fashion design and literature, to areas where it is perhaps less familiar such as business or management. (Jack.C.Richards,2013).

Despite this increased attention to creativity, we still have little understanding of how to nurture and support creativity in current classroom contexts, particularly creative teaching.

In order to investigate the link between creativity and self-esteem, it should be mentioned that when learners feel better about themselves, they do better in the class. (Jack, Canfield, 1990). In another research done by Jenny Jedikin (2013) it is stated that "teaching beginners to have healthy self-esteem is critical because it's been shown to lead learners to being successful in their careers." Also, it's stated that creative teaching increases the levels of motivation and self-esteem on the part of learners and to prepare them with flexible skills they need for the future.

2. Why is creativity important in education?

Before discussing this question, it's important to mention the meaning of education. According to (McNiff, 2002):

"Education refers to the experience of the interaction between people which leads to further learning."

In education creativity is important because it can improve academic attainment. Fisher (2014) reports: Research... shows that when students are assessed in ways that recognize and value their creative abilities, their academic performance improves. Creative activity can rekindle the interest of students who have been turned off by school, and teachers who may be turned off by teaching in a culture of control and compliance.

On the other hand, creativity is important in foreign language learning because of the following reasons:

- **Language use is a creative act:** we transform thoughts into language that can be heard or seen. We are capable of producing sentences and even long texts that we have never heard or seen before. By giving learners creative exercises, we get them to practice an important sub-skill of using a language: thinking creatively.
- **Compensation strategies** (methods used for making up for lack of language in a communicative situation e.g. miming, drawing, paraphrasing used for getting meaning across) use creative and often imaginative ways of expression. Our learners will need these until they master the language.
- **Some people cannot learn at all if they are not allowed to be creative.** They do not understand the point in doing a language activity for its own sake, for only practicing the language without a real content, purpose, outcome or even a product.

- **Most people become more motivated, inspired or challenged** if they can create something of value, if they feel that in some ways what they do and how they do it reflect who they are.
- **Creativity improves self-esteem** as learners can look at their own solutions to problems and their own products and see what they are able to achieve.
- **Creative work in the language classroom can lead to genuine communication and co-operation.** Learners use the language to do the creative task, so they use it as a tool, in its original function. This prepares learners for using the language instrumentally outside the classroom.
- **Creative tasks enrich classroom work**, and they make it more varied and more enjoyable by tapping into individual talents, ideas and thoughts – both the learners' and the teacher's.
- **Creative thinking is an important skill in real life.** It is part of our survival strategies and it is a force behind personal growth and the development of culture and society.

Conclusion

According to the above mentioned researches, the following conclusions can be drawn.

1-self –confidence is as a tool to widen participation ,so, the more self-confidence, the more participation and finally more achievement.

2-Good teaching and learning uses strategies including creativity to encourage growth in confidence.

3-Creativity is a key teaching theme .It means "effective "teaching is essentially the same as "creative" teaching.

4- Teachers intuitively know that when learners feel better about themselves(self-confidence),they do better in the class.

5- it's said that creative teaching increases the level of motivation and self confidence. As a result, when insecure learners feel better about themselves ,they will have more participation .Finally ,more participation leads to more achievement.

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CONCEPTUALIZING WILLINGNESS TO COMMUNICATE: A QUANTITATIVE INVESTIGATION OF ENGLISH-LANGUAGE MAJOR STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT

The original concept of willingness to communicate has emerged from studies in the field of communication around the 1930s (McCroskey, 1997). WTC, as a substantial element for succeeding in interactions and comprehensibility as well as fluency, has been hypothesized both as an individual difference variable affecting L2 acquisition and as an objective of L2 instruction by MacIntyre et al. (1998). Compared with the large bodies of research carried out on other individual difference factors (e.g., motivation, aptitude, learning strategy, working memory, and personality), there have been relatively limited studies on WTC concept. To shed new light on this issue, the present study was intended to explore situations which cause both willingness to communicate and unwillingness to communicate among Iranian language-major students. To this end, 137 bachelors were asked to fill the questionnaire developed by MacIntyre et al. (2001). The findings, analyzed using SPSS 17.00, revealed that inside classroom, asking for instruction, reading a letter from a pen pal, writing a list of things doing tomorrow, and understanding English movies are the most welcomed situations for learners' participation, while, students are more willing for talking to a stranger, reading reviews for popular movies, writing a list of things to do tomorrow, and understanding English movies in English in outside-classroom contexts. Although there exist significant similarities between situations in which students are most or least willing to communicate, they can be differentiated by subtle changes in context that affect the authenticity of communication and needs for proficiency, autonomy, achievement, power, motivation and anxiety. This work could be a useful aid for teachers to build friendly environment for communication to satisfy the language learners' need of relatedness and affiliation.

Key words: WTC, individual difference, motivation, aptitude, learning strategy, working memory.

1. Introduction

MacIntyre (2007) believes that the emergence of communicative language teaching permits learners to improve their communicative competence. Thus, the perception of learners' communicative competence and needs pose a basis for language teachers to plan curricula, and develop language teaching efficacy.

According to Barjesteh and Birjandi (2011), surveys (e.g., Long, 1996; Swain, 2000) on contemporary communicative approaches highlight the significance of L2 language learners in tasks. These surveys are based upon this assumption that learners' competence is gradually formed by performance. MacIntyre(2007) remarked that this attention on the active use of the L2 in learning contexts has led to the arrival of a crucial construct in the field of L2 instruction: Willingness to Communicate (WTC).

The concept of WTC was first developed in regard to the first or native language (L1) verbal communication (MacIntyre, 2007). Richmond and McCroskey (1997; cited in Yu, 2008) believed that in the communication themes, the principal premise of WTC was all about its personality-based, trait-

like tendency which is fairly constant throughout a number of communication field and groups of receivers. However, Dörnyei (2003) argues for this fact that one's L1 and L2 WTC are different. He also added that WTC in L1 is a rather steady personality trait which has grown during the years, but WTC in L2 is quite a complicated issue due to the fact that it is greatly affected by language learners' proficiency level (particularly that of communicative competence). Moreover, the willingness to communicate model of MacIntyre, Clement, Dörnyei, and Noels (1998) went forward and proposed that the situation in which the learners are (including the topic and classmates) along with the learners themselves play a major role in the learners' willingness for communication.

WTC has been hypothesized both as an individual difference variable affecting L2 acquisition and as an objective of L2 instruction by MacIntyre et al. (1998). Compared with the large bodies of research carried out on other individual difference factors (e.g., motivation, aptitude, learning strategy, working memory, and personality), there have been relatively limited studies on WTC concept. L2 learners' WTC is a substantial element for succeeding in interactions and comprehensibility as well as fluency (MacIntyre et al., 1998). Becoming fluent in a second language requires being willing to communicate. Fluency is often regarded as the ultimate goal of second language learners (MacIntyre & Doucette, 2010). It is commonly accepted that higher WTC provides learners with opportunity for more practice and rehearsal in L2 contexts (MacIntyre et al., 1998, 2003). Burgoon (1976) believed in unwillingness as one of the biggest obstacles for EFL learners in speaking process. This unwillingness can be induced by different variables and factors including: communication apprehension, low self-esteem, lack of communicative competence, self-perceived communicative competence (MacIntyre et al., 1998), alienation, anomie, introversion (Matsuoka & Evans, 2005; Tok, 2009), fear and avoidance of performance, behavioral shyness (Amsbary & McCroskey, 1967), fear of making errors, and so on.

A lot of research has been conducted about second/foreign language learners' WTC. Researchers have done analysis on possible variables and factors affecting WTC in both L1 and L2. It is well known that perceived competence is predictive of language learning and communicative behaviors. It should be borne in mind that WTC and communicative competence are not the same: there are many competent L2 learners who are not inclined to participate in L2 communication situations, whereas some other, less competent or proficient L2 learners who are actively inclined to seize opportunities to engage in L2 conversations (Dörnyei, 2003).

1.1. Studies on Willingness to Communicate (WTC)

The original concept of willingness to communicate has emerged from studies in the field of communication around the 1930s (McCroskey, 1997). Public speaking was approximately an absolute attention of the communication studies during that period. Lack of public speaking skills was suggested as the reason for stage fright (Clevenger, 1959), which later advanced into the notion of communication apprehension (McCroskey, 1982a).

Philips in 1965 studied "reticence" as a personality-based anxiety disorder. In his later work (1984), however, he rejected his own initial interpretation and added that despite the effect of anxiety as one of the causes of reticence, lack of communication skills represents a major reason. Philips (1984) also pointed out that reticent people may or may not actually suffer from deficiency in their social skills, but they think they do.

Cao and Philp (2006) investigated the interactional context and Willingness to Communicate (WTC) on international participants at the University of New Zealand. This study was an attempt to explore the dual characteristics of the WTC construct, following the trait (self-report WTC) / state (behavioral WTC) dichotomy claimed by some researchers (see MacIntyre et al. 1998, 1999). Although there was a trend towards significance for a correlation between WTC behavior in pair work and group work ($p = .071$), no correlation was found between WTC in whole class and either WTC in pair work or WTC in group work. The interview data drawn from seven learners, four factors most frequently reported by participants to influence WTC behavior were group size, self-confidence, familiarity with interlocutor(s) and interlocutor participation.

Tok (2009) conducted a study with the aim of investigating Turkish EFL learners' communication obstacles (all freshmen studying non-English majors) in English language classroom at Adiyaman University. For this investigation, the participants completed the Unwillingness to Communicate Scale (UCS) developed by Burgoon (1976), and the Language Class Risk-Taking (LCR) and Language Class Sociability (LCS) scales designed by Ely (1986) to define their communication state. They also completed the Foreign Language Class Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) developed by Horwitz et al. (1986).

The findings revealed that most of the learners were willing to play a part in interpersonal conversations and were inclined to initiate speaking English in class. Moreover, about fifty percent of them felt anxious in their English language classrooms. They were afraid of being negatively evaluated and were worried about speech communication and talking with native speakers. So, the results of the data indicated that the participants' UnWTC was meaningfully positively correlated with their foreign language anxiety.

Donovan and MacIntyre (2005) studied age and sex differences in WTC, CA, and self-perceived competence through three scales of all self-report instruments originally developed by McCroskey *et al.* The study was on this premise that aging would increase willingness to communicate in males and the reverse trend in women.

The results of the analysis indicated that females show higher willingness to communicate than males among the junior high students. No sex differences in CA or self-perceived competence are evident between the junior high and high school students, but the female university students show higher communication apprehension and lower self-perceived competence than their male counterparts.

A similar study relevant to WTC was conducted by MacIntyre, Burns and Jessome (2011) entitled "Ambivalence about communicating in a second language. This survey was an attempt to find out French immersion students' willingness to communicate. The pyramid model was used by the researchers to arrange the entries and interpret the students' viewpoints. However, the analysis of the data clarified those situations where students showed more and less willing have many commonalities.

The analysis demonstrated that students were both willing and unwilling to speak with family, friends, teachers, and strangers. Learners also recorded that they were both willing and unwilling to communicate with students of high or low proficiency level. Diary entries illustrated that the students were both willing and unwilling to be corrected or to utilize French media. In sum, the researchers found the significance of ambivalence among the students. The data from the diaries indicated that inside-school elements for communicating with the teacher and peers were perceived competence, autonomy and relatedness; while, communication with family, friends or strangers, and media usage were the most prominent out-of-school contexts.

1.2. Purpose of the Study

The aim of this investigation is to explore those variables comprising individual, social, linguistic, communicative, psychological, and situational factors contributing to the individuals' willingness to communicate and the variables and factors that may lead to unwillingness to communicate among English major students in Iran.

1.3. Research Questions

This study is an attempt to answer the following questions:

1. Based on WTC questionnaire, in what situations are English-language major students most willing to communicate?
2. Based on WTC questionnaire, in what situations are English-language major students least willing to communicate?

2. Method

2.1. Participants

In order to achieve the purpose of the present study, 137 (55 male and 72 female) bachelors, ranging in age from 18 to 28, studying different English majors mostly English Literature and English Translation took part in the study. They were from different universities in Tehran. The reason why the researcher used English-major students in this study is that they have more opportunities for communicating in English than non-English-major students.

2.2. Instrumentation

A modified version of questionnaire was adopted from "Willingness to communicate, social support, and language-learning orientations of immersion students" by MacIntyre, P. D., Baker, S., Clément, R. and Conrod, S. (2001). The questionnaire, Willingness to Communicate Questionnaire, was designed as a five-point likert scale indicating the range of willingness from "almost never willing to almost always willing". It comprises two parts: WTC inside the classroom and WTC outside the classroom

containing 52 situations. The situations illustrate speaking, reading, writing, and comprehension opportunities. This questionnaire elicited the participants' linguistic background and their frequency of using English in their communications. The questionnaire was administered to all 137 participants.

2.3. Data Collection Procedures

The present study is an example of heuristic methodology which is a systematic form of qualitative research. In other words, heuristics is a way of engaging in a scientific search through methods and processes aimed at discovery (Moustakas, 1990). At the commencement of the investigation, the 137 participants were asked to complete the modified WTC questionnaire by MacIntyre, P. D., Baker, S., Clément, R. and Conrod, S. (2001). The type of the questionnaires was likert-type items containing 52 situations. The situations show speaking, reading, writing, and comprehension opportunities for communication inside classroom and outside the classroom. In evaluating the results obtained from questionnaire, the researcher interpreted the data based on the frequency of the students' answers using SPSS software 17.00.

3. Result

As it was mentioned in Chapter 3, the WTC questionnaire was used as the frequency measure of the situations that provoke WTC and UnWTC. The type of the questionnaire was likert-type items containing two parts: 26 communication opportunities inside the classroom and 26 communication opportunities outside the classroom. Each part comprises four language skills of speaking, reading, writing, and comprehension. The results obtained from the questionnaire are shown below:

3.1. Inside the Classroom Speaking Situations Results

As table 3.1. shows, the most willing situation for in class speaking is asking for instructions and /or clarifications ($M = 3.63$) and the least willing situation is being an actor in a play ($M = 2.63$).

Table 3.1 Descriptive statistics for inside the classroom speaking situations

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
1. Speaking to a group about your summer vacation.	1	5	2.91	1.263
2. Speaking to your teacher about your homework assignment.	1	5	3.11	1.270
3. A stranger enters the room you are in, how willing would you be to have a conversation if he talked to you first?	1	5	3.36	1.265
4. You are confused about a task you must complete, how willing are you to ask for instructions / clarification?	1	5	3.63	1.179
5. Talking to a friend while waiting in line.	1	5	3.39	1.352
6. How willing would you be to be an actor in a play?	1	5	2.63	1.548
7. Describe the rules of your favorite game.	1	5	3.07	1.315
8. Play a game in English, for example Monopoly.	1	5	3.09	1.348

3.2. Outside of the Classroom Speaking Situations Results

According to Table 3.2., the most willing situation for out of class speaking is talking to a stranger who enters the room ($M = 3.37$) and the least willing situation is being an actor in a play ($M = 2.58$).

Table 3.2. Descriptive statistics for outside the classroom speaking situations

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
1. Speaking to a group about your summer vacation.	1	5	2.85	1.412
2. Speaking to your teacher about your homework assignment.	1	5	2.77	1.354
3. A stranger enters the room you are in, how willing would you be to have a conversation if he talked to you first?	1	5	3.37	1.209
4. You are confused about a task you must complete, how willing are you to ask for instructions / clarification?	1	5	3.33	1.278
5. Talking to a friend while waiting in line.	1	5	3.32	1.469

6. How willing would you be to be an actor in a play?	1	5	2.58	1.519
7. Describe the rules of your favorite game.	1	5	2.80	1.422
8. Play a game in English, for example Monopoly.	1	5	2.92	1.486

3.3. Inside the Classroom Reading Situations Results

As table 3.3.reveals, reading letters from a pen pal written in native English (M = 3.75) is the most willing situation for in class reading and reading an advertisement in the paper (M = 2.96) is the least willing situation.

Table 3.3. Descriptive statistics for inside the classroom reading situations

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
1. Read a novel.	1	5	3.41	1.320
2. Read an article in a paper.	1	5	3.49	1.201
3. Read letters from a pen pal written in native English.	1	5	3.75	1.299
4. Read personal letters or notes written to you in which the write has deliberately used simple words and constructions.	1	5	3.66	1.247
5. Read an advertisement in the paper to find a good bicycle you can buy.	1	5	2.96	1.369
6. Read reviews for popular movies.	1	5	3.64	1.387

3.4. Outside of the Classroom Reading Situations Results

As can be seen in table 3.4., reading reviews for popular movies (M = 3.89) is the most willing situation for out of class reading and reading an advertisement in the paper (M = 2.93) is the least willing situation.

Table 3.4. Descriptive statistics for outside the classroom reading situations

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
1. Read a novel.	1	5	3.75	1.389
2. Read an article in a paper.	1	5	3.61	1.208
3. Read letters from a pen pal written in native English.	1	5	3.84	1.305
4. Read personal letters or notes written to you in which the write has deliberately used simple words and constructions.	1	5	3.76	1.176
5. Read an advertisement in the paper to find a good bicycle you can buy.	1	5	2.93	1.371
6. Read reviews for popular movies.	1	5	3.89	1.286

3.5. Inside the Classroom Writing Situations Results

As table 3.5.reveals, the most willing situation for in class writing is writing down a list of things you must do tomorrow (M = 3.51) and the least willing situation is writing an advertisement to sell an old bike (M = 2.20).

Table 3.5. Descriptive statistics for inside the classroom writing situations

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
1. Write an advertisement to sell an old bike.	1	5	2.20	1.267
2. Write down the instructions for your favorite hobby.	1	5	2.95	1.347
3. Write a report on your favorite animal and its habits	1	5	2.72	1.392
4. Write a story.	1	5	3.26	1.480
5. Write a letter to a friend.	1	5	3.39	1.204
6. Write a newspaper article.	1	5	2.67	1.476
7. Write the answers to a "fun" quiz from a magazine.	1	5	3.18	1.371
8. Write down a list of things you must do tomorrow.	1	5	3.51	1.389

3.6. Outside of the Classroom Writing Situations Results

According to table 3.6., writing down a list of things you must do tomorrow ($M = 3.61$) is the most willing situation for out of class writing and writing an advertisement to sell an old bike ($M = 2.17$) is the least willing situation.

Table 3.6. Descriptive statistics for outside the classroom writing situations

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
1. Write an advertisement to sell an old bike.	1	5	2.17	1.279
2. Write down the instructions for your favorite hobby.	1	5	2.75	1.422
3. Write a report on your favorite animal and its habits	1	5	2.71	1.362
4. Write a story.	1	5	3.30	1.482
5. Write a letter to a friend.	1	5	3.60	1.318
6. Write a newspaper article.	1	5	2.82	1.481
7. Write the answers to a 'fun' quiz from a magazine.	1	5	3.14	1.466
8. Write down a list of things you must do tomorrow.	1	5	3.61	1.395

3.7. Inside the Classroom Comprehension Situations Results

As table 3.7. reveals, the most willing situation for in class comprehension is understanding English movies ($M = 3.64$) and the least willing situation taking directions from an English speaker ($M = 3.15$).

Table 3.7. Descriptive statistics for inside the classroom comprehension situations

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
1. Listen to instructions and complete a task.	1	5	3.50	1.255
2. Fill out an application form.	1	5	3.35	1.270
3. Take directions from an English speaker.	1	5	3.15	1.141
4. Understand English movie.	1	5	3.64	1.120

3.8. Outside of the Classroom Comprehension Situations Results

According to table 3.8., understanding English movies ($M = 3.77$) is the most willing situation for out of class comprehension and filling out an application form ($M = 3.15$) is the least willing situation.

Table 3.8. Descriptive statistics for outside the classroom comprehension situations

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
1. Listen to instructions and complete a task.	1	5	3.42	1.234
2. Fill out an application form.	1	5	3.15	1.268
3. Take directions from an English speaker.	1	5	3.24	1.201
4. Understand English movie.	1	5	3.77	1.042

4. Discussion

The descriptive statistics of WTC questionnaires showed inside classroom, asking for instruction, reading a letter from a pen pal, writing a list of things doing tomorrow, and understanding English movies are the most welcomed situation for students to communicate in English, whereas playing as an actor, reading and writing an advertisement, and taking direction in English are not considered enjoyable tasks for students to do inside classroom.

Furthermore, the descriptive statistics of WTC questionnaires demonstrated that outside classroom, students like talking to a stranger, reading reviews for popular movies, writing a list of things to do tomorrow, and understanding English movies in English, whereas they do not like playing as an actor, reading and writing an advertisement, and filling out an application form in English when outside of the classroom.

The findings obtained from the questionnaire seemed to reveal ambivalence about communicating among English-major students inside the classroom and outside the classroom in the Iranian context. MacIntyre (2007) defines ambivalence toward learning as "experiencing both reasons to approach and reasons to avoid speaking the L2". Therefore it appears to be claimed that there does not exist definite situations that increase WTC, or decrease WTC. This finding might be attributable to other factors such as needs for competence, autonomy, relatedness, achievement, power, self-confidence, anxiety

and motivation which can affect WTC. Yashima (2002), Clément et al. (2003), Peng and Woodrow (2010), and Cetinkaya (2005) have reported that L2 self-confidence and perceived communicative competence play a major role in increasing the learners' willingness for communication. Moreover, Yashima (2002) in a study carried out in Japan concluded that level of motivation and anxiety as well as learners' proficiency contribute to more willingness to communicate.

5. Conclusion

Since the late 90s, efforts have been made to describe Willingness to Communicate (WTC) concept as the individuals' readiness to use their second language (L2) when presented with an opportunity to do so (MacIntyre et al., 1998). Many language teachers have faced linguistically competent students who were not willing to communicate in the second language whereas some other students with much less linguistic competence were highly motivated to communicate in L2. Motivational, individual, social, linguistic, situational, and other factors have been examined as factors which influence the learners' willingness to participate in discourse in a second language. According to MacIntyre et al. (2003), some researchers believed that the major goal of second language learning should be the creation of WTC.

In an effort to move beyond linguistic or communicative competence, 137 bachelor students majoring English completed WTC questionnaire. The situations in the questionnaire represent speaking, reading, writing, and comprehension opportunities for communication in L2. Using the SPSS 17.00, the researchers calculated the frequency of the situations that invoke WTC and those that decrease WTC among the participants. The results obtained from the data indicated that asking for instruction, reading a letter from a pen pal, writing a list of things doing tomorrow, and understanding English movies are the most comfortable inside-classroom situations for students to communicate in English, while the questionnaires showed that outside classroom, students are willing to talk to a stranger, read reviews for popular movies, write a list of things to do tomorrow, and understand English movies in English.

6. Implication

The implication based upon the obtained results can be on student-teacher interaction. Haslett (1976) declared that student-teacher relationship can be presumed as the most crucial factor in classroom social environment. Taking this finding into account, it is worth mentioning that establishing student-teacher rapport and keeping students from feeling alienated is a key teaching tool. Teachers can satisfy the language learners' need of relatedness and affiliation by building a friendly environment for communication. As a result, this friendly environment can bring about the trust and security for the students.

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THE EFFECTS OF BRAINSTORMING STRATEGY ON WRITING SKILL OF IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS

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ABSTRACT

Research on Brainstorming technique is based on the assumption that promote EFL learners in their writing skills and they are considered as successful writer of language. Therefore the present study was an attempt to investigate the effect of brainstorming technique on writing of Iranian EFL learners. In the first phase of the study, the two groups of intermediate students sat for a general proficiency by Oxford Placement Test (quick placement test, version 1) the two groups statistically compared in terms of their general proficiency and writing skills which indicated that they belonged to the same population. Pre-writing test with the same content and skills used to both experimental and control groups to determine the participants' writing skill before the treatment. After that, the experimental group only received training on how to use brainstorming techniques. At the end of the instruction period, the participants were given once again a post-test to track possible differences in their writing improvement. The findings showed that the treatment had significantly improved writing skills of experimental group. The attitudinal survey also indicated that the students felt positive about the brainstorming technique. As a result there was a direct correspondence between brainstorming technique and writing skills.

Keywords: brainstorming, cognitive strategy, writing skill

1. Introduction

Writing according to Rao (1997) has always been regarded as an important skill in all EFL settings. It stimulates learners 'thinking, make them concentrate, find a way to organize their ideas and at the end promote the language ability which is the main and ultimate goal.

Bello (1997, cited in Ibnian, 2011) views writing as an important skill for EFL learners since it is a productive language skill, it plays an important role in promoting language acquisition. He says as Learners experiment with words, sentences and large chunks of writing in order to communicate their ideas, so this help them to improve their vocabulary and grammar. He further believes that the main reason that learners in the past decade had more problem than today can be attributed to lack of attention given to writing. In fact writing is a useful way and important way for thinking. So improving learners writing skill could be the one of the most important skills that EFL learners need to be developing throughout their schooling. Rao(2007) mentions that why learners find composition

in foreign language difficult, he claims writing process need to utilize many cognitive and linguistics strategies which they have not enough information. Teachers also complain that they cannot find an efficient way to awaken learners' imagination or help them to activate their creative mind. Colantone(1998, cited in Ibnian,2011)states that those teachers who follow the traditional method for teaching composition ,they emphasized on final product rather than on the processes of writing. In fact the three main stages of writing pre-writing while -writing and post- writing can expand learner's thinking skills. The reason behind is, they make them busy with connecting, analyzing and evaluating ideas, as a result make the learner's thinking skills sharper. Academic writing needs conscious effort and practice writing compositions. In this regard as Myles (2002) states that students face some problems including social and cognitive challenges which are related to second language learning. Process approach is the theoretical basis in L2 writing pedagogy. So teachers should take into account that the strategy development and language skill development of learners are very important. He says learner strategies can be effective but they need to be internalized. For example, writing for job interview process, performing under timed test conditions, learners' affective states can influence cognition. Emotional and cognitive factors have influence on L2 performance.

Magno(2009)mentions that when learners are asked to write a composition in second language, they use particular approaches to learning. Individuals use a variety of learning strategies when they want to write ESL/EFL tasks. Some strategies they use are planning, idea generating, self-evaluating, self-monitoring and reflecting. Writers thought about the subject deeply no matter the task is interesting for them or not, they seek for further information which Magno(2009) refers as Deep Approach. It is used in the composing or writing process. Writers perceive task then start to organize their thoughts and planning.

2. Theoretical and research background

This study is based on cognitive theory in ESL/EFL acquisition research. It tries to investigate how brainstorming technique activate student's thinking. It seems group brainstorming has a positive role on students idea generation. Therefore, some theories and models along with some related studies are detailed in this section.

Writing is the most difficult skill among four English skills, the reason according to Langan(1987, cited in Nik, 2010) is that, Writing is more abstract and more complex. Gunning (1998; Langan, 1987, cited in Nik, 2010) refers writing as a "hard work" so students meet difficulties during writing. They believe that in order to write effectively, one needs to gain some skills and conventions such as grammatical rules and writing readiness to help himself/herself to become a proficient and effective writer, on the other hand teachers themselves face great challenge in teaching these skills and conventions so that students may at times find them confusing and difficult to understand, as a result this problem would affect on writing particularly on a second language such as English. They further say that writing is not just putting pen on paper or writing down ideas but rather it is how these ideas are presented effectively.

As far as EFL students concern, Raimes(1995, cited in Richards & Rinandya, 2002) points that non-native students need more creativity to present ideas than native students. These students need to acquire the basic rules of grammar and the correct syntactic structures to write a composition or essay in a proficient way. Writing affords learner to plan and rethink the communication process, focusing on linguistic accuracy and content organization. Often entire courses are devoted to developing students' writing and editing skills, which is why it is important for EFL teachers to be aware of EFL student needs and challenges when learning and practicing writing foreign language learners (Olshatin, 2001). Teachers in writing classes utilize specific approach but using "process approach" is a useful trend in teaching writing in most of classroom now days. Pre-writing stage is important because at this stage learner can expand their vocabularies and ideas about the topic. Teachers and learners using lots of techniques such as Brainstorming, listing, mind mapping, clustering, free writing, etc. Each of them has their own rules and structure. Mind maps or spider gram can be used to help students to develop their writing's skills as well as their ideas on specific topic. In mind maps students making notes on a topic before they begin writing. Some scholars believe that mind maps has advantage over Brainstorming since the ideas making by students are structured and well organized than brainstorming in which students produce notes randomly on paper. So they conclude ideas in mind maps easily can be converted into a draft whereas in Brainstorming students face problems. Students need to be spontaneous in order to generate ideas as a web. Another one is using

Brainstorming which is the main purpose of this research Brainstorming creates new ideas, solves problems, motivates and develops teams. Brainstorming motivates because it involves members of a team in bigger management issues, and it gets a team working together. At first stage of generating ideas students 'attention should not be involved to tide the ideas up but just writing ideas related and unrelated , later when they want to convert the ideas into draft students need to organize them into a related ideas(Kroll, 2001).

2.1 Approaches to writing

Hassan and Akhand(2010) claim that both product and process approach nowadays dominated most of the teaching of writing over the last 20 years. But in the last ten years, the importance of genre approach in EFL/ ESL classroom have been highly growing. Hassan and Akhand(2010) refer to practitioners' suggestion for having an effective writing in EFL/ESL classroom. The practitioners suggest three approaches to writing:

Product, process and genre approaches

They mention that the choice between these approaches is depend on the text type being studied, the curriculum and many factors. Both process and product approach are complementary rather than opposite as Hassan and Akhand(2010) mention in their research paper. Their findings indicate that the combination of product and process outperformed the presentation of the learners. There was corroborating evidence to support the view that the blend of both approaches tends to facilitate the learners to undertake a writing task to be developed.

2.2 Product vs. process approach

2.2.1 Product Approach

This is a traditional approach; a model of text has been given to students at an early stage to mimic .For example a standard of sample of texts are given to students and they are expected to follow the standard to construct a new piece of writing(Gabrielatos, 2002). The majority of recent studies according to Gabrielatos(2002) concerned with the measurement of strategy training for EFL/ESL learners, have been product- oriented. The studies reveal that through students' test scores following the completion of a strategy training program; they have measured students' improvement quantitatively. Hassan and Akhand (2010) defines four stages for product approach which is presented in Table 2.1.

Table2.1 Product and process writing: A comparison

Process writing	Product writing
Text as a resource for comparison	Imitate model text
Ideas as starting point	Organization of ideas are more important than ideas themselves
More than one draft	One draft
More global, focused on purpose, theme, text type i.e. reader is emphasized	Features highlighted including controlled practice of those feature
Collaborative	Individual
Emphasis on creative process	Emphasis on end product

2.2.2 Process Approach

According to Kroll (2001) the term "process approach" serves as an umbrella term for many types of writing courses today. Students go through a cyclical approach rather than a single-shot approach. The students are not expected to produce polished and standard responses to their writing assignments but they utilize some stages of drafting and receiving feedback on their drafts no matter the feedback is from peers or from the teacher.

Fawzi and Hossein (2013) mention process approach has a major impact on the writing of EFL students. They further state that Process Approach introduced as a reaction to the Product Approach. Product Approach emphasizes on the final product of lexical items and grammatical rules. Fawzi and Hossein (2013) mention that the writer's cognitive view of writing as well as writing stages are the focus of the process approach. By writing stages it means, brainstorming, planning, revising, editing and rewriting. This approach looks the skill of writing as a creative act which needs time, thinking, time, interaction and positive feedback to be done in a good way. Its aim is to motivate students and to put more efforts on the writing activity.

As a result a process approach dealt with different kinds of classroom activities which help to the development of language use: brainstorming, group discussion and rewriting (Fawzi & Hossein, 2013).

Hismanglu (2000) states in the past, the focus was on teaching and teachers, but over twenty years the emphasis has been changed into learning and learners that is how learners process new information and what kind of strategies they employ to remember understand and learn the information particularly in the field of foreign language.

2.2.3 Genre Approach

Genre-based approach is considered as a social and cultural practice as Hassan and Akhand (2010) claim the context where the writing occurs is important as well as the target discourse community. Partridge (2004, cited in Hassan & Akhand, 2010) mentions that the emphasis is on the discourse features of specific text, the context and on the language.

According to Swales (1990, cited in Hassan & Akhand, 2010) is purposeful communicative activities which is employed by a particular discourse community. Munice (2001, cited in Hassan & Akhand, 2010) says, in genre-based approach, the focus is more on the reader and the writing conventions in a way that successfully accepted by its readership.

In spite of its good characteristics, genre text has its own limitations as Paltridge (2001, cited in Hassan & Akhand, 2010) and Swales (2000, cited in Hassan & Akhand, 2010) claim, the role of readership in this approach is over emphasized and students should be familiar with social and cultural knowledge of a text which is a hard job for them.

2.4 Brainstorming History

According to Ibnian (2011) Alex Osborn in 1953 developed the original approach to brainstorming and published it in his book "Applied Imagination" from that time up to now, researchers try to make many improvements to his original technique.

He further mentions that Brainstorming is a technique used to encourage individuals to generate ideas and come up with a list of possible solutions to a certain problem. Osborn proposed that groups could double their creative output with brainstorming. Hyde (2005) mentions that Alex Osborn developed brainstorming as a method for creative problem solving. In his article he says Osborn a partner in advertising company was tired of his employee because he could not able to create ideas for ad campaigns and products working. Osborn started hosting group-think sessions and noticed that the quality and quantity of ideas increased compared to individual employee. After this success he published his book Applied Imagination in 1953, in which he characterized his creative problem-solving method. This book was welcomed in academia.

2.6 Brainstorming ---Osborn's definition

"A method by which a group tries to find a solution for a specific problem by amassing a list of ideas spontaneously contributed its members" (Hyde, 2005).

2.7 Osborn's rules for brainstorming sessions

- Judgment of ideas is not allowed (this comes later)
- Outlandish ideas are encouraged (these can be scaled back later)
- A large quantity of ideas is preferred (quantity leads to quality)
- Members should build on one another's ideas (members should suggest idea improvement). (Hyde, 2005).

2.8 Types of Brainstorming Techniques

A variety of brainstorming techniques exist that help students to generate ideas, but according to Guerra (2009) some of the most effective include:

Free writing, Idea Maps Creative, Questioning, Role playing and Grouping

2.8.1 Free writing

As Stetson (2009) states it refers to a kind of method that is typically used for individual brainstorming. Participants expected to write anything that comes to their mind, no matter the word or phrases make sense or not, just participants keep writing and do not stop. At the end there are lots of ideas, although much of what they wrote will need to be filtered.

2.8.2 Group Brainstorming

The participants divided into small groups from 3 to 6 people per group, if the class' members are large. Stetsen (2009) mentions that, at first in this method the facilitator makes sure that participants understand the purpose of the session then each group write their ideas and send a copy to other groups.

2.8.3 Webbing, Clustering, Mapping

There are different names for the same technique. First according to Guerra (2009) the teacher or facilitator write the word or phrase inside the circle on a board or a piece of paper then he/she write other words or phrases in surrounding circles that connect to the original phrases like a spider's web.

2.8.4 Role- playing and Creative Question

Guerra (2009) declares this technique is helpful when students want to write a short story or a poem. Students or participants place themselves in another persons' role. This is a funny activity as well as they can generate some interesting ideas as

3. Method

3.1 Participants

The initial sample of this study consisted of 80 Iranian EFL learners aged from 20 to 30. The participants were both male and female with Persian as their mother language. To include only intermediate learners, Oxford Placement Test (2011) was administered. Finally based on the mentioned criteria (age range and language level), 60 participants out of 80 were selected for this study.

3.2 Data collection instruments

Different materials were used to collect the relevant data in this study:

- 1) Oxford Placement Test (quick placement test, version 1) to determine EFL learners' proficiency level.
- 2) A Pre- Post writing test was administered to both groups before and after the implementation of the proposed technique on the experimental group
- 3) Attitudinal survey to determine the participation's feeling about the brainstorming technique.

3.2.1 The Oxford Placement test

The first step was to pilot the placement test (quick placement test, version 1) which was to be used to make sure that the two groups were equal and belonged to the same population in terms of their general proficiency. Therefore, prior to the study, the test comprising of language use and cloze test each with 25 and 35 items respectively, was administered to 80 participants of the pilot study with the same qualities as those of the main study but 60 participants were selected as intermediate learner

and then the reliability of the test was calculated using Cronbach's Alpha formula which turned out to be satisfactory at 0.87. The use of use of this placement test in numerous studies (such as Marzban and , 2012; Tehrani and Tabatabaei, 2012) is an indication of its being appropriate.

3.2.2 A pre- post writing test and its scoring scale

Pre- test was administered to both groups before the implementation of the proposed technique on the experimental group and then post-test was utilized to experimental group after the implementation of brainstorming technique. The test aimed at measuring the writing skills of the intermediate level in English. The students' overall proficiency in English composition was evaluated using the ESL Composition Profile (Jacob, et al, 1981). This profile was used based on Cahyano(2010) article it was designed to help teachers of English for speakers of other languages evaluate learners' compositions in a practical way . The ESL Composition Profile divides writing into five components with various percentages:

The components of the ESL composition profile:

Content (30%), Organization (20%), Vocabulary (20%), Language use (25%) and Mechanic (5%)

So the total scores of overall proficiency in writing will be the sum up the components i.e., Content, Organization, Vocabulary, language use and mechanics components.

As Jacobs et. al (1981) mention these components remind teacher and students of essential concepts and principles in composition, criteria components are used. Thus, writers can easily succeed at composing or synthesizing the main elements of writing into a connected, coherent and effective piece of written discourse (p.49).

The marking scheme was first explained to the raters. After a practice session, each essay was scored by the two raters independently.

The final score for each essay was then calculated by recording the mean of the two raters' scores. For Reliability of the scoring scale, the researcher followed two ways.

3.2.3 An already made attitudinal survey by Rao(2007)

An attitudinal questionnaire was sent to the participants in the experimental group only. This questionnaire which was made by Rao(2007) consisted of one item. The item was a statement: 'Using a brainstorming technique is an efficient way to increase my writing competence'. The participants were asked to respond to a statement on a five- point scale (strongly agree', 'agree', ' undecided', ' disagree', strongly disagree').

3. 3 Data analysis

After collecting the data, they were subjected to statistical analysis. In the placement test, scores were set according to participants' correct answers, to determine the Equivalence of the experimental and control groups. The test aimed to measure the writing skills of the participants at intermediate level in English language. The pre-writing test was administered to both of groups before applying the proposed technique (brainstorming). The treatment lasted five weeks, two sessions per week with students at intermediate level in experimental group. In last session the writing task which was assigned lasted for about 50 minutes. Then attitudinal questionnaires were distributed among experimental group. The students' compositions were analyzed manually by two experienced raters in order to investigate the potential avoidance behaviors. The data collected through the questionnaires were also gathered and typed into the computer. Then the data were run through SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) program for more analyses. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were carried out. Based on the scores of two groups, it concluded that the two groups were equivalent in their composition writing skills. There was no statistical significant difference between the mean scores of both groups, thus any later significant change in participants' composition writing skills would be due to the effect of the implementation of brainstorming technique. The test aimed at measuring the writing skills of the intermediate level in English. To ensure the validity of the scoring scale this study followed the ESL composition profile of Jacobs et al. (1981). The Pearson Correlation Formula was used to test the strength of the relationship between the two raters' scores (Inter- rater reliability) and between the same raters' scores on two occasions (Intera-rater reliability) for gaining the ultimate and convenient scores for analysis. According to Salkind(2006) correlation can range between -1 and +1 and can take on any value between those two extremes. The students were then given an attitudinal survey asking how useful and effective they

found each technique to be. They were also asked to give feedback on how the techniques could be improved.

4. Results and interpret

The first step was to pilot the placement test (quick placement test, version 1) which was to be used to make sure that the two groups were equal and belonged to the same population in terms of their general proficiency. Therefore, prior to the study, the test comprising of language use and cloze test each with 25 and 35 items respectively, was administered to 80 of the pilot study with the same qualities as those of the main study and then the reliability of the test was calculated using Cronbach's Alpha formula which turned out to be satisfactory at 0.87.

Table 4.1 Reliability Statistics

N of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
60	.877

The two experienced raters used the scoring scale to evaluate students' writing. So, in the next stage the Inter-raters' reliability for experimental group in both pre and post-test were computed using the Spearman Correlation Coefficient which is a measure of the linear correlation coefficient between two variables. As it can be seen in Table 4.2 and Table 4.3, the correlation between two raters was ($r = 0.972$, $p = 0.000$, $n = 30$) for pre-test in experimental group and the correlation of two raters was ($r = 0.974$, $p = 0.000$, $n = 30$) for post-test in experimental group. The result confirmed the correlation between two raters in high degree. The correlation is found to be significant.

Table 4.2 Correlations

	Pre-test-rater 1	Pre-test-rater 2
Pre-test -rater 1		
Pearson Correlation	1	0.972**
Sig.(2-tailed)		0.000
N	30	30
Pre-test-rater 2		
Pearson Correlation	0.972 **	1
Sig.(2-tailed)	0.000	
N	30	30

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

Table 4.3 Correlations

	Post-test-rater 1	Post-test-rater 2
Post-test -rater 1		
Pearson Correlation	1	0.974**
Sig.(2-tailed)		0.000
N	30	30
Post-test-rater 2		
Pearson Correlation	0.974 **	1
Sig.(2-tailed)	0.000	
N	30	30

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

Table 4.4 shows the descriptive statistics of pre and post test of experimental group table shows the means, standard deviation and standard error of mean in pre-test and post-test of rater 1 and rater 2 in paired sample statistics. The mean of pre-test post-test of rater 1 were found ($M = 62.1667$, 62.4333 , $SD = 7.46525$, 7.24299 , $SEM = 1.36296$, 1.32238) respectively. The mean of pre-test post-test of rater 2 were found ($M = 67.2333$, 68.4333 , $SD = 7.39377$, 7.09873 , $SEM = 1.34991$, 1.29604) respectively. As a result

the means for post-test raters 1 and 2 were higher than the means for pre-test rater 1 and 2 in experimental.

Table.44 Paired Sample Statistics (Experimental group)

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1 pre-test rater- 1	62.1667	30	7.46525	1.36296
Post-test-rater- 1	67.2333	30	7.39377	1.34991
Pair 2 pre-test-rater- 2	62.4333	30	7.24299	1.32238
Post-test-rater-2	68.4333	30	7.09873	1.29604

Figure4.1 shows the Mean of the experimental group in pre-test rater 1 (M=62.17, Std. Dev=7.465, N=30)

Figur4.1 Distribution of scores in experimental group pre-test-rater1 Figure42 Distribution of scores in experimental group pre-test-rater 2

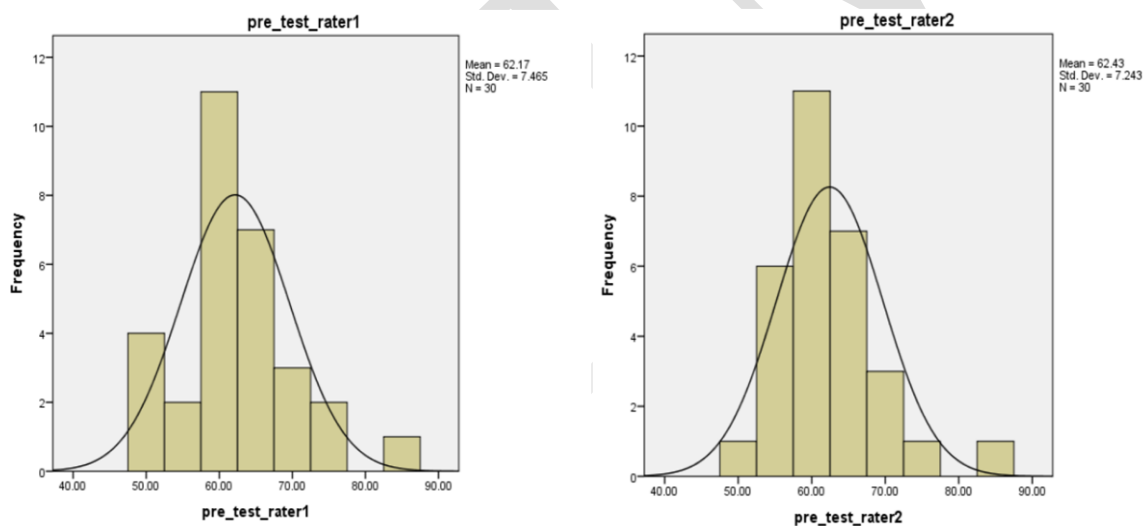


Figure4.2 shows the Mean of the experimental group in pre-test rater 2 (M=62.43, Std. Dev=7.243, N=30)

Figure4.3 Distribution of scores in experimental group post-test-rater1

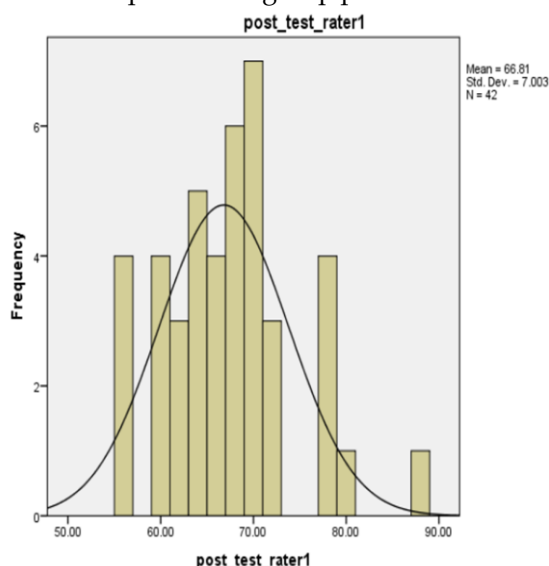


Figure4.4 Distribution of scores in experimental group post-test-rater2

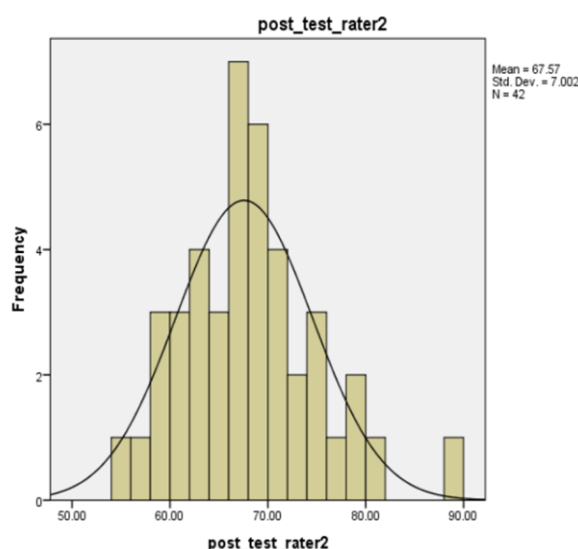


Figure4.3 shows the Mean of the experimental group in post-test rater 1 ($M=66.81$, Std. Dev= 7.003 , $N=30$)

Figure4.4 shows the Mean of the experimental group in post-test rater 2 ($M=67.57$, Std. Dev= 7.002 , $N=30$)

Figure4.5 shows the Mean of the control group in post-test rater 1 ($M=67.93$, Std. Dev= 7.315 , $N=30$).

Table4.5 shows the descriptive statistics of pre-test-rater1 (paired 1) and post-test rater 2(paired 2) of control group. ($M=62.8667$, 62.9333 , $SD= 7.56003$, 7.31523 , $SEM= 1.38027$, 1.33557) respectively and pre-test and post- test rater 2 in control group ($M=62.3333$, 62.8667 , $SD=6.75346$, 6.40976 , $SEM=1.23301$, 1.17026 , $N=30$) respectively.

As a result the means for post-test raters 1 and 2 were higher than the means for pre-test rater 1 and 2 in control group.

Table 4.5 Paired Sample Statistics (Control group)

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	pre_test_rater1_control_group	62.8667	30	7.56003	1.38027
	post_test_rater1_control_group	62.9333	30	7.31523	1.33557
Pair 2	pre_test_rater2_control_group	62.3333	30	6.75346	1.23301
	post_test_rater2_control_group	62.8667	30	6.40976	1.17026

As Table 4.6 suggests, correlation between Paired 1 and Paired 2 shown in Figure 4.14 is reported to be significant. Pearson Correlation is found to be positive in Paired 1, ($r = .973$, $n = 30$, $p = 0.000$) and also Pearson Correlation Coefficient is found to be positive in Paired 2, ($r= .96$, $n=30$, $p=0.000$).

4.6 Paired Sample Correlations (Control group)

	N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1 pre_test_rater1_control_group & post_test_rater1_control_group	30	.973	.000
Pair 2 pre_test_rater2_control_group & post_test_rater2_control_group	30	.960	.000

Table 4.7 reports the Mean, Std. Deviation and Std. Error Mean of pre, post-test- rater 1 and pre, post-test-rater 2 in Control group. The (95%) confidence interval of the lower for the difference was (-.72399) in Paired 1 and (-.123865) in Paired 2.

Table 4.7 Paired Sample Test (Control group)

	Paired Differences			
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower
Pair 1 pre_test_rater1_control_group - post_test_rater1_control_group	-.06667	1.76036	.32140	-.72399
Pair 2 pre_test_rater2_control_group - post_test_rater2_control_group	-.53333	1.88887	.34486	-1.23865

Table 4.8 reports the Sig. (2-Tailed) value is greater than .05. So there is no statistically significant difference between the scores of paired 1 and paired 2. ($0.837 > .05$, $.133 > .05$)

Table 4.8 Paired Sample Test (Control group) Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences			
		95% Confidence Interval of the Difference			
		Upper	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 1	pre_test_rater1_control_group - post_test_rater1_control_group	.59066	-.207	29	.837
Pair 2	pre_test_rater2_control_group - post_test_rater2_control_group	.17198	-1.547	29	.133

Table 4.9 shows the descriptive statistics of post-tests-rater 1 and post -test-rater 2 of control and experimental group. The Means of post-test of control group rater 1 and post-test of experimental group rater 1 were found ($M=62.9333$, 67.2333 , $SD=7.31523$, 7.39377 , $SEM=1.33557$, 1.34991 , $N=30$) respectively. The mean of post-test of control group and post-test of experimental group rater 2 were found ($M=62.8667$, 68.4333 , $SD=6.40976$, 7.09873 , $SEM=1.17026$, 1.29604 , $N=30$) respectively. As a

result the Means for post-test raters 1 and 2 in experimental group were higher than the Means for post-test rater 1 and 2 in control group.

Table 4.10 Table 4.8 Group Statistics (Experimental and Control group)

	group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
post_test_rater1	control	30	62.9333	7.31523	1.33557
	experimental	30	67.2333	7.39377	1.34991
post_test_rater2	control	30	62.8667	6.40976	1.17026
	experimental	30	68.4333	7.09873	1.29604

Table 4.11 shows the p-value that is greater than .05 (.922 > .05) and (.815 > .05). It means that the variability in two groups is about the same. That the scores in one group do not vary too much more than the scores in another group. So the variability in two groups is not significantly different.

Table 4.11 Independent Sample Test (Control and Experimental group)

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means	
		F	Sig.	t	df
post_test_rater1	Equal variances assumed	.010	.922	-2.264	58
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.264	57.993
post_test_rater2	Equal variances assumed	.056	.815	-3.188	58
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.188	57.406

Table 4.12 shows the Sig. (2-Tailed) value. This value is less than .05 (.027 < .05). Because of this it can be concluded that there is a statistically significant difference between the Means of post-test of control and that one experimental group.

Table 4.12 Independent Sample Test (Control and Experimental group)

		t-test for Equality of Means		
		Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
post_test_rater1	Equal variances assumed	.027	-4.30000	1.89895
	Equal variances not assumed	.027	-4.30000	1.89895
post_test_rater2	Equal variances assumed	.002	-5.56667	1.74621
	Equal variances not assumed	.002	-5.56667	1.74621

Table 4.13 shows the 95% confidence interval for the difference between two Means with lower and upper in post-test rater 1 and rater 2.

Table 4.13 Independent Sample Test (Control and Experimental group)

		t-test for Equality of Means	
		95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		Lower	Upper
post_test_rater1	Equal variances assumed	-8.10116	-.49884
	Equal variances not assumed	-8.10117	-.49883
post_test_rater2	Equal variances assumed	-9.06208	-2.07126
	Equal variances not assumed	-9.06285	-2.07049

Figure 4.5 shows the Mean of the control group in post-test rater 1 ($M=67.93$, Std. Dev= 7.315 , $N=30$).

Figure 4.6 shows the Mean of the Control group in post-test rater 2 ($M=67.87$, Std. Dev= 6.41 , $N=30$).

Figure 4.5 Distribution of scores in post-test rater 1- control group

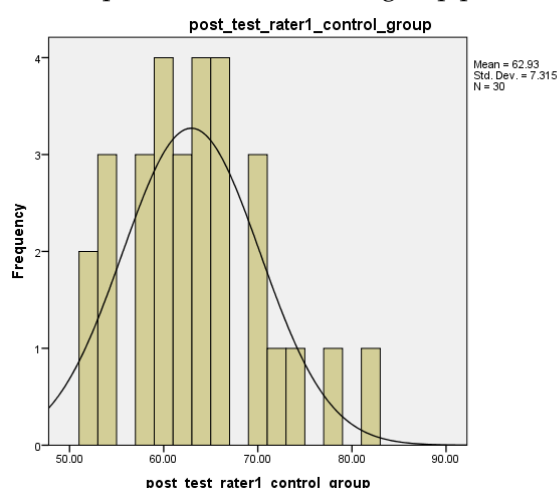
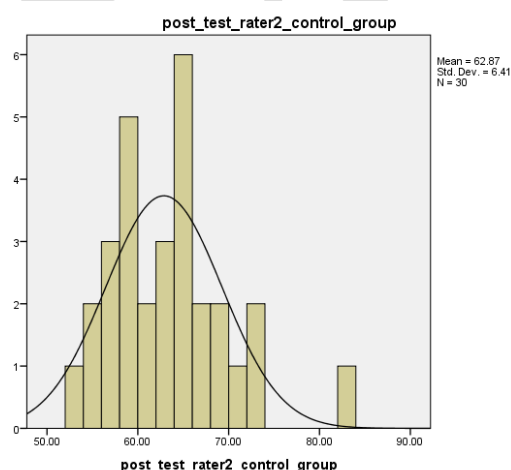


Figure 4.6 Distribution of scores in post-test-rater2-control group post



In addition to the comparison of the grading of the students' pre- and post-test, an attitudinal questionnaire was sent to the students in the experimental classes.

This questionnaire consisted of an item. The item was a statement: 'Using a brainstorming strategy is an efficient way to increase my writing competence'. The students were asked to respond to the statement on a five-point scale ("strongly agree", "agree", "undecided", "disagree", and "strongly disagree"). Of the 30 students in the experimental classes, 9 (30%) strongly agreed and 15 (50%) agreed, with only 6 (20%) undecided. The attitudinal survey indicated that the participants felt positive about the brainstorming strategy. Most of these participants perceived that the strategy helped them improve their English writing performance.

5. Conclusion

The findings of this study imply that the brainstorming strategy instruction was effective in improving students' writing performance. A topic was given to participants as pre and post- writing test and Jacobs et.al Composition Profile (1981) were utilized to collect the data on two variables, the writing skills(scores) as dependent variables and brainstorm technique as independent variables. On the whole, the experimental classes made more gains in terms of the grades awarded. The questionnaires also showed that the students in the experimental classes felt positive about the brainstorming strategy. The result of this study found the proposed technique (brainstorming) had a positive effect on developing post- writing skills of the experimental group in terms of Content, Organization, Language use and Mechanics. So brainstorming could be a useful component in

teaching strategy but the product- based approach may be useful in various academic writing genres as well. The brainstorming strategy is intended to help students move from the product-based approach to process-focused approach in their writing practice. First, students are put in the position of activating their cognitive faculty and second they are prompted to think aloud and call out what they have read and heard in English. They are the masters of the class, while the teacher, instead of dominating the class, works as a facilitator or guide for developing students' potential. In this way, students become more confident and productive in their English writing practice. In addition, the brainstorming technique encourages students' active involvement in the classroom activity. The technique offers the opportunity for students not only to interact with each other but also to share others' opinions. With such personal involvement, students can cultivate their linguistic and communicative competence and develop their ability to express themselves in English. This study has some implications for the different parties involved in the field of ELT learners, teachers, syllabus designers and material developers are all requested to appreciate the role brainstorming technique can play in both ESL and EFL settings. Both learners and teachers should know that brainstorming technique can have greater pedagogical impact on writing. This paper has found that brainstorming technique can help learners to be more active and successful in writing. English language teachers also need to consider the finding of this study to pay more attention on a process not only as a product. Ministry of education in designing English language curriculum take brainstorming technique into account because it plays an important role in motivating students to generate idea and also organize a well- established program to train teachers to gain more experience on brainstorming technique.

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MJLTM

THE EFFECT OF ORAL VERSUS WRITTEN ERROR FEEDBACK ON PARAGRAPH WRITING ABILITY OF IRANIAN LOW- INTERMEDIATE EFL LEARNERS

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ABSTRACT

The present study aimed to investigate the effect of oral versus written error feedback on paragraph writing ability of Iranian low-intermediate EFL learners. The main question this study tried to answer were using oral versus written feedback might enhance paragraph writing ability in Iranian learners in high school. To answer this question, 60 participants were selected from EFL high school learners. The students were randomly selected from among a population of high school learners via a SPT test score of at least one standard deviation below mean. Then they were assigned to two experimental and control groups. A pretest of paragraph writing was administered to all groups, then, two experimental groups were treated two different feedbacks while control one just received the traditional method of teaching writing with no feedback for 4 sessions. Following the treatment, a post test of paragraph writing was administered to the groups. The written paragraph produced by all three groups obtained from a pre-test and post-test are analyzed and compared through analysis of variance (ANOVA) to see whether or not there is any significant difference among these three groups in changes in grammatical accuracy. Analysis of the data demonstrates the positive impact that oral feedback can have on paragraph- writing development, particularly in the area of grammatical accuracy. The findings of this study can be benefit for English teachers to recognize the importance of effective feedback for grammar writing ability of EFL students in high school.

Key words: Written feedback, Oral feedback, Paragraph writing, Metalinguistic feedback, Error, EFL.

1. Introduction

There are many evidences that have proven the effectiveness of corrective feedback in many studies. Many researchers and educators in EFL and ESL context have devoted their efforts to survey suitable error correction for learners in the classroom. Providing informative feedback is essential duty of teachers. It lets students where they are problem and how they can improve their weakness. In the other side, writing is perceived very challengeable for EFL learners (Graham & Perin, 2007). Writing is not a natural ability. It is a learned skill. In writing, students learn letters firstly; then learn how write words, and finally sentences. They learn how to write a paragraph by taking those sentences and organizing them around a common topic. Besides, grammar is an important component of writing, effective writing requires it much more. Many teachers complain about inability of low-intermediate learners in paragraph writing. Their main efforts are to know why the students commit error and how they can improve them.

The present study aimed to analyze paragraph writing ability of low- intermediate students regarded to impact of two kinds of feedback. It considers effect of written feedback versus oral feedback in writing ability of Iranian EFL learners. The researcher hopes the results of this study would provide educators and language teachers in Iran with evidence concerning the effectiveness of oral and written feedback in L2 writing classes of high schools.

2. Review of the literature

Raimes (1983) believes that an important part of teaching process of writing is to provide feedback. "The absence of comments sends the messages to the students that they do not need to revise their text because their meaning has been communicated effectively to the audience" (Alamis, 2010, p. 41). If teachers don't provide enough feedback to correct students' errors, errors would be rooted or fossilized in the learner's cognitive repertoire (Semke, 1984; Valero et al., 2008).

2.1. Oral Feedback

There are some evidences that oral feedback has an important role in L1 writing (Bruffee 1984). Some researchers also believe that face to face conferencing is even more superior to written feedback in many ways (Ferris, 1995a; Ferris et al., 1997; Freedman, 1987b; Hyland, 1998). For example, Race & Brown (1993) pronounced teachers can use tone of voice, facial expression and body language in face to face feedback.

The findings of Nassaji (2007a, p. 320) on effect of negotiation feedback on written errors in an adult ESL classroom demonstrated that "when the feedback involved negotiation, it resulted in more successful correction of the same error by the learners than feedback that involved no, or limited, negotiation".

Mackey and Oliver (2002), Mackey and Philp (1998), and Mackey, Philp, Egi, Fujii, and Tatsumi (2002) investigated effect of oral corrective feedback on syntactic structures and data which showed positive effect of oral corrective feedback.

2.2. Written Feedback

Written corrective feedback has other names, such as teacher commentary (Fazio, 2001), teacher response (Harris, 1977; Searle & Dillon, 1980), teacher comments (Bardine et al., 2000; McAndrew & Reigstad, 2001; Smith, 1989), teacher corrections (Fazio, 2001), and teacher editing (Feng & Powers, 2005).

Race and Brown (1993) declared if students who obtained good grade and be a "grade conscious", they will ignore the feedback. In the contrary, if they obtain low grade, feedback is not considered as a learning tools. In the other words, Students tend to ignore feedback when accompanied by a grade or overall judgment (Black, Harrison, Lee, Marshall, & Wiliam, 2004).

The grammar-syntax-organization approach is one kind of approach for teaching and learning L2 writing (Raimes, 1983). It is a purpose-based approach to writing. Students must infer the vocabulary and structure of a given task. The main focus is internalizing the necessary forms by students.

2.3. Research question

The present study aims to shed some light on the answer to the following research question:

RQ: Are there any significant differences between oral and written correction feedback in paragraph writing ability of Iranian low-intermediate EFL learners?

3. Methods of Research

This study followed a Quasi-Experimental research design. A Solution Placement Test was administered to 100 language learners who were the students of public school Astane Ashrafiye- Iran. The test was intended to homogenize the research population. Following the SPT test they were randomly assigned into three groups: Two experimental groups and one control group. Each group engaged in pretest and posttest in paragraph writing. One experimental group received feedback in form of underlining to indicate the locations of errors, without any explanation. Second group received it in the form of oral explicit correction while third group received no intervention. After 4 treatment sessions, a posttest was took the experimental groups and the control group on paragraph writing ability.

3.1 Participant

The participants of this study comprised of 60 low-intermediate (pre-intermediate) EFL writers. They were all female, and their ages varied from 16 to 17 years. They were all Persian native speakers and had been studying English for four years who studied at a public school of Astane Ashrafiye, Guilan, Iran. Two invalid papers which had bad handwriting discarded and 2 participants were absent in post-test too. . Consequently, in total, fifty six (56) pieces of writing corrected by both researcher and

second rater. The selection was based on Solution Placement Test. Those students whose scores were at least one standard deviation below the mean score of the class, selected as weak writer. Following the SPT test they were randomly assigned into three groups. Two experimental groups: written feedback group consists of 19 learners, 18 participants served as oral feedback group and one control group comprising of 19. Each group engaged in pretest and posttest within a time frame of 30 minutes.

3.1.2 Materials

The Solution Placement test was used for determining participants' level of proficiency. The test consisted of 60 multiple choice vocabulary, grammar and reading comprehension items.

The pre-test and post-test of paragraph writing examined knowledge of participant in selecting appropriate future tense in English. All group wrote a paragraph consist of minimum 20 sentences about "plans for future" topic.

For first experimental group (A), underlining used to indicate the locations of errors, without any explanation and oral explicit correction for second one (B), indicating the errors and the correct forms. At the last, there was no feedback for control group (C).

After 4 sessions, all three groups took a post-test of paragraph writing ability. For the post-test the participants were again asked to write paragraph about same a topic.

3.1.3 Procedures

To answer the research question, a Standard English proficiency test (SPT) was administered to EFL learners of a public school firstly in order to the selected subjects represent the same population in their writing skills. Then 60 participants out of 100 were selected for the purpose of this study. 2 papers and 2 participants excluded in study then totally 56 papers corrected. The criterion for selecting the participants was that their scores should be 1 standard deviation under the mean score in order to select learners with weak ability in writing. Next, they were randomly assigned to two experimental groups and the control group. 19 participants were served as one experimental group (A) while second experimental group (B) had 18 participants and 19 participants served as control group (C).

A pre-test of paragraph writing was administered for all groups. The topic was given to the students write their paragraph writing: "Plans for future". The participants had to write a paragraph containing a minimum number of 20 sentences. They had to use only "will" or "be going to" in their writing. Those sentences which had not followed this structure, they assumed invalid. Those students who had written less or more than 20 sentences, their scores were base on the total number of correct use of "will" and "be going to". They engaged in pre-test within a time frame of 30 minutes. The scoring of pre-test was based on Polio (1997)'s measurement of linguistic accuracy.

In treatment sessions, Group A received indirect focused feedback. The section containing the error was underlined then learners were asked to correct the error. Group B received oral feedback correction in the form of metalinguistic. Group C, as control group hadn't the access to look at their writing after being scored by the researcher. The errors of this group were identified and provided by correct form. In this experiment, each group received the same amount of instruction. Whereas each section time was about 30 minutes or less, writing focuses was more on the sentence level. All instruction and description about difference between the structures of the verb tenses were given in Persian.

After treatment sessions, all groups engaged in posttest of paragraph writing ability in the same first topic. They had to write a paragraph of about maximum number of 20 sentences. The time of writing was about 30 minutes. The same criteria of pre test scoring were allotted.

The present study collected the students' paragraph writing and their scores on pretest and post test, and administered a survey. All the pre- test and post- test writing, 112 pieces in total, produced by the 56 students was collected for the present study.

4. Results

In this study a hypothesis is mentioned about the effect of two different feedbacks (written & oral meta-linguistics) on the paragraph writing ability of high school students in Iran.

It can be concluded that regarding the hypothesis and comparing the results of two experimental groups with that of the control group. There was a significant difference between the

three participating groups; so it can be stated that the first hypothesis is rejected. The data analysis showed that the oral meta-linguistic feedback outperformed the other two groups. Furthermore, the results showed the overall benefit of the feedback on the learners writing ability because the learners in the written group improved their writing to some extent from the pre-test to the post-test.

4.1 Descriptive Analysis of the Data

This part presented the results of data analysis in full detail and described how the data obtained through the SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) software. Table 1 showed the descriptive analysis of the scores by the researcher herself.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics of the researcher's score for pre-test

N	Mean	Median	Mode	SD	Minimum	Maximum	Sum
56	7.44	8.00	10.00	3.47	1.00	16.00	417.00

This table showed that most of the scores distributed around 10. It means that most of the learners got 10. The minimum score was one and the maximum score was 17.

Table 2 showed the descriptive statistics of the second rater. According to this table, the majority of the learners score in the pretest was eight. The low and high score were respectively one and 18.

Table 2. Descriptive statistics of the second rater's score for pre-test

N	Mean	Median	Mode	SD	Minimum	Maximum	Sum
56	7.87	8.00	8.00	4.04	1.00	18.00	441.00

Table 3 revealed that majority of posttest scores given by the researcher herself were clustered around ten. Besides the maximum score was 20.

Table 3. Descriptive statistics of the researcher's score for post-test

N	Mean	Median	Mode	SD	Minimum	Maximum	Sum
56	12.41	12.00	10.00	3.67	5.00	20.00	695.00

The descriptive statistics of the second rater's scores on the post-test have been shown in table 4. It presented that most of the learners got ten.

Table 4. Descriptive statistics of the second rater's score for post-test

N	Mean	Median	Mode	SD	Minimum	Maximum	Sum
56	12.55	12.00	10.00	3.63	4.00	19.00	703.00

Table 5 showed the descriptive analysis for the pretest.

Table 5. Descriptive statistics for writing scores of the groups on pre-test

Group	N	M	SD
written feedback	19	7.94	3.53
Oral feedback	18	7.55	3.95
Control	19	7.47	3.76
Total	56	7.66	3.68

This table showed that the written feedback group ($M = 7.94$, $SD = 3.53$), oral metalinguistic feedback group ($M = 7.55$, $SD = 3.95$), and control group ($M = 7.47$, $SD = 3.76$) have pretty equal means and the participants could be considered as identical in terms of L2 future tense grammar knowledge. Descriptive statistics for writing scores of the groups on post-test has been shown in table 6.

Table 6. Descriptive statistics for writing scores of the groups on post-test

Group	N	M	SD
written feedback	19	11.52	1.86
Oral feedback	18	16.55	1.82
Control	19	9.57	2.61
Total	56	12.48	3.61

It illustrated that the written feedback group ($M = 11.52$, $SD = 1.86$), oral feedback group ($M = 16.55$, $SD = 1.82$), and control group ($M = 9.57$, $SD = 2.61$) did not have equal means and the participants could not be considered as identical in terms of L2 future tense grammar knowledge. It can be concluded that the oral feedback group outperformed groups other groups in posttest.

4.1.2 Inferential Analysis of the Data

This section focused on the inferential analysis of the obtained data of this study. This analysis was conducted through using SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) software from "one-way ANOVA" and "Pearson Product Moment Correlation".

Table 7 indicated the results of one-way ANOVA for the differences among participating groups in terms of pre-test. Table shows that there was not statistically significant differences between groups, $p = .918$, $p > .05$.

Table 7. Results of one-way ANOVA for pre-test scores

	SS	df	MS	F	Sig
Between groups	2.425	2	1.212	.086	.918
Within groups	746.129	53	14.078		
total	748.554	55			

Table 8 indicated the results of one-way ANOVA for the differences among participating groups in terms of post-test. Table 4.10 displays that there was statistically significant differences among groups, $p = .000$, $p < .05$.

Table 8. Results of one-way ANOVA for post-test

	SS	df	MS	F	Sig
Between groups	476.169	2	238.085	52.183	.000
Within groups	241.813	53	4.563		
total	717.982	55			

Table 9. Pearson Correlation between pre- and post-test scores of control group

		Pre-control	Post-control
Pre-control	Pearson Correlation	1	.695**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.001
	N	19	19
Post-control	Pearson Correlation	.695**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	
	N	19	19
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).			

According to table 9 the Pearson's r for the correlation between the pretest and the posttest scores of the control group was 0.695 ($r = 0.695$). It means that the closeness of the scores in the control group was high. As it was clear from the table the Sig. (2-tailed) value was 0.001 ($p = 0.001$). It showed that there is a statistically significant correlation between the two sets of scores of the control group. Also, the number of participants in both the pretest and posttest of the control group was 19.

Table 10. Pearson Correlation between pre- and post-test scores of written group

		Pre-written	Post-written
Pre-written	Pearson Correlation	1	.223
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.358
	N	19	19
Post-written	Pearson Correlation	.223	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.358	
	N	19	19

As it was clear from the table 10, the Pearson's r for the correlation between the pretest and the posttest scores of the written experimental group was 0.223 ($r = 0.223$). It means that the closeness of the scores in the experimental group was low. In fact, it was lower than that of the control group. According to the table the Sig. (2-tailed) value was 0.358 ($p = 0.358$). This value shows if there is a statistically significant correlation between the two sets of scores of the experimental group. As it was shown, there was no significant correlation between the scores of the experimental group. Also, the number of participants in both the pretest and posttest of the experimental group was 19.

Table 11. Pearson Correlation between pre- and post-test scores of oral group

		Pre-oral	Post-oral
Pre-oral	Pearson Correlation	1	.020
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.937
	N	18	18
Post-oral	Pearson Correlation	.020	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.937	
	N	18	18

As it was clear from the table 11, the Pearson's r for the correlation between the pretest and the posttest scores of the oral experimental group was 0.020 ($r = 0.020$). It means that the closeness of the scores in the experimental group was low. In fact, it was lower than that of the control and written group. According to the table the Sig. (2-tailed) value was 0.937 ($p = 0.937$). This value shows if there is a statistically significant correlation between the two sets of scores of the experimental group. As it was shown, there was no significant correlation between the scores of the experimental group. Also, the number of participants in both the pretest and posttest of the experimental group was 18.

5. Discussion

The findings of the present study reveal an overall beneficial effect of oral feedback over written in the acquisition of two future forms. This result is in line with findings of a number of previous studies, such as Bruffee (1984), Nassaji (2007b), Nassaji & Swain (2000), and Sadler (1987). These studies found the overall beneficial effect of oral feedback over written feedback in the acquisition of the target features too.

The findings of Nassaji (2007a, p. 320) on effect of negotiation feedback on written errors in an adult ESL classroom demonstrated that "when the feedback involved negotiation, it resulted in more successful correction of the same error by the learners than feedback that involved no, or limited, negotiation".

The superiority of oral over written in the acquisition of rule-based future forms was presented on the post-test where the oral group test scores on the post-test were better than the written group.

This finding supports results from previous studies also showing a more beneficial effect of oral over written. These studies mostly targeted rule-based grammatical structures (Ammar & Spada, 2006; Ellis et al., 2006). Also, these findings are congruent with Brender (1998) and Fregeau (1999) studies who reported if written feedback coupled with student-teacher conferencing, it would be effective. There are studies (Hedge, 1988; Florio-Ruane and Dunn, 1985; Pattey-Chavez and Ferris, 1997) that have indeed demonstrated the positive effect of oral feedback on the acquisition of grammatical forms. The studies confirmed that face to face communication can lead the students to ask questions, clarify meaning and discuss their writing instead of passive participants. Teachers can provide general feedback to groups of learners and highly specific feedback for individual learners (Race & Brown, 1993).

Furthermore, the findings of the present study indicate that even in a form-oriented EFL context, without enhanced saliency or extra effort in making written explicitly corrective, the effect of written is limited when compared to oral.

In contrast, the pedagogical purpose of oral is much more salient and thus the corrective nature of oral is much easier for learners to perceive. By definition, oral withhold correct forms (and other signs of approval) by clearly indicating that something is wrong in learner sentences, thus leading learners to modify their responses (Lyster, 2004).

Conclusion

Historically, we can find a shift in language pedagogy in the last two decades. By virtue of the very shift, process oriented pedagogy has got more priority than product oriented pedagogy. Consequently, error treatment has been approached differently from traditional perspective. While there is a good deal of emphasis on error correction from theoretical perspective and as a result of research studies carried out, "many L2 teachers are afraid of student written work" (Kepner, 1991, p. 305). The problem is the complete dominance of the negative views about error correction (e.g., Kepner, 1991; Lalande, 1982; Poilo, Fleck, & Leder, 1998; Truscott, 1996), but L2 writers' strong desire for error feedback cannot be easily dismissed and ignored. There is handful evidence in support of the positive effect of negative feedback in different skills (Hyland, 1998). In writing courses, for instance, a large number of teachers hope that their feedback will not only improve their students writing ability but also help their writing and language development.

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ITEM RESPONSE THEORY (IRT): STATE OF THE ART

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ABSTRACT

This state of the art deals with the Item Response Theory as a powerful measurement theory in language testing. This paper has six sections. In the first section, the nature of the IRT is defined. In the second section, the appearance of the IRT is presented. The third section deals with the assumptions underlying the IRT. In the forth section, the advantages of the IRT is reviewed and different models under the IRT are introduced in section five. Finally, the applications of the IRT in language testing are reviewed with regard to a number of studies cited in section six. The main objective of this paper is to help readers to become familiar with the background of the IRT, the theory on which it stands, what it is good for and what not.

1. Introduction

According to Richards, Platt, & Platt, (1992), the Item Response Theory (IRT) is a modern measurement theory, as opposed to the Classical Test Theory. Richards *et al.* (1992) stated that, "IRT is based on the probability of a test taker with a certain underlying ability getting a particular item right or wrong" (p.277).

Indeed, the IRT is a powerful measurement theory that provides a superior means for estimating both the ability levels of test takers and the characteristics of test items (i.e., difficulty and discrimination). According to Musavi (1999), the basic measure used in the Item Response Theory is the probability that a person of specified ability (the so-called latent trait) succeeds on an item of specified difficulty. The latent traits are statistical constructs that are derived mathematically from empirically observed relations among test responses. A rough, initial estimate of an examinee's latent trait is the total score he or she obtains on the test. In order to avoid the false impression created by the term *latent trait*, some of the leading exponents of these procedures have substituted the more precisely descriptive term Item Response Theory or IRT (Henning, 1987; Bachman, 1990; Musavi, 1999). As Musavi (1999) reported:

If certain specific conditions are satisfied, the IRT estimates are not dependent upon specific samples, and are thus stable across different groups of individuals and across different test administrations. This makes it possible to tailor tests to individuals' level of ability, and thus to design tests that are very efficient in the way they measure these abilities (p.196).

These characteristics are specifically helpful for detecting bias (e.g., Differential Item Functioning) and providing computer adoptive tests, among other applications (Bachman, 1990; Richards *et al.*, 1992; Musavi, 1999).

2. The appearance of the Item Response Theory

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

2.1. Classical Test Theory

The CTT or what Bachman (1990) refers to as CTSMT (Classical True Score Measurement Theory) is a test theory which consists of a set of assumptions about observed scores and the relationship between true and error scores:

The CTT assumes that an individual's observed score, a score that an individual obtained in a test, has two additive components: $X=T+E$

True score (T) is the average of the scores an individual is expected to obtain if he/she takes the same test an indefinite number of times. In other words, it is a hypothetical score of an individual's true ability. And, an error score (E) is due to factors other than the ability being tested. Indeed, the better an instrument is at providing an indication of an individual's true ability the larger the T component will be and the smaller the E.

In this theory, one thinks of test items and their aggregates as dependent on the characteristics of groups who respond to them. In other words, test items do not possess characteristics independent of test takers in a specific group so that, the statistics used to describe the tests are sample-specific.

The second assumption has to do with the relationship between true and error scores. Essentially, these assumptions state that error scores are unsystematic or random. Without these assumptions it would not be possible to distinguish true scores from error scores. In fact, this theory, substantially, uses correlational statistics and procedures in item analysis, reliability, and validity estimation.

These assumptions constitute the CTS (Classical Test Score) model's definition of measurement error as that variation in a set of test scores that is unsystematic or random. In summary, the CTS measurement model defines two sources of variance in a set of scores: the true score variance, which is due to differences in the ability of the individuals tested, and measurement error, which is unsystematic, or random. However, CTS had serious limitations. One problem with CTS model was that it treated error variance as homogeneous in origin. A second related problem was that the CTS model considers all errors to be random and consequently fail to distinguish systematic error from random error (systematic error/variance is the result of persistent factors that regularly affect test scores in a consistent way) (Musavi, 1999).

Bachman (1990) believes that a major limitation to CTS is that it cannot predict how a given individual will perform on a given item. There are two reasons for this: first, the CTS theory makes no assumption about the interaction of an individual's level of ability and his test performance. Second, the only information available for predicting an individuals' performance on a given item is the index of difficulty, which is simply the proportion of individuals in a group that responded correctly to the item.

2.2. Generalizability Theory

After that, a broad model for investigating the relative effects of different sources of variance in test scores based on a framework of factorial design named the Generalizability Theory was developed by Cronbach and his colleagues in 1963 (cited in Bachman, 1990). The G-theory was an extension of the classical model that overcame many of its shortcomings and limitations, in that it enabled test developers to examine several sources of variance simultaneously and to distinguish systematic from random error. The G-theory estimates the weight of the factors affecting observed scores and interpret their related effects as contributing to error or ability. Hence, it seems that the CTS is a special case of the G-theory in which there are only two sources of variance: a single ability and a single source of error. In other words, in G-theory, true score notion is replaced by a universe score and as mentioned single random error concept is also replaced by multiple sources of systematic error.

2.3. Item Response Theory

There were some points that could not be simply captured by G-theory. Therefore, the IRT came into vogue to compensate any of the shortcomings of the usual test theories. Indeed, of the three measurement trends—CTT, GT, and IRT—it seems that the IRT has raised much controversy and interest when first introduced to examine the qualities of language tests. The IRT is a modern measurement theory which has long intrigued many researchers and has been applied to diverse disciplines for a wide range of issues. Its vast progression and application in educational settings especially in educational assessment implies that it accrues many advantages in exploring various aspects of language assessment.

The IRT looks at the examinee's performance by using item distributions based on the examinee's probability of success on a latent variable. In essence, the IRT is a modeling technique that tries to describe the relationship between an examinee's test performance and the latent trait underlying the performance (Hambleton & Swaminathan, 1985).

In the opinion of Baker (2001), the IRT is the study of test and items based on assumptions concerning the mathematical relationship between abilities and item responses. In the following figure, the x-axis represents students' ability and the y-axis represents the probability of a correct response to one item.

The s-shaped curve, then, shows the probabilities of a correct response for students with different ability (theta) levels.

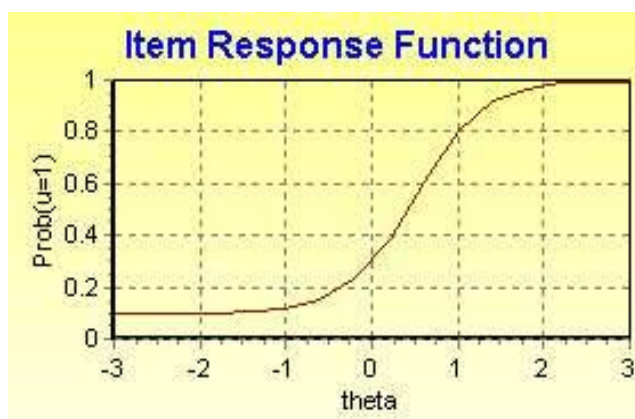


Figure1: Item Response Function (Baker, 2001)

The IRT assumes that an individual's expected performance is a function of both examinee's ability and the parameters of an item. The IRT presents a more powerful approach in that it can provide sample free estimate of individuals' true scores or ability level as well as sample free estimate of measurement error at each ability level (Bachman, 1990). In other words, the IRT estimates are not dependent on a particular group of test-takers or a particular form of a test (Bachman, 2000).

In the IRT, we infer that an underlying abstract construct exists after we have observed the responses to different items go together or co-vary. The IRT explains or statistically accounts for all covariance among items, attributing co-variation to relation between each item and underlying construct (Baker, 2001).

Indeed, the heart of this theory along with the models based on it is the unidimensionality assumption which states that all the items construct one ability or trait. A detailed description of the IRT assumptions is presented here.

3. IRT assumptions

All three most popular models of the IRT (one-, two-, and three-parameter models) are built on several underlying assumptions of unidimensionality, local independence, and speededness.

3.1. Unidimensionality

In the CTS, the assumption of unidimensionality has been already implicitly assumed. However, unidimensionality assumption has been explicitly incorporated in the IRT models. In fact, the Item Response Theory, as Bachman (1990) asserts, is based on stronger or more restrictive assumptions than is the CTS theory.

The IRT is able to make stronger predictions about individuals' performance on individual items, their level of ability, and about the characteristics of individual items. Hence, it appears that, in order to incorporate information about test takers' level of ability, the IRT must make an assumption about the number of abilities being measured. So, IRT models make a specific assumption called unidimensionality. Bachman (1990) described unidimensionality assumption as:

Most IRT models that are currently being applied make the specific assumption that the items in a test measure a single, or unidimensional ability or trait, and that the items form a unidimensional scale of measurement (p.203).

DeMars (2010) in her book *Item Response Theory: Understanding statistics* provides a more comprehensive description of unidimensionality assumption. She asserts that:

A test that is unidimensional consists of items that tap into only one dimension. Whenever only a single score is reported for a test, there is an implicit assumption that the items share a common primary construct. Unidimensionality means that the model has a single θ for each examinee, and any other factors affecting the item response are treated as random error or nuisance dimensions unique to that item and not shared by other items. Violating this assumption may lead to misestimation of parameters or standard errors (p.38).

However, “sometimes test responses can be mathematically unidimensional even when the items measure what psychologists or educators would conceptualize as two different constructs” (DeMars 2010, p.39). This is indeed one caution to be concerned about unidimensionality.

Along the same lines, Henning *et al.* (1985) propose that:

If more than one dominant factor emerges from the test of unidimensionality, it does not necessarily mean that latent trait methodology is no longer applicable, but rather than multiple dimensional tests would be needed to validly represent the performance patterns in the response data. Items could be grouped according to factor loading to construct unidimensional tests of factors indicated. Thus unidimensionality is not related to the unitary trait hypothesis as originally proposed by Oller (1979 cited in Henning *et al.*, 1985), since no claim is made that all language tests must necessarily demonstrate single factor solutions (p.143).

3.2. Local independence

Local independence is another assumption of the IRT. In describing this assumption DeMars (2010, p.48) states that, “if the item responses are not locally independent under a unidimensional model, another dimension must be causing the dependence.”

With tests of local independence, however, the focus is on dependencies among pairs of items. These dependencies might not emerge as separate dimensions, unless they influenced a larger group of items, and thus might not be detectable by tests of unidimensionality. Consequently, separate procedures have been developed to detect local dependencies.

If items are locally independent, they will be uncorrelated after conditioning on θ . Again, it is important to note that the items can (and should) be correlated in the sample as a whole. It is only after controlling for θ that we assume they are uncorrelated (DeMars, 2010).

Bachman (1990) defined local independence as:

Most measurement models, including item-response models, assume that individual test items are locally independent. This is a technical assumption which, in Item Response Theory, implies essentially that a test taker's responses to two different items of the same difficulty are statistically independent, or uncorrelated (p.229).

3.3. Speededness

The IRT models have another underlying assumption which seems to be taken more implicitly. Speededness assumption assumes that examinees should have enough time to answer items which they feel they are able to answer. It is important to note that examinees are not assumed to have enough time to think and answer items that they cannot handle. Rather, it assumes that examinees who are probably able to answer an item should have enough time to answer it in diverse ways like ticking or filling a blank box in answer sheet. Henning (1985) holds that this assumption also underlies other classical test theories when he stated that “speediness is an assumption that is easily met in most language testing situations, and where it cannot be met, it is clear that neither latent trait nor classical measurement theory may be fully applied” (p.142).

4. IRT advantages

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

4.1. Sample-free item calibration

Undoubtedly, the sample-free item calibration characteristic in the IRT in general and in Rasch model in specific is a powerful advantage because in classical measurement the difficulty-level estimated for any given item will vary widely with the average ability of the particular sample of examinees observed. In other words, in classical measurement the estimates are dependent on the ability-level of that specific group. This means that one item may be estimated as easy if answered by a group of high-ability level group or difficult if answered by a group of low-ability level group.

In contrast, in the IRT an item difficulty estimate will be driven independent of ability differences of any particular group of examinees.

4.2. Test-free person measurement

The estimation of examinees' level of ability in the IRT is independent of the group of examinees and items when calibrated. In classical measurement theories—CTT and G-theory—we approach the ability estimates in an interval scale of confidence through the use of standard error of measurement to be sure where in the scale a score falls on the performance of a group, while IRT offers individual ability estimates independent of the group of examinees and sample of items (Bachman, 1990).

Indeed, it is impossible to administer a test to one person and a different test to another person and then make direct comparisons of ability unless both tests would be administered to the same large group of persons. However, Henning (1987) admired the aforementioned advantage when he stated that, "in latent trait measurement it is possible to compare abilities of persons using different tests by referring to a small link of common items or common persons" (p.109).

4.3. Multiple reliability estimation

In traditional measurement theories like CTS and G-theory, one global estimate of reliability is obtained by any appropriate method for any given test. Henning (1987) asserts that, "while this is a useful procedure, it is not altogether satisfactory." Since, as he continues there is a fact that, "measurement of ability tends to be more reliable near the mean of scoring distribution than at either end" (p.109). Bachman (1990) touches on the same issue at hand as follows:

There are a number of limitations on both CTS theory and G-theory with respect to estimating the precision of measurement. First, estimates of both reliability and generalizability, and the standard errors of measurement associated with them are sample dependent, so that scores from the same test administered to different groups of test takers may differ in their reliabilities. A second limitation is that error variance is treated as homogeneous across individuals, so that estimates of reliability and generalizability are based on group rather than individual performance. That is, measurement error is assumed to be the same for individuals whose test performance is excellent, poor, or average, so that a low score on a test is regarded just as reliable an indicator of ability as an average score (p.207).

On the other hand, the IRT provides precise estimates of ability and reliability at any point along the ability continuum. Along the same lines, Henning (1987) argues that:

One global estimate of reliability should not be applied uniformly in evaluating the accuracy of scores for every individual examinee. In Latent Trait Measurement the standard error of measurement is determined for every possible point along the scoring continuum. This standard error measure may be derived for estimates of both person ability and item difficulty. Thus, with Latent Trait Theory, reliability estimation goes beyond a global estimate for a given test to a confidence estimate associated with every possible person and item score on that test (p.109).

4.4. Test equating facility

Tests are statistically parallel or equivalent if they could demonstrate equal means, equal variances, and equal co-variances (Henning, 1987). Indeed, satisfying these rigorous criteria is sufficiently difficult.

According to classical measurement theory, equated tests require the administration of that test forms in their entirety to the same large sample of examinees. Then, some procedures like regression or equipercentile methods should be adopted. Actually, as Henning (1987) argues it is often difficult to find a sufficiently large sample of persons who have time to participate in the administration of two or more tests within a short period of time. Even though such samples are found, the fatigue associated with the administration of so many test items in such a short time can often invalidate the overall results.

Conversely, IRT can greatly facilitate equating of tests. In IRT, by means of a group of common linking items (perhaps only ten or more), Henning (1987) believes that scores on one test form can be equated with those on the other forms, even if the two forms are administered to different samples.

4.5. Test tailoring facility

In traditional language tests even standardized tests, SEM and cut-off scores were used in making decisions on acceptance/rejection of individuals. However, SEM is dependent on the means of different groups of samples. Drawing on the fact that Item and Test Information Function is at its maximum around the mean, and that items lower or higher than cut-off score make little or no contribution to make decision regarding this in an ability continuum, IRT has been able to settle the

problem. In IRT, once items have been calibrated, items can be loaded around the intended point, i.e. cut-off score, so that a lot of information is provided using fewer items. Hence, it is possible to use those items in the construction of tests appropriate to specific measurement needs (Henning, 1987). The important point here is that the information in the tailored test has been concentrated at the decision-making cut off points. So, they can provide much greater decision accuracy than the standardized test. Fewer students will be wrongly accepted or wrongly rejected just through the simple use of Item Response Theory.

4.6. Item banking facility

Once items have been calibrated according to the IRT, teachers, educators, and other pedagogues can store them in a bank according to their level of difficulty for future usage.

4.7. Study of item and test bias

Traditionally, test bias was studied either with analyzing the whole test as a unit or relying on a group of experts to rate individual items as biased for or against some group of persons (Henning, 1984).

However, "IRT has the advantage that it permits the quantification of the magnitude and direction of bias for individual items or persons" (Henning, 1987, p. 114). This advantage can even correct test bias through removal, revision, or counterbalancing of biased items.

4.8. Item and person fit validity measures

In classical measurement theory, criterion-related or construct validity of an item may be discovered through correlational methods, given an appropriate criterion. However, the actual response validity associated with a person or an item is not estimated *per se*. The IRT provides this additional information due to its probabilistic nature, too. It is, indeed, possible to quantify for any person or item the magnitude of the departure of a given pattern of responses from the pattern predicted by the model (Henning, 1984).

It is important to note that, the IRT has lots of advantages some of which are beyond the scope of the present paper. Other advantages are identification of guessers and other deviant responses, potential ease of administration and scoring, economy of items, recognition of norm-referenced and criterion-referenced testing, score reporting facility.

5. IRT models

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

6. Applications of the IRT in language testing

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

In one line of the study, the IRT models were used to detect any item bias which existed in language tests. Bias in tests has become an important issue in recent years. According to Drasgow (1984), test scores are unbiased if they have identical relations with the attribute measured by the test in all subgroups of interest. Ironson (1982) declared that an item is considered biased if individuals with equal ability but from different groups do not have the same probability of answering the item correctly. As stated by Djiwandono (2006), bias can be present as gender, ethnic, religious, social class, or cultural bias. Hence, it can be stated that by test bias, "we mean a formalization of the intuitive idea

that a test is less valid for one group of examinees than for another group in its attempt to assess examinee differences in a prescribed latent trait" (Shealy & Stout, 1991). Seriously, it is emphasized that Item Response Theory provides the most theoretically sound framework for studying item bias (Lord, 1980; Wright, 1977). According to Wright (1977), the sample invariant quality of the parameters of the IRT models makes this method of item bias detection least sensitive to distributional differences in groups.

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

Madsen and Larson (1986) conducted a similar piece of research. They used Rasch model to analyze the three subsets of grammar, listening, and reading in an ESL test. Their hypothesis was that there would be identifiable patterns of items generating poor fit statistics, which could be accounted for by the candidates' native language background. In order not to violate the most important assumption of IRT models, i.e. unidimensionality, the three subsets of the test were analyzed separately. Finally, Madsen and Larson (1986) could identify bias in the grammar and listening subtests in favor of intermediate students, i.e. low ability candidates found these subtests more difficult. They noted, however, that such performance may be the result of factors other than test bias as well.

Shealy and Stout (1991), in their study, presented a multidimensional non-parametric IRT model of test bias. They explained how individually-biased items can combine through a test score to produce test bias. They claimed that bias, though expressed at the item level, should be studied at the test level. The model postulated an intended-to-be-measured target ability and nuisance determinants whose differing ability distributions across examinee group cause bias. They finally concluded that multiple nuisance determinants can produce item bias cancellation resulting in little or no test bias and detection of test bias requires a valid subtest whose items measure only target ability. A long-test viewpoint of bias was also developed in their study.

In a related vein, Pae (2004) undertook a DIF study of examinees with different academic backgrounds using Item Response Theory. Participants were 14000 examinees (7000 Humanities and 7000 Sciences) randomly selected from among 839,837 examinees who took the 1998 Korean National Entrance Exam for Colleges and Universities. He used Item Response Theory and Mantel-Haenszel procedures to analyze the data. Pae (2004) reported that seven items were easier for the Humanities whereas nine items were in favor of the Sciences group.

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

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

In another line of study, the IRT models were used for the purpose of item banking in the field of language testing. As Beeston (2000) stated, an item bank is a large collection of test items that have been classified and stored in a database so that at a later time, they can be chosen for new tests. The items are all classified according to certain characteristics such as the topic of a text, the testing point

for an item as well as statistical information about item difficulty. Beeston (2000) continued that, it is important that all of the item difficulties have been located on a common scale of difficulty so that any combination of items can be put into a new test and the item difficulties added together to give a precise measure of the difficulty of that test. This is, in fact, a very application of the IRT. As in the opinion of Szabó (2008) "it is probably item banking and computer adaptive testing that have received the most attention in IRT-related language testing research" (p.69).

Yuji (2010) was also of the same opinion when he quoted:

Among the applications of the Rasch model, item banking is a useful one for language testing. Item banking is creating a pool of items with known and invariant measurement characteristics. The Rasch model provides estimates of item difficulties which are meaningful irrespective of ability level tested. In a Rasch analysis, different tests can be formed into an overlapping chain through the employment of anchor items, which are common to adjacent forms. The forms can be targeted to particular groups of learners, yet linked into a common scale (Council of Europe, 2001 cited in Yuji, 2010, p.168).

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

Later, Henning, Johnson, Boutin, & Rice in 1994 described a computer based, though not computer adaptive testing system at the Defense Language Institute English Language Center, which, using an item bank, assembles equivalent versions of a four-component English language test. Henning, *et al.* (1994) checked equivalence based on the comparison of mean score difficulty, total score variance, and intercorrelation covariance of four randomly selected tests. The results showed that the four tests proved to be equivalent, which indicates that computerized assembly of tests from banked items can operate very effectively.

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

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

Fulcher (1997) described the evaluation of an English language placement test at the University of Surrey. In the course of reliability estimation, Rasch fit statistics were used along with the test information functions.

In a more recent study, Stewart & Gibson (2012) investigated reliability under the Item Response Theory. They particularly examined the reliability of a well-known and widely used test of English language proficiency – TOEIC Bridge practice test – under one- and three-parameter item response models.

Beside the IRT application in estimating reliability, some scholars focus on its practical role in validation studies. For example, Linn (1989), in his famous report – Has Item Response Theory increased the validity of achievement test scores? – dealt with the ways in which IRT has and can contribute to increased validity and the ways in which it may decrease validity. He asserted that,

By raising fundamental questions about issues such as those illustrated by the controversy over scale properties or the content representation required for valid normative comparisons based on customized tests, IRT has increased the likelihood that more valid interpretations will be made of achievement test scores. It also has the potential of contributing to validity by forcing more careful consideration of content specifications and pointing to situations where better coverage of sparsely sampled content areas is needed (p.12).

He also pointed out where IRT can have negative consequences if misused. As reported by Linn (1989),

Assuming that content can be ignored on a customized test because the items have been calibrated is one example of such misuse. Limiting our definition of achievement to items that fit a unidimensional IRT model for a relatively broad content domain such as mathematics concepts and applications for achievement in a subject area such as biology would be a more serious mistake (p.13).

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

Elsewhere, Embretson and Reise (2000), in their book, focused on how Item Response Theory can contribute to substantive issues like construct validity.

In a construct validation study, deJong and Glas (1987) compared the performance of native speakers with that of non-native speakers on a test of foreign language listening comprehension by using Rasch model and Conditional Maximum Likelihood estimation to examine construct validity of the test. It was suggested that native speakers would have a greater chance of answering correct items than that of non-native speakers but this may not be the case with misfitting items. There would be more overlap in their responses to misfitting items.

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

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

Henning, Hudson, and Turner (1985) investigated the appropriateness of Rasch analysis to construct a single dimension. In their study, the performances of 300 candidates on the UCLA English as a Second Language Placement Examination were examined. The ESLPE test included 150 multiple choice questions and the responses to them were analyzed using Rasch one parameter model. Henning *et al.* (1985) asserted that no test could strictly be said to measure only one trait due to other confounding factors like cognitive and affective ones. Henning *et al.* concluded that IRT and Rasch in particular, are robust enough with regard to unidimensionality to be used in language test development and analysis.

In another similar type of study, Choi and Bachman (1992) examined the appropriateness and adequacy of one-, two-, and three-parameter Item Response Theory models to analyze response data from reading comprehension items of TOEFL and also FCE (First Certificate in English). They found a noticeable difference in residual patterns of two- and three-parameter models, and one-parameter model which assumes equal discrimination. This study also discussed misfitting items.

In another study on the appropriateness of Rasch model in language testing, Henning (1992) constructed artificial data sets and showed that psychological unidimensionality is not dependent on psychometric unidimensionality or vice versa. He also found that psychological unidimensionality may be present in the context of psychometric unidimensionality. The reverse is also the case, that is, psychometric unidimensionality may be present in the context of psychological multidimensionality. This conclusion, on the one hand, revealed great implications to the appropriacy of Rasch analysis in language test data, and on the other hand, it corroborates empirically that psychometric unidimensionality is different from Oller's unitary hypothesis.

Further to language testing, the IRT models have been used in other fields of study. All in all, as Reeve (2003) asserted, despite the challenges, the many advantages of the IRT should not be ignored. He continues that, knowledge of IRT is spreading within the academic disciplines of psychology, education, and public health. More books and tutorials are being written on the subject and more user-friendly software is being developed.

7. Conclusions

The Item Response Theory is being used increasingly in the development and analysis of language tests. The use of the IRT as a means for generating valid and precise information about students' learning competencies is not only promising, but also is widely practiced in the community of testing centers across the globe. As a matter of fact, the IRT is a necessary tool which has to be available at any testing center should they want to make valid and reliable large scale test instruments.

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THE IMPACT OF SELF-ASSESSMENT ON EFL LEARNERS' CRITICAL THINKING

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ABSTRACT

The current study investigated the possibility that there might be an impact of self-assessment on Iranian intermediate EFL learner Critical thinking and language proficiency. Therefore, two groups each with 25 intermediate learners served as the experimental and control group. In the experimental group, self-assessment was practiced. To evaluate students' critical thinking ability, the Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal (CTA) Form A was employed and PET was used as the measure of proficiency. The results of the study indicate that learner' critical thinking increases as the effect of self-assessment. Self-assessment can also affect the learners' proficiency in general.

Key words: Self-assessment, EFL learners, critical thinking, language proficiency

1. Introduction

Critical thinking is a complex concept so each author brings their own view to it. According to Ennis (2011) critical thinking is the ability to think clearly and rationally. It includes the ability to engage in reflective and independent thinking; the ability to decide what to do or what to believe. Halpern (2000) defines critical thinking as the use of cognitive skills or strategies that increase the probability of a desirable outcome. He argues that critical thinking is purposeful, reasoned, and goal- directed. It is the kind of thinking involved in solving problems, formulating inferences, calculating likelihoods, and making decisions.

Paul (1988) looked at critical thinking as learning how to ask and answer questions of analysis, combination and appraisal and "the ability to reach sound conclusions based on observations and information" (p. 50). As Zhang (2003) said "The ideal critical thinker is habitually inquisitive, well-informed, trustful of reason, open-minded, flexible, fair-minded in evaluation, honest in facing personal biases, prudent in making judgments, willing to reconsider, clear about issues, orderly in complex matters, diligent in seeking relevant information, reasonable in the selection of criteria, focused in inquiry, and persistent in seeking results which are as precise as the subject and the circumstances the inquiry permit." (p. 1).

As such, critical thinking is a liberating force in education and a powerful resource in one's personal and civic life. While not synonymous with good thinking, critical thinking is a pervasive and a self-rectifying human phenomenon. The ideal critical thinker is habitually inquisitive, well-informed, trustful of reason, open-minded, flexible, fair-minded in evaluation, honest in facing personal biases, prudent in making judgments, willing to reconsider, clear about issues, orderly in complex matters, diligent in seeking relevant information, reasonable in the selection of criteria,

focused in inquiry, and persistent in seeking results which are as precise as the subject and the circumstances of inquiry permit. Thus, educating good critical thinkers means working toward this ideal. It also combines developing critical thinking skills with nurturing those dispositions which consistently yield valuable insights and which are the basis of a rational and democratic society" (Facione,1990).

The effective part of CT in education is an evaluation component (Halpern, 2002) and evaluation is one part of self-assessment process. Gardner (2000) pointed out self-assessments provide learners personalized feedback on the effectiveness of their learning strategies, specific learning methods and learning materials. Learners can use this feedback to evaluate their approach to language learning. He claimed that this is part of learners' reflection about learning, so in selecting, administering and considering the results of self-assessments learners must necessarily reflect on their goals, strategies and achievements. He also added self-assessments provide milestones in the ongoing process of reflection that all autonomous learners are engaged in, and evaluative feedback can also help teachers to enhance their support of learners.

2. Research Questions and Hypotheses

1. Does self-assessment improve EFL learners' critical thinking?
2. Does self-assessment improve EFL learners' English language proficiency?

3. Methodology

The participants were 50 both male and female adult English learners all intermediate studying English in 2 classes. In one, self-assessment was practiced and the other class served as the control group. None of the candidates knew that they were part of a research project so there was a kind of randomization to ensure the validity of the results. The students' proficiency was measured using PET to collect the data on the students proficiency test, the Persian version of Critical Thinking Questionnaire (CTQ) was administered in class prior to the study as a pre-test and after the implementation span at the end of the twenty-four sessions as a post-test. Regarding validity, the Watson-Glaser test enjoys all areas of face, content, criterion and construction validity (Mirzai, 2012). In the present study, the Persian version of the Watson-Glaser test, Form A (WGCTA-FA) was used to measure the participants' critical thinking .The test consists of five subsections, namely drawing inferences, recognizing assumptions, making deductions, interpreting evidence, and evaluating arguments, each comprising 16 items. The appraisal is not subject- specific and can be completed in 60 minutes. According to Mohammadyari (2002), this test and its subscales do have reliability and validity in Iranian context. To analyze the reliability of the questionnaire, she utilized split-half reliability estimate. With the adapted version in Iran, the reliability was found to be 0.98 and the results of the factor analysis provided some support for the inventory hypothesized structure (Mohammadyari, 2002). The test-retest reliability of the original version of this critical thinking appraisal ($r = 0.81$) has been reported by (Glaser 1980), and the reliability coefficient of its Farsi version has been estimated by Cronbach's Alpha to be ($\alpha = 0.85$) in (Faravani 2006).

Table.1: five subsections in the Critical Thinking Questionnaire

Section	Number of items	Focus
Subsection 1	16 items	Drawing inferences
Subsection 2	16 items	Recognizing assumptions
Subsection 3	16 items	Making deductions
Subsection4	16 items	Interpreting evidence
Subsection 5	16 items	Evaluating arguments

To ensure that the groups are not significantly different in terms of CT, the Critical Thinking Questionnaire (CTQ) was administered as a pretest to both groups and the data obtained were analyzed using independent t-test (table.2).The results show that there is no significant difference between the groups ($.80 > .05$)

Table: 2. statistics for CTQ as a pretest.

	VAR00002	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Mean	Error t	df	Sig(2-tailed)
VAR00001	Control	25	72.92	17.12	3.42	.254	48	.80
	EXP	25	71.60	19.51	3.90			

Different subsections of the CT questionnaire used in the study were analyzed using t-test. The mean of post-test PET tests were compared using t-test to determine any significant difference between the groups in terms of proficiency.

3.1. Statistical Data Analysis of Critical Thinking Questionnaire (CTA) Subsections

The CTA was administered to the group before and after the treatment span. To find out whether the participants' Critical thinking was fostered, an independent samples t-test was run so that the mean value of the post-test in each dimension of the CAT in the control group could be compared to the mean value of those of the experimental group in the post-test. The posttest mean scores of each subsection in each group were compared and the results are presented below.

Table. 3: Statistics for Subsections of CTQ

Subsections		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Subsection 1	Cnt	25	51.10	10.70	2.14	3.44	48	.001
	Exp	25	58.86	13.41	2.68			
Subsection 2	Cnt	25	5.12	1.87	.37	4.19	48	.000
	Exp	25	6.28	1.13	.22			
Subsection 3	Cnt	25	5.58	2.13	.42	1.89	48	.064
	Exp	25	6.50	1.15	.23			
Subsection 4	Cnt	25	6.80	1.73	.34	3.25	48	.002
	Exp	25	8.8	.80	.16			
Subsection 5	Cnt	25	7.92	1.38	.27	4.55	48	.000
	Exp	25	9.52	1.08	.21			

The first subsection- drawing inferences-contains 16 items. In this subsection of the CTA, the Likert scale was used. Table 3 indicates that there is a difference in the extent the students in groups are ready to participate in self-assessment activities when learning English after the implementation period.

The second subsection- recognizing assumptions- as observed in Table 3, there seems to be an impact of self-assessment on critical thinking. The third subsection of the questionnaire aims to discover making deductions of the learners. The dimension has got sixteen items too. As indicated in table.3 self-assessment cannot affect the learners' critical thinking in this subsection.

The fourth subsection of the questionnaire evaluates the interpreting evidence of learners in term of their critical thinking. Table.3 highlights the positive impact of self-assessment on interpreting evidence. The sixteen items in the fifth subsection aim to investigate the learners' attitudes toward the evaluating arguments. As the table.3 shows the attitude of the learners in the experimental group increased rather than control group.

The CTQ used in this study aims to survey to what extent the students' CT can increase. Accordingly, it was favorable that the experimental group has higher scores which may show a stronger

orientation toward Critical thinking after the twenty-four sessions implementation span. In this section, the critical thinking of the participants will be analyzed as whole.

Table: 4. statistics for CTQ as a posttest.

	VAR00002	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	t	df	Sig(2-tailed)
VAR00001	Control	25	76.52	20.70	4.14	2.10	48	.040
	EXP	25	89.96	24.24	4.84			

As shown in table 4, the experimental (EXP) group has reached the mean of 89.96 which increased as compared to the mean of the control group which is 76.52. Also the significance of .040 which is less than the alpha decision level (.05) is an indication of the significant difference between the groups as a whole.

3.2. Results and Discussion of PET as the Proficiency Test

Since the study was an investigation of the impact of the self-assessment both on learner CT and general proficiency, the same version of PET was also used as the posttest to find out whether practicing self-assessment has any impact on the proficiency of language learners.

Table5. Statistics for PET as the post test

	VAR00002	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	t	df	Sig(2-tailed)
VAR00001	Control	25	61.04	7.44	1.48	2.22	48	.031
	EXP	25	68.84	15.90	3.18			

Based on what is depicted in table.5 it can be concluded that self-assessment has positive impacts on language proficiency.

4. Conclusion

As Campbell, Dewall, Roth, and Stevens (1998; 1) expose that self-assessments “provided students with a greater sense of ownership of their work, a more enthusiastic approach to learning, and the increased use of higher-order thinking”. Smith (1997) also emphasizes the importance of self-assessment and maintains that it helps to students become independent learners and one of the most characteristics of independent learners is to think critically. The present study attempts to investigate a way to improve learner critical thinking in an Asian context. Self-assessment was practiced as a way to develop learner critical thinking. The results indicate that self-assessment can enhance learner critical thinking in general and in all subsections except subsection three. It also helped the learners to improve their proficiency. Develops some of the subsections and not all, it can be resulted that self-assessment causes to increase higher-order thinking or CT.

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ATTITUDES OF IRANIAN ADMINISTRATORS, STUDENTS AND TEACHERS TOWARDS THE USE OF INTERACTIVE WHITEBOARDS IN EFL CLASSROOMS A CASE STUDY IN ANDIMESHK HIGH SCHOOLS

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ABSTRACT

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

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

Introduction

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

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

Background of the Study

In recent years, computers and computer-related technologies, such as IWBs, have increasingly begun to be used in language teaching and learning settings. Technologically developed countries such as the UK, the USA, and Australia have invested a great deal of money in such technological equipment. With respect to IWBs in particular, a national survey in England in 2005 found that nearly half (49%) of primary school teachers had used IWBs, and in secondary schools, 77% of math teachers, 67% of science teachers and 49% of English teachers said they had used IWBs (BECTA, 2005). In financial terms, this has meant that in a recent five year period £50 million was spent on IWBs (DfES, 2004b). There is increasing interest in the potential of this technology worldwide (Bell, 2002; Hodge & Anderson, 2007; Kent, 2004), including in countries like Iran, Andimeshk, where, though this technology is quite new, it is attracting educators' attention day by day.

Interactive whiteboards have been argued to provide certain benefits for students. Firstly, using IWBs has been claimed to increase student motivation and enjoyment (BECTA, 2003a).

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

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

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

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

In this case, the teacher may be seen as more passive and as less involved in the teaching process.

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

Yet, if there are only one or two classrooms equipped with IWBs, students and teachers may suffer from inadequate access to IWB technology (Smith, 1999). With all these claimed benefits and possible disadvantages of IWBs, what do those who use them think about them? To explore the attitudes of students and teachers towards the use of IWBs, a few studies in different content classes have been conducted, such as Glover and Miller (2001), Lee and Boyle (2004), Hall and Higgins (2005), and

Kennewell and Morgan (2003). Aside from generally reporting positive attitudes on the parts of students and teachers alike towards IWBs, these attitude studies have provided important information to help educators form informed and scientifically supported opinions about this new technology - a crucial first step with any new innovation in educational settings.

Statement of the Problem

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

Various studies have investigated the attitudes of students and teachers towards CALL (Arkin, 2003; Bebell, O'Conner, O'Dwyer, & Russell, 2003; Lin, 2001; Passey & Rogers, 2004; Pekel, 1997; Tuzcuoglu, 2000) and several studies have looked at the student and teachers attitudes towards the use of interactive whiteboards in particular (Glover & Miller, 2001; Gray et al., 2005; Hall & Higgins, 2005; Kennewell & Morgan, 2003; Lee & Boyle, 2004; Levy, 2002; Moss, Jewitt, Levaâiç, Armstrong, Cardini, Castle, 2007; Schmid, 2006; Wall, Higgins, Smith, 2005). Of the latter studies only two looked specifically at IWB use in language learning contexts (Gray et al., 2005; Schmid, 2006), and of these, both were small-scale qualitative studies looking at specific groups of ESL learners and teachers.

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

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

Research Questions

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

Significance of the Study

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

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

institutions in the language teaching field to make informed decisions about whether to invest in this technology, and to better understand what they need to do if they decide to make this commitment.

Benefits of IWBs for Teachers

Research has also noted benefits that IWBs provide for teachers. Using IWB based resources may reduce time spent in writing and leave more time for teaching (Levy, 2002), and materials generated in the classroom can be saved, printed, and reused later (Levy, 2002; Walker, 2002). In addition, teachers have pointed out that they are more inventive, creative, and effective in their explanations when they use IWBs (Levy, 2002; Wall et al., 2005). Furthermore, since teachers can provide immediate feedback to the learners and incorporate more samples (Cuthell, 2005), IWBs may increase the pace of teaching and give an opportunity to the teachers to be more flexible (Kennewell, 2001; Moss et al., 2007). IWBs have also been argued to make it easier for teachers to keep the class together, keep the students' attention longer, and motivate students (Kennewell & Beauchamp, 2007; Smith, 1999).

Levy (2002) states that when the teachers use materials prepared before class, they save time for other teaching activities. With IWBs, teachers can allocate more time for the students, focusing on individual problems, extra challenging tasks, and communicative activities, because they do not spend a lot of time writing on the board. Normally, when the teacher is writing on the board, he/she is facing the board not the class, so the teacher might not keep control over the class.

In Wall et al.'s (2005) study, which was conducted with 80 students at 12 English primary schools, pupils commented that they felt their teacher was more inventive and active during the IWB-based class. The teacher seemed better able to find original ideas or interesting ways to teach the subjects in a fun way. Because of this, the students were no longer bored. Levy (2002) also mentions reports of teachers' being considered more effective with their explanations because IWBs have many visual materials and vivid illustrations. Her participants felt IWBs made the teaching process more interesting, interactive, and exciting.

Another benefit of IWBs noted in some studies is that they increase the pace of teaching and give the opportunity to teachers to be more flexible (Kennewell, 2001; Moss et al., 2007). According to Kennewell (2001), a wide range of internet resources made accessible by the IWB allows the teacher to choose materials flexibly in order to cover the diverse needs and consider the different characteristics of the students in a classroom. In addition, Moss et al. (2007) point out that the pace of teaching can be increased by bringing in and moving between the texts or materials quickly. When learner characteristics are taken into consideration, it was shown that for students who are quick and good at learning new items, the pace of the lesson can be increased and the lesson can be made more challenging with extra materials.

Drawbacks and Difficulties of Interactive Whiteboards

Although the benefits of IWBs in the literature outnumber the drawbacks, studies have also shown that there are some important difficulties and drawbacks which may hinder the expansion of this technology. The lack of teachers' confidence and competence in using IWBs (Glover & Miller, 2001; Hall & Higgins, 2005; Levy, 2002; Wall et al., 2005), extra time needed for the planning and preparation of the materials (Gray et al., 2005; Levy, 2002), the need for special training (Gray et al., 2005; Hall & Higgins, 2005; Levy, 2002; Moss et al., 2007), and technical issues such as the possibility of breaking down, the need for recalibration, and position of the board (Hall & Higgins, 2005; Levy, 2002; Wall et al., 2005) are the main problems or difficulties that both students and teachers face while using this technology.

In Levy's (2002), Hall and Higgins's (2005), and Wall et al.'s (2005) studies, some pupils reported that the lack of teachers' competence in using IWBs causes problems during the lessons. For instance, if the teacher is not comfortable with finding necessary files, the students get bored and the real value of this technology is not understood. This kind of competence includes both technical and pedagogical aspects of IWB use. In other words, the teacher should know how to benefit from IWBs both in terms of teaching techniques and flexibility of using the resources for the different needs of students. According to Levy (2002), teachers who have confidence in ICT are more comfortable with the use of IWBs. This finding demonstrates that teachers should receive training to integrate ICT and IWB technology into classroom settings.

In line with this, many studies indicate that there is a need for training in order to take advantage of IWB technology fully. Levy (2002) states that teachers who have no or little knowledge of ICT should receive special training in the use of IWBs individually, in particular, because some teachers may have barriers regarding the use of technology and need more time and practice to be confident in using the technology in class. Hall and Higgins (2005) point out that teachers should be trained to learn not only technical but also pedagogical aspects of IWB technology and this training should be continuous. In addition, Moss et al. (2007) and Gray et al. (2005) stress the importance of training to help teachers understand the real value of IWBs for teaching and learning and the role of training for personal development in order to be more effective and creative teachers.

Both Gray et al. (2005) and Levy (2002) reveal that teachers need more time to prepare resources and plan IWB-based lessons. Teachers cannot use their traditionally prepared materials for IWB-installed classrooms. They have to plan when to display extra materials, how to design the activities so that more interaction can take place in the class with the help of the IWB, and determine what kind of activities to use to enhance the learning process. They also have to plan the amount of time they will allocate for the actual use of the IWB during the class time, because some students may find it boring when IWBs are overused (Levy, 2002).

Since this technology is more complicated compared to traditional blackboards or overhead projectors (OHP), technical problems may occur more often. In Levy (2002), students reported that half of the time IWBs do not work properly and sometimes if they break down, the teacher may not have anything to use for rest of the class time. Some students also complained about the difficulty of using the electronic pen and noted problems related to the manipulation of the images on the board. In Hall and Higgins (2005), some students reported the problem of freezing, which means the teacher, has to switch the IWB off and on again. In this case, the teacher has to reload everything, which wastes time. In addition, if the IWB does not display the images and texts properly, it needs recalibration and this process has to be repeated each time if the place of the whiteboard is changed. Lastly, the positioning of the IWB is also very important (Smith, 2001). Especially for young students it is easier to touch and write on the board if the IWB is mounted at a suitable height.

According to Gray et al. (2005), use of the IWB in conjunction with PowerPoint can lead teachers to a “show and tell” style of teaching, which pushes students to be more passive. In their study, one of the teachers stated that the IWB changed the teachers’ role, making them less involved in the teaching process because they only deliver the material for the students with the help of the IWB. This in turn may cause a decline in the authority of the teacher in the classroom. Another point about the use of IWBs is that there are different types of interactivity when IWBs are used in the lessons. The interaction can be between pupils and pupils, teachers and pupils, and IWBs and pupils (Birmingham, Davies & Greiffenhagen, 2002). If IWBs are not used as tools for enhancing the interaction between pupils and IWBs in a proper way, the teacher’s role in the classroom can be questioned by the students.

Another study (Gray et al., 2007) indicates that due to the increase in the pace of the lesson through the quick manipulation of images, the result may be limited interaction between the teacher and the students. Furthermore, according to Goodison (2003), teachers are cautious that their lessons may become more teacher-centered if too much focus is given to the IWB technology. They caution that there must be a balance between the use of IWBs and traditional teaching activities and techniques, which give more opportunity to the teachers to take responsibility for the teaching process.

As it is expensive to invest in computer technology, educators have to reconsider their priorities and budgets. Harris (2005) points out that IWB technology is not cheap, for instance, the least expensive IWB costs approximately £1500 (3750 YTL). Not all schools can afford this technology investment without a government policy and some kind of funding. However, infrared kits are the cheapest kind of IWB technology, providing many basic functions of IWBs, so for a start these kits may be a short-term solution to access this technology.

Attitudes of Students and Teachers towards the Use of Interactive Whiteboards

In the literature on IWBs, some studies have focused particularly on the attitudes and views of students (Hall & Higgins, 2005; Kennewell & Morgan, 2003; Wall et al., 2005). Other studies have investigated the perceptions of both teachers and students (Beeland, 2002; Glover & Miller, 2001; Levy, 2002; Moss et al., 2007; Schmid, 2006), and one study examined the opinions of only teachers

(Lee & Boyle, 2004). Overall, both students and teachers are positive about the use of IWBs in their lessons and appreciate the benefits of IWBs.

The studies conducted by Moss et al. (2007), Wall et al. (2005), and Hall and Higgins (2005) revealed students' perceptions of the use of IWBs in different subject areas (e.g. math, science). The findings in those studies showed that the majority of the students have positive opinions about IWB use in the lessons. The findings also indicated that the students appreciated the versatility of IWB technology, and its ability to incorporate a wide variety of resources, and they pointed out that IWBs added some value to the lessons.

Moss et al. (2007) and Glover and Miller (2001) also found that students were positive about the contributions of IWBs to learning in terms of making difficult things easier to understand and increasing motivation. With regard to teachers' attitudes, Smith (1999), Moss et al. (2007), Glover and Miller (2001), and Lee and Boyle (2004) contributed to the literature on IWBs reporting the attitudes of teachers about IWBs. In general, the teachers reported their positive attitudes in these studies and were impressed by the functions of IWBs.

According to the teachers' comments in these studies, IWBs are effective tools in enhancing student learning and help their lessons to be more enjoyable, interesting, and motivating.

Although these various studies have investigated the attitudes of students or teachers, only Schmid (2006) and Gray et al. (2005) focused on students' and/or teachers' attitudes in language learning settings. Schmid (2006) conducted a small-scale qualitative study, in which he collected data from a small group of students who were taking an English for Academic Purposes course in Lancaster University.

The aim of the study was to obtain an understanding of the processes and analyze the use of IWBs from the perspective of a critical theory of technology. The findings showed that several elements, such as the inherent characteristics of the technology, pedagogical beliefs, and students' own understanding affect technology use in a certain context. Gray et al. (2005) is a case study of twelve English teachers in Britain. While it provides information about the language teachers' positive opinions about the potential of IWB technology, giving some suggestions for the effective use of this technology as well, it fails to provide a broad and comprehensive understanding of language teachers' views about the use of IWBs in language teaching. In short, there remains a need for a larger-scale study, focusing on language instruction contexts, and including all stakeholders.

Participants and Setting

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

Some of the students who participated in the study were preparatory class students in universities and high schools, others were in language schools taking English courses at different levels, and others were primary school students taking English classes at least two days a week. In any one institution, not all classrooms using IWBs in English classes were necessarily surveyed. In any institution, if there were more than three classrooms where IWBs were installed, the three classes in which IWB had been used most often were surveyed.

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

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

Lastly, three administrators were interviewed to investigate their attitudes towards the use of IWBs. All administrators were from universities and they were chosen because they had either had enough

knowledge about IWB technology or had participated in the decision-making process to purchase the IWB technology.

Instruments

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

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

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

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

The reliability check with Cronbach Alpha resulted in the score of 0.79 for student's questionnaire and 0.78 for teacher's questionnaire. In the teacher's questionnaire, three opposite items were excluded before the reliability check.

In order to explore the attitudes of administrators towards the use of IWBs, an interview protocol was used (see Appendix D). I conducted these interviews with the heads of the Foreign Languages Departments in three different universities. They were the administrators of the preparatory programs. The reason for including administrators in this study is that their attitudes are also important while deciding to purchase this technology and provide additional support for teachers. There were six questions in total, exploring the factors influencing their institutions' decision to purchase IWBs, their opinions about the benefits of IWBs, the most common problems stated by the EFL teachers, and general background information about the institution.

The interviews were held in Iranian, and after the recording of the participants' speeches on a voice recorder, the researcher transcribed those speeches and translated them into English. The data were analyzed in terms of positive or negative attitudes towards the use of IWBs in language instruction.

For the last research question, a video recording procedure was conducted. The purpose of this procedure was to observe the actual ways in which of EFL teachers used or benefited from IWBs in language classes. In this way, there could be an opportunity to compare the use of IWBs as stated in the literature and in other countries with EFL teachers' use of IWBs in Iran, Andimeshk.

Procedure

In January 2008, with the help of publishers and IWB technology marketing firms, the Iranian educational institutions that possess IWB technology were identified. It was learned that approximately seventy different institutions possess this technology, but only about twenty of them use it in language classes. I phoned the administrations of the institutions that use IWB in language classes to learn whether they actually use this technology or not. I found out that even though some of these institutions had purchased IWBs, they were not using them actively, maybe due to the need for training.

Some of the institutions requested official permission from the director of education in different cities, so I excluded those institutions from my list since it would take a long time to get that permission. At the end of this initial searching step, I made a list of fifteen institutions that use IWBs in EFL classrooms, and which consented to take part in this study. Two of the institutions ultimately did not

send back the questionnaires, leaving a total of thirteen institutions surveyed. The return rate, in this case, is approximately 80% with student's questionnaire and 19% with teacher's questionnaire.

In order to conduct this study, an official letter requesting the necessary permission for data collection was sent in February to the administration of the four institutions that requested an official letter. The head of the Foreign Languages department or the committee in one of the universities sent back letters that indicated their approval of the request. The other institutions consented to participate in this study without requesting an official letter. The pilot study was held in the METU preparatory school. Forty students and five teachers participated in the piloting procedure.

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

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

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

The study was conducted during the first three weeks of March by distributing the questionnaires to the institutions. The researcher visited most of the institutions and collected the data himself. Four of the institutions were far from Ankara and Istanbul, thus the questionnaires were sent to these institutions and returned by post. The interviews were conducted in the second week of April 2008 and the observations of the English classes were completed the following week.

Data analysis

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

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

Therefore, the calculation of mean scores ranged from 1.00 to 4.00. In this case, the scores between 1.00 and 1.75 meant that the participants showed their strong disagreement with a certain statement, 1.76-2.50 indicated disagreement, 2.51-3.25 showed agreement, and 3.26-4.00 corresponded to strong agreement.

In order to find whether there was a significant relation between different variables such as age, hours of IWB use/exposure and students' and teachers' having positive or negative attitudes towards IWBs, one-way ANOVA tests were performed. Interviews with the administrators were taped and transcribed by the researcher.

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

Data Analysis Procedure

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Q8: Using IWBs makes me a more efficient teacher.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Q10: I like using IWB technology in my lessons.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Section 3: Teachers' Attitudes in terms of Motivational Issues

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

On the other hand, two other teachers observed that when the classroom lights are dimmed, some of the students lose attention:

When the classroom is a bit dark, my students start to sleep and lose their concentration. I think only the curtains near the IWB should be closed and the back of the classroom might get light from outside so that students do not tend to sleep (Teacher 19).

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Section 5: Factors Affecting Teacher Attitudes towards IWB Use

In this section, one-way ANOVA tests were performed to explore the relation between teacher attitudes and different variables such as age, experience, and hours of IWB use. The researcher wanted to check whether hours of IWB use, age differences, and experience of teachers can be connected to positive attitudes or negative attitudes. Correlations were sought between hours of IWB use, age, and experience variables and questions 10 (I like using IWB technology in my lessons), Q12 (I have positive attitudes towards the use of IWBs in language instruction), Q13 (I have negative attitudes towards the use of IWBs in language instruction), and Q15

(What I do in class with traditional methods is sufficient in teaching English). After ANOVA tests were performed, none of the relations were found to be significant except for that between hours of IWB use and liking the use of IWB technology.

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

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

Discussion of the Results

Attitudes of Students and Teachers towards the Use of IWBs in Language Learning Settings

The items in the second part of the student and teacher questionnaires were designed to investigate the attitudes of both groups towards the use of IWBs in English lessons. The questionnaire items were categorized according to particular concepts in order to ease reporting and analysis. The six categories were: learning and teaching; affective factors and attitudes; motivational issues; technical issues; differences between IWBs and traditional whiteboards; and training.

Section 1: Student and Teacher Attitudes Related to Learning and Teaching

In this section, the results indicate that both students and teachers think that IWBs are useful devices for enhancing teaching and learning processes and both groups expressed their positive opinions about the contribution of this technology and its use of audio and visual materials in particular, to language teaching. These generally positive reports are in line with the results of previous attitude studies about IWBs.

In Wall et al.'s (2005) study, the majority of the pupils surveyed also expressed their positive opinions about the IWBs' contribution to effective learning.

In the same study, more than half of the pupils mentioned how the IWB assisted their understanding with the help of visuals, different software programs, and games. Most of the student comments in Glover and Miller's (2001) study also supported this idea that IWB-based lessons are easier to follow and may help the students who have difficulty in understanding the lessons. The responses in the current study that gained the highest mean scores were question 4 (Using audio and visual materials with IWBs helps me understand the lesson better.) and question 14 (IWBs make learning more interesting and exciting.), which reveals that both having the opportunity of using audio and visual materials and creating interesting and exciting lessons are two characteristics of IWBs which are appreciated by the students.

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

Regarding the teachers' responses related to teaching, the teachers strongly agreed that IWBs are a good supplement for teaching and that IWBs make it easier to show different kinds of materials to the class. In Levy (2002) and Lee and Boyle (2004), the teachers reported that IWBs make it easier to draw on a greater number and wider variety of information and learning sources and these sources can be used flexibly and spontaneously in response to different pedagogical needs. The findings in the current study agree with this notion that it is easier to reach different sources with IWBs and that the whole class can benefit from these sources at the same time.

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

The only statement in this category that the teachers disagreed with was one suggesting that preparation of IWB-based lessons takes more time than for a regular lesson.

This finding contradicts with a participant's comment in Glover and Miller's (2001) study that IWBs require earlier and better preparation from teachers. Levy's (2002) study also revealed that most of the teachers felt that initial lesson planning and materials preparation such as nice flipcharts take a long time to prepare.

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

Section 2: Teachers' General Attitudes towards IWBs

Section 6: Attitudes of Teachers towards the Training Issues

One of the frequent issues raised by many teachers is the need for adequate training in order to benefit from all of the IWBs' potential. According to the results of this study, 63% of the teachers agreed that they need training to use this technology. This finding is not surprising since it is similar to that in Glover and Miller (2001). In their study, one third of the teachers found it difficult to figure out the techniques of IWB use and to plan the lessons. If we refer to one student's statement in Levy's (2002) study, we get an interesting insight into how teachers should use this technology appropriately and effectively:

I prefer normal boards because the teachers do not act clever using IWBs. In other words, teachers should be confident and “clever” in using IWB functions and they should not use IWBs just for presentations or similar to the ways of using traditional boards.

Although 36% of the teachers in this study report that they feel comfortable in using an IWB without any training, 48% of the respondents said that lack of training makes them feel uncomfortable. All in all, these results indicate that a fairly large group of the participating teachers seems to have found IWBs not difficult to use, and feel that without special training they can still use it and in a sense train themselves, but training is still an important service to be offered. Dexter, Anderson, and Becker's (1999) study revealed that provision of efficient and effective training support is important for the systematic incorporation of any new technology into education settings. In Levy (2002), it was stated that the teachers with less confidence about IT may not be able to train themselves and they may need more sustained and individual support in terms of training before using IWB technology.

One of the respondents in that study pointed out that it is not “training” when someone simply gives someone else a booklet about the technology. It is advisable that teachers who want to use this technology, regardless of whether or not they feel that they have enough knowledge about computers, should be given the opportunity to take focused training to learn how to exploit all of the functions of IWBs during the teaching process.

Factors Affecting Teacher and Student Attitudes towards IWB Use

In this section of the study, one-way ANOVA tests were performed to explore the relations between respondent attitudes and different variables such as age, experience, and hours of IWB use. In terms of the teachers, it was speculated that hours of IWB use, age differences, and work experience may affect their attitudes towards the use of IWBs. These factors were therefore correlated with questions about liking IWB technology, having certain attitudes towards the use of IWBs, and finding traditional methods sufficient for teaching English. Statistically, only the relationship between hours of actual IWB use and liking the use of IWB technology was found to be significant. This finding indicates that as the number of hours of using IWBs increases, teachers' rating of how much they like using this technology increases as well.

This finding reveals that as the teachers experience the unique features of IWBs, they like this technology more and feel more positive about it. The literature on IWBs has not yet given us a similar result to this, so this is a new and previously unnoted finding in the literature and it is one that IWB manufacturers will no doubt be happy to hear about. With regard to the factors affecting the students' attitudes, correlations were sought between their attitudes and different variables such as age, type of school, and hours of IWB exposure. Again only one significant relation was found, this time between hours of exposure and awareness of the distinctiveness of IWBs. The result showed that as the hours of student exposure to IWB-based lessons increases, the degree of recognizing a difference between IWBs and traditional whiteboards rises as well.

This finding is not mentioned in the existing IWB literature and is significant to the extent that it shows students' growing awareness of the distinctiveness of this technology and its potential.

The results of question 8 (I like going to the front of the class to use an IWB) in the student questionnaire might be included in this section since its results may be related to age.

The finding revealed that though slightly more than half of the participants agreed that they like using IWBs in front of the class, 10% of the students declared that they did not like using IWBs in front of the class. It seems possible that these mixed comments might be related to age. Young learners may like using this technology by touching on the screen and writing with the special pen as some of the primary schools students' commented in Hall and Higgins (2005).

However, adult learners may find it more unusual and therefore difficult to use this technology and may fear losing face in front of their peers if they cannot use IWBs appropriately. When checked with ANOVA tests, the results showed that for this specific question there is a weak significant relation between liking to use IWBs and age except the group of the oldest students (25+). Younger learners, who were between 6 and 14 years old, strongly agreed that they like using IWBs, whereas adult learners disagreed with this idea.

EFL Teachers' Actual Use of IWB Technology

Three hours of observation in different institutions revealed that the teachers and the students are easily able to use the basic functions of IWBs, such as highlighting, writing with the special pen, saving the generated materials, searching on the Internet, and playing audio and visual files. IWBs' benefit of reducing time spent in teacher's writing in the classroom (Levy, 2002) was observed in one class, where the teacher was presenting ready-made sample paragraphs and letting the students work on them. If she had been using a traditional whiteboard, the teacher would have had to take the time to write a paragraph on the board, or else distribute a worksheet, which would not have provided an opportunity to look at and highlight the text for everyone to see.

Another important benefit of IWBs observed was changing the pages (screens) without erasing the previously written materials. When a page was full of examples and answers, the teacher was able to simply open new pages. This feature, also unique to IWBs, saves time and allows teachers to turn back to previous examples as well since all the pages are saved.

Although some of these functions can be seen with OHPs, it takes more time to back and forth between different kinds of resources and highlighting function is very easy and flexible with IWB technology. It was also observed in at least one instance how students can search using the IWB for unknown words and present not only Iranian and English meanings of the word, but also allow the whole class to listen to the pronunciation of the word. Although there are other features such as using flipcharts, overwriting or editing a student's written work on the IWB screen, some of which can be experienced with the help of subject specific software programs designed for course books, the researcher did not witness use of these in the observed lessons. These software programs, for example, allow the students to see all the pages of the book on the IWB screen so that they can follow the lesson from the IWB screen and the teacher can involve all the students at the same time easily. These programs also provide a variety of exercises and activities that can be exploited by the teachers. The literature on IWBs in the area of language instruction does not provide empirical information about specially designed software programs since they are fairly new and only two publishers prepare these kinds of software programs. However, in Moss et al.(2007), it was found that many English teachers have difficulty in finding resources, whereas math and science teachers can easily access resources since they are using subject specific software.

Pedagogical Implications of the Study

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

This lack of exposure may come from concrete problems such as lack of time or inability to schedule access to the IWB classroom, or it may come from the teachers' unwillingness to try this new technology and therefore reluctance to bring his/her students to the IWB classroom.

In especially crowded schools with one IWB classroom, it will be very difficult to schedule who will use it when. The solution to this problem can be installing IWBs into more classrooms or administrators' planning equal schedules to make it possible for every class to benefit from this technology. In addition, teachers may not only face some first-order barriers such as lack of equipment and time, but also second-order barriers such as lack of confidence (Ertmer, Addison, Lane, Ross and Woods, 1999).

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

Another important and related issue is the need for training. As Hall and Higgins (2005) stated in their study, training sessions should be regular and should be viewed as a continuous process so that teachers can improve their ICT skills in order to use IWBs efficiently. This issue is also mentioned in Smith et al. (2005), where they note that in order to use IWBs to their full potential, there is a need for adequate training because inexperienced manipulations of IWB features decrease the value of this technology. Additional coaching personnel and time could be beneficial on a one to one basis and

administrators can arrange training sessions that could be helpful for teachers to overcome their barriers and be more confident in using IWB technology. However, my research findings indicate that more than one third of the teachers responded that they can teach with IWBs without special training. This may show that the teachers who are interested and good at ICT skills can easily adapt themselves to IWB technology. Therefore, training could be provided by administrators according to the individuals' technological knowledge, experience, and their individual needs to exploit this technology in education. Since most of the teachers in this study agreed that IWB technology is a good supplement for teaching, and both students and teachers have positive attitudes towards this technology, it can be argued that IWBs should be involved in the teaching process as much as possible. Although it depends on the institutions' budgets, once the decision is made to use IWBs, ideally it is advisable to install them in every classroom so that students do not have to change classrooms for IWB-based lessons. If this is not financially possible, there can be at least two or three classrooms that are equipped with IWBs.

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

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

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

Limitations of the Study

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

In one of the institutions surveyed, IWBs have been used for more than four years, but the rest of the institutions have been using this technology for only one year on average. This meant that in some cases students and teachers were basing their opinions on only limited exposure – a fact which no doubt led to the high "no idea" response rate for some questions. It should also be taken into consideration that in many institutions in Iran, Andimeshk, IWBs are used more in subject classes such as math, science, and geography. Restricting the study to institutions in which IWBs are used in language classrooms also meant that the number of institutions included in this study is far fewer than the total number of institutions currently using IWBs.

Apart from one private primary school and one high school surveyed, all the institutions in this study have this technology installed in just one or two classrooms.

This limited accessibility again may have negatively influenced the extent to which IWBs are used since teachers find it difficult to share the same classroom among them. As noted above, this also

meant that students and teachers in many cases did not have a great deal of exposure to lessons with IWBs, and at times could not comment on this technology appropriately. If all the participants in this study had had more experience with IWBs, they might have agreed or disagreed with the statements more easily.

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

Suggestions for Further Research

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

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

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

Conclusion

The findings of this study revealed that both students and teachers have positive attitudes towards IWB use in English language classes. IWB-based lessons are perceived as more interesting and enjoyable by both the students and teachers.

In IWB-based lessons, students are more motivated and participate in the activities more. These reported contributions of IWBs may be significant for the increase of the quality of education. Although there can occur technical problems and IWBs have some drawbacks, this technology seems to be welcomed and appreciated by both students and teachers. What must be done for the effective use of this technology is that the teachers should have access to adequate training and should be provided with technical and material-based support?

Since the students are already eager to use and benefit from this technology, Iranian educational institutions should be encouraged to try and provide at least a few classrooms installed with this technology if we do not want to fall behind technologically developed countries, where education goes hand in hand with technology. It should also be noted that once the teachers and students have felt the difference and benefits of this technology, they are likely to become more enthusiastic about using it. Since technology eases our lives in many areas, education may also benefit from its potential, and in this way, teaching and learning environments can be enhanced.

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THE EFFECT OF TEACHING STANDARD PERSIAN-ENGLISH COGNATE WORDS ON INCREASING LEXICAL KNOWLEDGE IN IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS

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ABSTRACT

The study was conducted to determine how EFL students' knowledge of English vocabulary and awareness of Persian-English cognates influence their comprehension of English expository text. Cross-language cognates (words with similar form and meaning in different languages) are of special interest for designing a model in TEFL, since they help teachers make the teaching of English vocabularies a joyful and lasting effect for Iranian students. True cognates are the result of kinship relations across languages, or borrowings. False and true cognates might be found in nearly all languages with any kind of relation to other languages. There are still some "real" cognates found in the lexicon of Persian and English. The conclusions of this study will provide new insights into the linguistic and communication problems derived from a misuse of these lexical items. The results of this study showed that cognate teaching has a positive effect on the vocabulary knowledge of the students.

Key words: false friends, true cognate, kinship relation, EFL students

1. Introduction

Historical background of Indo-European languages

When one goes through the process of tracing words to their origins, he or she is, in essence, tracing his/her civilization to its most basic roots. While archeology brings one person physical facts about his/her ancestors, etymology portrays a clearer picture of their emotions, ideas and inner world. Talebnejad et al (2012) categorized the present-languages of Indo-European languages and identified the place of Persian language. He believes that Persian is a member of the Indo-European family of languages. Indo-European is one of the most widely spoken and diverse families of languages in the world today. It includes, among others, the Romance languages (Spanish, French, Latin, etc.), the Slavic languages (Russian, Polish, etc.), the Germanic languages (English, German, Swedish, etc.), the Celtic languages, Baltic languages, Greek, Armenian, and Albanian. All of these languages, as well as some extinct languages like Tocharian and Illyrian, are thought to originate with a single prehistoric language called Proto-Indo-European, which was spoken between 3000 and 5000 years ago. The branch of Indo-European that Persian belongs to is known as the Indo-Iranian or Indo-Aryan branch. It includes both the Indic languages (Sanskrit, Hindi, Marathi, etc.) spoken in northern India today and the Iranian or (also called Aryan) languages. Persian is the most widely spoken of the Iranian languages today. Other modern-day Iranian languages include Pashto, which is spoken in much of Afghanistan; Tajik, spoken in Tajikistan; and Kurdish, which is spoken in the Kurdish regions of Turkey, Iraq, Iran, and Syria. There are also several Iranian languages spoken by certain tribes in Iran such as Luri, Baluchi, and Tat. In the past, there were other Iranian languages such as Avestan, the language of the Avesta, a sacred text of the Zoroastrian religion, which was the dominant religion in Iran far before the Islamic conquest. Persian has undergone many changes in the past two millennia, the most significant of which has most certainly been the influence of Arabic since the Islamic conquest of Persia in the year 650. Over the years, Persian has borrowed up to half of its vocabulary

from Arabic as well as certain grammatical elements. This impact of Arabic is profound not only because of its magnitude but because the sounds and syntax of Arabic, a Semitic language, are so different than those of Persian. Since the middle Ages, Persian has been written in a modified form of the Arabic alphabet, although in pre-Islamic times it was written in an older alphabet known as Pahlavi.

According to Joneidi (1998) it's not a good idea of bringing the branches of an old tree closer to find similar and cognate words between the dialects of Persian language. In order to find the oneness of the tree, we must trace the branches back to its trunk and roots.

Probably the first known massive word exchanges among Indo-Europeans took place about four thousand years ago when they began to migrate out of their homeland. They went west to establish the European nations and south to establish the Indian and Iranian nations. There were undoubtedly massive word exchanges among the Indo-Europeans and the local tribesmen. (Nourai, 1998).

Words have their own history and lifespan. They come into existence, they blend into one another, they change, they travel from one region to another, and they get longer or shorter, and may finally die! These changes, sometimes, turn into some forms that they are no longer look like their original forms. Their appearance may change due to different accents of numerous inhabitants or ethnic groups so that recognizing their original form gets difficult and it needs intricate investigations and historical linguistics.

The purpose of our study was to examine the extent to which bilingual Persian students in the intermediate grades in Iran are able to transfer vocabulary knowledge in their first language to reading in their second language through the use of cognates. Many words in English, especially in academic and technical English, have close Iranian cognates. That is, Persian words with obvious orthographic similarity and closely related meanings. In many cases, words in the two languages are almost identical both in spelling and meaning (e.g., balcony, and buss, mother). Sometimes there are only minor, predictable changes in spelling (e.g., orange/narenj, paradise/pardis, and damp/dam). Because much of English academic vocabulary is derived from Latin, many words that are academic or rare words in English have cognates that are relatively common words in Persian. For example, the English word "parsang" is taken from the Latin word "Parsanga" which is the same as ancient Persian word "Fra-sanga" or "farsang". If Persian bilingual students know the Persian words, and recognize the cognate relationships, their Persian knowledge should provide them with substantial help in English vocabulary, especially difficult reading vocabulary.

2-Review of literature

A research has been done by Fotovatnia, Z & Taleb, F (2012) in order to investigate the mental representation of cognate and noncognate translation pairs in languages with different scripts to test the prediction of dual lexicon model (Gollan, Forster, & Frost, 1997). Two groups of Persian speaking English language learners were tested on cognate and noncognate translation pairs in Persian-English and English-Persian directions with lexical decision task through masked priming. The findings of the study showed a high level of priming only for cognates with L1 primes. This supports dual lexicon model in the sense that it confirms the role of orthography in establishing shared lexical entries for cognates. Noncognates showed a different pattern from what is predicted by this model.

The purpose of his study was to compare the pattern of priming for cognate and noncognate translation pairs in L1-L2 (Persian- English) and L2-L1 (English-Persian) directions across the Persian and English languages. To test for Persian-English cognate-noncognate difference, it was attempted to use cognates that shared a common root due to historical reasons. Long lists of English words of Persian origin were found for this purpose. However, few of them could be used, as it was necessary to make sure that all the participants knew and hence recognized the chosen items as L2 words. To increase the number of cognate stimuli, a number of loan words were added to the list, too. Although such words are borrowed from English, native Persian speakers learn and use them in (in) formal settings before they know that they are very similar to their English translation equivalents. Although both Persian and English have alphabetic scripts, they have no orthographical overlap, as each uses quite distinct characters. Moreover, Persian is written from right to left, whereas English is written in the reverse direction. Furthermore, the characters used in Persian words mostly include the consonantal information. The information related to vowels is absent in some cases.

Another new research has been done concerning Persian's cognates and false friends with some IE languages. The study aimed at identifying a kind of cognate words which are called false or true

cognates in Persian and some IE Languages. There it was explained that false cognates are words which have the same form and pronunciation in two or more languages, but despite their similarity in form, and pronunciation they have dissimilar meanings in the two languages and True cognates are the result of kinship relations across languages, or borrowings. False and true cognates might be found in nearly all languages with any kind of relation to other languages. There are still some "real" cognates found in the lexicon of Persian and some IE languages. The conclusions of his study would provide new insights into the linguistic and the communication problems derived from a misuse of these lexical items.

And also another study has been done by mohammad reza Pirooz on Iranian EFL learners' knowledge of English vocabulary with the title "on English-Persian and Persian-English False cognates. His study aimed at studying a kind of cognate words which are called false cognates in English-Persian and Persian-English data. He continued that false cognates are words which have the same form in the two languages. The study also resulted in finding a new phenomenon which we may term as "back borrowing". In this phenomenon, a borrowed word is sent back with a new meaning to the original language as a new instance of borrowing.

3-Theoretical framework

One of the underlying assumptions in bilingual education is that students who are literate in their first language can transfer some of their knowledge and skills in first-language reading to second-language reading (Grabe, 1988). There is some empirical evidence for this claim (Hudelson, 1981; Langer, Bartolomé, Vasquez, & Lucas, 1990). For example, we know that students' reading performance in their first language tends to correlate with that in their second language (Tregar & Wong, 1984), and that proficient readers in both languages, as compared to less proficient readers, are better at using "meaning making" strategies in the two languages (Langer et al., 1990). However, we do not know much about the specific types of knowledge and strategies that transfer, nor do we know the conditions under which such transference might occur.

Cross-language cognates are words which have similar meaning and similar phonological (and sometimes orthographical) form in two languages. They may have common origin (historically -for related languages), or be borrowed either from one of the two languages or from the same third language. In English and Persian, obvious cognates are usually borrowings from each other and from other languages, especially French, Greek and Latin; and some of these cognates are words of Indo-European origin.

In the case of cognates, the same phonemes are activated from two sources, and it becomes easier to select them. However, there are two problems with this account. First, if a selected concept always activates its forms in both languages, translation should therefore be a very easy task for a bilingual. However, this is not always the case. As many of us have experienced, it is sometimes very difficult to access the translation equivalent, even for the word that has just been produced, and even though it is present in the lexicon. Second, the explanation might work for highly related languages, such as Spanish and Catalan, which were used in Costa et al.'s experiments, but not for less closely related languages, such as English and Persian, where the phonemes are not identical.

It should also be noted that some cognates are well known in one language, but not the other. Consider for example, assassinate in English and /hashashin/ in Persian. The English word is a frequent one and the word in Persian is a rare or strange label for the concept.

4-Method

After homogenizing the students through Pre-test, they have 5 sessions of treatment, learning those 52 cognate words, in English language. The participants of the study in both groups (experimental and control groups) will take the same reading comprehension test as posttest to let the researcher know whether their reading comprehension ability has improved or not.

A reading comprehension test will be administered to both groups as pretest to check their homogeneity in terms of their reading comprehension abilities. Prior to the training, teacher will explain about the concept of cognate words and historical background of English-Persian words for the students of experimental group with an emphasis on English-Persian cognate words. These cognates can be found and searched through two main ways; one is the borrowing words which entered into Persian or vice versa, and the next group of cognates are in fact the historically related words between the two languages.

5-PARTICIPANTS

Sixty Persian learners of English were selected then they divided into two groups of 30 each. These students were intermediate learners of English who were about in their teens. They had been in a Persian-speaking environment since their birth; anyhow, they had received formal instruction in English at high school and their language institutes. Both males and females having been participated in the study equally.

6-Procedure

Due to some limitations, mainly because of not cooperating the English Language Institute manager, a separate pilot study was not performed, so the pretest questions were used as pilot study in order to check the reliability of those multiple questions.

During the pilot study, the yielded cronbach's Alpha was 0.04 as it is shown in table 1; clearly reliable not at all. And the number of multiple questions were 11. Through item analysis, it was discovered that eradication of item 8 would greatly improve the reliability (from 0.04 to 0.38)

Table 1 Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.045	11

Table 2 Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.568	8

Table 3. Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Correlation	Total Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
i1	24.4348	7.984	.107	.017
i2	22.7391	6.656	.271	-.123 ^a
i3	24.6087	5.704	.344	-.253 ^a
i4	24.0870	8.174	-.082	.091
i5	24.1304	6.209	.029	.025
i6	24.4348	8.348	-.043	.053
i7	24.3478	7.874	.361	-.011 ^a
i8	23.5217	10.170	-.430	.380
i9	23.2174	9.087	-.296	.285
i10	24.0870	5.901	.441	-.267 ^a
i11	24.3043	6.949	.221	-.082 ^a

So in order to have a more reliable test the mentioned items deleted and the test has been modified as it is shown in table 3.

In order to ensure that the control and experimental groups were in equal conditions before the treatment began, it was thought to compare the mean scores of both groups. A pre-requisite to any comparison of two independent means is equality of variances. Equality of variances was investigated and calculated using Levin's test. The p-value turned out to be 0.051, which is bigger than 0.05, so the variances were assumed as equal with 95% confidence. To investigate equality of means for two independent populations, an independent samples t-test was the best statistical test, so the means were compared using a two tailed t-test.

Table 4. Group Statistics

	group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
score_pretest	control	30	61.2333	14.73603	2.69042
	exprimental	30	64.0333	15.21679	2.77819

Table 5. Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower Upper
score_pretest	Equal variances assumed	.045	.833	-.654	58	.516	-2.53333	3.87280	-10.28558 5.21891
	Equal variances not assumed			-.654	57.930	.516	-2.53333	3.87280	-10.28578 5.21911

The p-value was 0.516, which is bigger than 0.05; therefore, it was concluded that there was no significant difference between the mean scores of two groups. The following table presents a summary of statistical analysis utilized to investigate the equality of means.

Table 6. Descriptive statistics and independent t-test for the comparison of pre-test results

Pre-test results	N	Mean	SD	df	t	sig
Experimental group	30	64	15.21			
Control group	30	63.21	14.73	58	0.654	0.516

Therefore, it can be concluded that the two groups were homogenous in terms of their language proficiency. After it was proved that the two groups were at the same level of language proficiency before the treatment, the time had come to see whether any change had occurred in the proficiency of the experimental group after the treatment. In order to arrive at a conclusion, the mean scores of the reading comprehension test administered after the treatment were compared. Table 6 presents the results of the statistical analysis performed to see whether there is any significant difference between mean scores of experimental and control groups. by conducting a Levin's test, it was found that the variances of both groups are equal. The p-value was calculated to be 0.084, which was bigger than 0.05; as a result, the hypothesis concerning the equality of variances was not rejected. The mean scores were compared with an independent t-test. The p-value turned out to be 0.048 which is smaller than 0.05; therefore, the hypothesis concerning the equality of means was rejected and there was a significant difference between the performance of experimental and control groups.

Table 7. Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower Upper
Equal variances assumed	.048	.814	-1.760	58	.084	-6.73333	3.82666	-14.39322 .92655
Equal variances not assumed			-1.760	57.833	.084	-6.73333	3.82666	-14.39369 .92702

In order to find out about the experimental group progress after the treatment, it was decided that the participants' initial scores would be compared to the final ones. A paired t-test was performed to compare the mean scores of students before and after the treatment. As shown in table 8, the p-value was calculated to be 0.000, which is smaller than 0.05, indicating that there was a significant difference between the means of the experimental group before and after the treatment.

Table 8. Paired Samples Test

Table 1. Paired-Samples Test									
		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	score_pretest - score_posttest	-3.43333	3.15888	.40781	-4.24936	-2.61731	-8.419	59	.000

7-Results

The result of statistical analysis cleared that the experimental group outperformed the control group after the treatment sessions. This finding is consistent with those previous findings of Naggy and Garcia (1992), Fotovatnia and Taleb (2012), and also the finding of Sherkina-Lieber (2004). Once students are made aware of successful strategies and more importantly discover the learning strategies that suit them best, then the students will be better motivated and thus able to become more effective learners. When students learn how to deal with a new unknown word, they could investigate the word from the way it sounds and pay more attention to its form. And hence they take on more responsibility for their learning, which is a pre-requisite for self-regulated learning. Self-regulated learners actively participate in the process of recognizing familiar words and have a clear plan for dealing with difficult words, which leads to greater success.

8-Discussion and conclusion

The results of this study revealed that cognate teaching has a positive effect on the vocabulary knowledge of the students. And that strategy training on the whole contributes to improve the students' language skills, in this case learning new words. When the students are trained how to learn, they will become effective learners and know how to cope with the learning task.

While presenting the treatment, it was distinguished that the experimental group members, who were supposed to receive the historical background of Persian- English cognate words, were so delighted to know these roots .they were asking a lot of questions while hearing those facts. And at the end, when the post-test was taken, their grades showed a lot more correct answers than control group. It was indicated that students who were aware of these Persian-English cognate words made some use of their knowledge of cognates in their English reading. The influence of reported Persian word knowledge had already been taken into account, shows that students' knowledge of individual Persian words is applied during English reading.

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Appendix A

A lonely young girl was standing on the balcony and was watching a far-away caravan which was going by along the road. She had just arrived from the near-by bazaar and since she was tired, she sat down on a precious arm-chair which was decorated by brilliant stars and it was binded by margarite bottoms. Her room was like a paradise and she was in majestic garment, anyhow she wasn't feeling so good. Nobody knew what in her innovative but now revenging mind was. Maybe she was thinking about assassinating her betraying pet. She didn't notice her servant who knocked at the door and then entered and put her dish onto a bronze table. Her pilaw looked delicious with fresh pepper and fish. She was still gazed at the caravan which was now one parsang away from her. A breeze came in through the cube window and made her brown hair blow. She was suffering from air pollution and was tired of loneliness surrounded her for a long time since her mother was murdered by a magic drug by a man wearing dark blue pajamas; meanwhile she looked at her mother's baggage remained in her room, after opening it she found a brilliant fabric on which had been written "always ignore the culprits because you need to relax."

1-what does the author mean by "standing on the balcony"?

- a) Top floor of a building
- b) A structure attached to the outside wall of a building that you can stand on
- c) Roof of a building

d) Ground level

2-what does the underlined word means? It was decorated by brilliant stars.

a) Tiny stars

b) Beautiful stars

c) Dark stars

d) Bright and shiny stars

3-"it was binded" means that:

a) They were tied together with a string

b) They were very close

c) They had the same color

d) Their fabric were the same

4-assassinate someone means that:

a) Live together

b) Kill someone

c) Think differently

d) Feed someone

5-her pilaw looked delicious:

a) Main dish

b) Dessert

c) Chicken

d) Baked rice

6-the word "pepper" refers to:

a) Cereal

b) A green hot vegetable

c) Sweet fruit

d) Diaries

7-pollution of air means:

a) Clear

b) Dirty

c) Foggy

d) Hot

8-one parsang equals:

a) 1 kilometer

b) 1 mile

c) 6 kilometer

d) 1.8 kilometer

9-the word "cube" deals with a term in....

a) Calculus

b) Geometry

c) Geology

d) Architecture

10-which word in the text refers to a metal?

a) Cube

b) Bronze

c) Garment

d) Star

11-baggage in line 12 can be considered as

a) House equipment

b) Personal property

c) Road signs

d) General belongings

Appendix B

Table 1. List of English-Persian cognate words

English	Persian	English	Persian
caviar	/khàviar/	navigate	/nav/

brown	/Bôr/	nun	/naneh/
brother	/baradar/	orange	Narenj//
eyebrow	/abroo/	lemon	/limo/
bottom	/bon/	name	Nam//
damp	/dam/	pery	Parry//
Typhoon	Toofan//	Peach or percica	Holoo//
daughter	/dokhtar/	shawl	Shawl//
under	/andar/	stand	Istadan//
is	Ast//	pollution	Paloodan//
goose	Ghaaz//	magic	//moghi
candy	/ghandy/	murder	/mordan/
cow	/Gaav/	margarite	/morvarid/
algebra	/jabr/	Moslim	/moslem/
zero	Sefr//	innovative	/No/
Caliber	Ghaleb//	pajamas	Pajameh//
lip	/lab/	pepper	/felfel/
lick	/lis/	pilaw	Pollo//
leg	/Lagad/	brilliant	/berelyan/
mouse	Moosh//	garment	Jaman//
Mummy	/moom/	bind	/band/
parsang	/farsang/	star	/setareh/
chin	Chaneh//	bazaar	/bazar/
assassinate	/hassanin/	bronze	/Boronz/
cube	/caab/	balcony	Balakhaneh//
paradise	/paradise/	baggage	/boghcheh/
techniques	/teckniqe/	Renaissance	/ronessanse/
ceramists	/seramic/	under	/andar/
decorate	/décor/	arabesque	/arabi/
mosque	/masjid/	chance	/shans/
English	Persian	English	Persian
committee	/comitte/	club	/koloob/
conference	/conference/	idea	Ideh//
group	/gorooh/	divine	/div/
adam	Adam/	police	/police/

THE EFFECT OF EMPLOYING LEXICAL MODIFICATION TECHNIQUES ON INCIDENTAL VOCABULARY LEARNING IN IRANIAN EFL CONTEXT

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ABSTRACT

The significance of modified input for ESL as well as EFL learners has been widely recognized by scholars in the area of language learning and teaching. In order to obtain a better understanding of different types of lexical modification, the present study is designed to investigate the effects of two types of lexical modification, i.e., "lexical simplification" and "lexical elaboration" on incidental vocabulary learning of Iranian EFL learners. To this end, 60 students majoring in English literature took part in the study. Three versions of experimental texts containing 20 target words were created; a) baseline version, b) simplified version, and c) elaborated version. Two one-way ANOVAs were run in order to analyze the data obtained from the participants' performance. Results of "form recognition" and "meaning production" tests designed to measure incidental vocabulary learning from modified target words revealed that lexical modification techniques were influential on incidental vocabulary learning. It was also shown that "lexical simplification" did affect incidental vocabulary learning far less than "lexical elaboration" which was significantly conducive to incidental vocabulary acquisition.

Keywords: incidental vocabulary learning, lexical modification, lexical simplification, lexical elaboration

1. Introduction

Vocabulary learning is an indispensable process for ESL and EFL learners to acquire proficiency and competence in a target language. Incidental learning is the process of learning something without the intention of doing that (Richards & Schmidt, 2002). In terms of language acquisition, incidental learning is said to be an effective way of learning vocabulary from context (e.g. Davis, 1984). Incidental vocabulary learning motivates learners for extensive reading (Coady, 2001). It involves learners' ability to guess the meaning of new words from the contextual clues. Incidental learning occurs more particularly through extensive reading in input-rich environments, albeit at a rather slow rate. According to Cramer (2005) and Nation (2001), extensive reading is a pleasurable reading situation where a teacher encourages students to choose what they want to read for themselves from reading materials at a level they can understand.

Incidental vocabulary promotes deeper mental processing and better retention (Hulstijn and Laufer, 2001). The learners get themselves fully involved in the process of deciphering the meaning through the clues available in the text. Learners understand not only the meanings in the given text but the related grammatical patterns, common lexical sets and typical association of the word with the context. Learning vocabulary through extensive reading also improves learners' fluency. Learners look at group of words rather than each individual word while reading. Hulstijn and Laufer (2001)

believed that the words that learners encounter in incidental vocabulary learning will be retained in the long-term memory and could be used more confidently in different situations.

Gass (2003) advised that guessing activity should be demonstrated on chalkboard by circling the unknown words and drawing across from other words that give clues to infer its meaning. The learners should see if the unknown words can be analyzed into parts. They should check if the meaning of the parts matches the meaning of the unknown word. The words made of prefixes and suffixes could easily be understood by learners if they are already taught the important prefixes and suffixes.

It is widely believed that most vocabularies, in L1 as well as L2, are acquired incidentally. That is, vocabulary acquisition occurs as a by-product of reading and listening activities not explicitly geared to vocabulary learning (e.g. Nagy, Anderson and Herman, 1987, Zimmerman, 2004). Much of the L2 research recently undertaken to investigate vocabulary acquisition confirms that incidental vocabulary acquisition through reading does occur (Yali, 2010; Krashen, 1989). In this respect, the role of extensive reading as a prolific source of incidental second language vocabulary acquisition becomes evident. Through extensive reading, according to Cramer (2005, p. 95), "new word meanings are derived and learned even though the readers' purpose for reading is not the learning of the new vocabulary".

Despite impressive progress in language teaching methodology, there is still concern to find an effective approach to the acquisition of vocabulary by the virtue of which foreign language learners can improve their vocabulary. Nowadays, vocabulary teaching has become so important that instructors and researchers have come to understand the crucial role of the lexicon in language learning and communication. L2 vocabulary acquisition is a very complex phenomenon involving several different learning processes. The positive effect of different types of lexical modification, i.e., simplification and elaboration, on FL and SL reading comprehension has been acknowledged in a large number of studies (e.g., Oh, 2001; Brewer, 2008; Maxwell, 2011). But, few studies have explored the effects of simplification and elaboration on learning of new linguistic items (Urano, 2000; Kim, 2006). In other words, a small number of studies have tried to investigate lexical modification in relation to the EFL and ESL learners' lexical gains incidentally. Still, the necessity of exploring and investigating lexical modification is multiplied when few studies have touched lexical modification with respect to different types of lexical elaboration in a deeper and more detailed way.

2. Literature review

Due to the significance of the issue the literature on incidental vocabulary acquisition has witnessed a great diverse views held by various researchers interested in the field (e.g., Horst, Cobb, and Mara, 1998; Pigada & Schmitt, 2006; Kodadady and Khaghaninejad, 2012) and the controversies mostly arise from the fact that incidental vocabulary learning does not prove itself equally effective in all learning situations (e.g., Hill, 1997; Laufer, 2005). The following lines present a rather careful exploration of the related concepts.

2.1 Types of vocabulary learning

In the studies on vocabulary acquisition, four types of vocabulary learning, namely, incidental, intentional, implicit and explicit have been introduced. Although the incidental/intentional and implicit/explicit distinctions are not very difficult to examine, what makes things more complex is when incidental and intentional learning are naively taken to be used interchangeably and indistinguishable from implicit and explicit learning (Horst, 2005).

Implicit versus explicit vocabulary learning Since implicit and explicit learning mechanisms play an important role in second/foreign language learning in general and vocabulary learning in particular, it is theoretically and practically important to understand the differences between the two. Implicit learning used to be identified by the lack of consciousness (Gaies, 1983). This, however, was not a satisfying definition for researchers. As Decarrio (2001), for example, argued automaticity is the result of a learning process, not a characteristic of the learning process itself, and is hard to define. Replacing intentionality or automaticity with the construct of awareness, Decarrio (*ibid*) defined implicit learning as learning without awareness of what is being learned. According to Decarrio (2001), inductive learning is defined as going from the particular to the general; therefore, it can be either implicit or explicit. Similarly, implicit memory and implicit learning are two independent

concepts. Although implicitly acquired knowledge tends to remain explicit, the latter can become implicit in the sense that learners can lose awareness of its structures over time, and learners can become aware of implicit knowledge structure when attempting to access it, for example, for applying it to a new context or for conveying it verbally to somebody else.

Incidental versus intentional vocabulary learning Firstly it should be mentioned that there is no good and wholly agreed upon definition of incidental learning. However, Hucking and Coady (1999, p. 182), defined it as "a by-product, not the target of the main cognitive ability, reading". By the same token, Hulstijn (2003) asserted that incidental language learning in a classroom context occurs as a by-product whenever the linguistic structure itself is not the focus of the teacher's or students' use of language. A distinction between incidental and intentional vocabulary acquisition which is more concerned with SLA research than pure cognitive psychology is held by Hill. The distinction between incidental and intentional learning, according to Hill (1997, p. 45), is based on the distinction between *focal* and *peripheral* attention. To him, "intentional learning requires focal attention to be placed deliberately on the linguistic code while incidental learning requires attention to be placed on meaning but allows peripheral attention to be directed at form". Therefore, any learning, whether intentional or incidental, can only take place with some degree of attention. This runs counter to the commonly held belief that incidental learning does not involve any attention or noticing. However, attention is deliberately directed at committing new information to memory in the case of the "intentional" whereas the involvement of attention is not deliberately geared to an articulated learning goal in the case of the "incidental".

Incidental versus implicit vocabulary learning While attention was the key concept in understanding the difference between incidental and intentional learning, what counts here is the concept of *consciousness*, a term widely used in the literature of SLA but again not comprehensively defined by the scholars concerned in the field. Implicit learning will typically take place when knowledge about the underlying structure of a complex stimulus environment is acquired through a process which does not involve any conscious operation and which takes place naturally and simply (Hill, 1997). Gaies (1983) argued that based on the interpretation of the term *consciousness*, different types of learning can take place. That is, if consciousness and intentionality are equated, then the absence or presence of consciousness will lead to incidental and intentional learning, respectively. In a similar vein, if consciousness considered as awareness, then there will have been explicit learning in the presence of consciousness and implicit learning in its absence. Consequently, the term implicit is equated with "non-consciousness" in the sense of "unawareness", while incidental is synonymous with "un-intentional". Gaies (*ibid*) concluded that incidental learning is composed of implicit learning processes which do not involve the learner's awareness and/or explicit learning processes which lack any learning intention but are nevertheless characterized with online awareness and hypothesis formation.

2.2 Incidental vocabulary learning through extensive reading

The fact that new vocabulary items can be picked up during the process of extensive reading is hardly disputable. In fact, a number of studies during the last two decades have confirmed that extensive reading exposes learners to large quantities of material within their linguistic competence which is, at the same time, pleasurable (e.g. Cramer, 2005; Brewer, 2008). However, there are opposing views held by different authors regarding the efficiency of using extensive reading for incidental vocabulary development (e.g. Kim, 2006), some researchers claim that students will learn all the vocabulary they need from context by reading extensively (e.g. Schmitt, 1990; Maxwell, 2011). They, however, while acknowledging the usefulness, even necessity, of extensive reading, have emphasized the importance of making L2 learners aware of their vocabulary learning task and of teaching explicit strategies for vocabulary learning.

Krashen (1989) and Choudron (1985) were the forerunners of investigating incidental vocabulary learning through extensive reading. These studies claimed substantial vocabulary gains through reading. Hulstijn (2003) in the same vein conducted a pilot study of incidental learning of productive vocabulary over a seven-month period in a grade-7 immersion program in a German high school (English L2, German L1). One immersion class was compared with two control groups. The immersion class had, in addition to regular English-as-subject, one subject, history, taught in English

(by a German, non-native speaker). The two control classes, one from the same school as the immersion, only had regular English-as-subject. He reported that, in an oral production post-test, the immersion group had considerably larger vocabulary gains in terms of both.

Saragi, Nation and Meister (1978) and Horst (2005) conducted two studies on incidental vocabulary learning of an English novel's unknown words. In the first study, twenty native speakers of English read Anthony Burgess' novel *A clockwork Orange*, containing 241 unfamiliar words. It was found that repetition affects learning, but that the relationship is considerably complicated by other factors like meaningfulness of the context and similarity to words in the mother-tongue. In the second study, two groups of ESL learners read two chapters of *A clockwork Orange* and were subsequently tested for their understanding of unfamiliar words. Small vocabulary gains were recorded relative to control groups who had not read the text. The researchers claim this shows that L2 learners can acquire vocabulary by reading.

2.3 Lexical Simplification, Lexical Elaboration, and Incidental Vocabulary Learning

A number of studies in the domain of text modification have examined the effects of different types of lexical modification (e.g. Oh, 2001; Brewer, 2008; Maxwell, 2011). Some other researchers have examined its effect not only on L2 comprehension but also on lexical aspects of language learning (Urano, 2000; Kim, 2006). Although some researches generally suggested positive effects of text modification on vocabulary acquisition (Chung, 1995; Urano, 2000) some other studies have not confirmed such a positive effect (e.g. Kim, 2006).

Chung (1995) investigated the incidental vocabulary learning of ninth grade Korean EFL learners who received five versions of an unelaborated original text. The modification types in the study included simplification and elaboration and the combination of the two. It was detected that elaborated groups outperformed the unelaborated one. A study conducted by Urano (2000), investigated the effects of lexical simplification and elaboration on L2 sentence comprehension and incidental vocabulary acquisition. To this end, forty native speakers of Japanese students were chosen for the study. Forty sentences were created in such a way that one target word was included in each sentence. In each sentence one nonsense target word was created in order to ensure that the target word would be the only word unknown to participants. The study concluded that lexical elaboration triggered incidental vocabulary acquisition, while simplification did not; and learners of higher proficiency benefited more from lexical elaboration in terms of the acquisition of word meanings.

A study conducted by Moradian and Adel (2011) examined the effects of elaborated texts as well as unelaborated ones on vocabulary acquisition from reading. They designed their study to investigate if explicit and implicit lexical elaborative devices could serve as autonomy enhancing tools which assisted L2 learners in recognizing the meaning of the unknown words in a text in the absence of dictionaries and instructors. The results depicted that explicit lexical elaboration, compared to implicit lexical elaboration, was more effective in the acquisition of L2 lexical items.

There are some variations in results among studies conducted on incidental vocabulary learning with respect to different types of modification. Still there are inconsistencies among the results of the studies conducted in the related area of research. In some studies the positive effect of input modification has been confirmed. On the contrary, results obtained from some other studies do not confirm such tendency in terms of acquiring new lexical items. As a result further research is needed to investigate the nature of lexical modification. On the other hand, just very few studies have probed different types of lexical elaboration (e.g., Kim, 2006; Moradian & Adel, 2011).

Taking the significance of modified input into account, the present study has attempted to shed more light on this area of research with regard to two types of lexical modification, i.e. simplification and elaboration and endeavored to find reasonable answers to the following research questions; .

- Does lexical simplification have any effect on incidental vocabulary learning of Iranian EFL learners?
- Does lexical elaboration have any effect on incidental vocabulary learning of Iranian EFL learners?
- Do lexical elaboration and lexical simplification affect the incidental vocabulary learning of Iranian EFL learners similarly?

3. Method of research

3.1 Participants

The participants of the study were 60 university students majoring in English language and literature. English was used as foreign language only, all the participants' first language was Persian and they were intermediate female and male students of English. 24 of the participants were male and 36 of them were female students with an age range of 18 to 26 years old. In order to obtain a homogenized group, participants were selected from an initial pool of 100 students taking version 1 of Nation's Vocabulary Levels Test (VLT) (2001). Based upon the scores obtained from VLT, subjects whose vocabulary knowledge was of limited range were selected to take part in this study. Apart from the main participants, a pilot group of 20 participants with the same level of English vocabulary knowledge as those participating in the main study was selected in order to pilot the materials developed for the main study. Participants in the pilot group were students enrolled in one private English institute. The main participants were then randomly divided into three groups of equal number, i.e. 20 students in each group.

3.2 Material Preparation and Development

Texts used for this study were adopted from a book named *Concepts and Comments* written by Ackert and Lee (2005). Text selection was done due to some factors such as being interesting, tangible to the readers and also readers' familiarity with the topics introduced. After consultation with the subjects in the pilot group, decision was taken to select informational passages. As its name implies, an informational passage is a passage giving information about a particular subject matter. Then, the target words were selected consulting with pilot participants. When the target words were selected, they went through the last stage of development for the experiment. *Chambers dictionary of synonyms and antonyms* (1989), and *Oxford learner's dictionary* (2002) were used as sources for provision of synonyms and the definitions of the target words. Three versions of experimental texts containing 20 target words were created; baseline, simplified and elaborated. In this study, creation of different forms was done according to the definition of each form. Accordingly, in the baseline version, the target words received no treatment. In other words, they remained intact, neither lexically simplified nor lexically elaborated.

3.3 Instrumentation

In order to collect the data needed for the accomplishment of the study, the following measuring instruments were employed:

Vocabulary Levels Test (VLT) _ In order to guarantee homogeneity of the subjects participating in the present study a modified version of Nation's (1990) Vocabulary Levels Test (VLT) was administered. VLT was chosen to be administered in this study because it is widely used as a standardized vocabulary test in research. The VLT has consists of five sections; each section represents a different vocabulary level in English considering frequency of words in English. The test consists of five sections (the 2,000, 3,000, 5,000 and 10,000- word levels) and also a section of academic vocabulary. Each level has ten items and each item is comprised of six words and three meanings. The participants must match the meanings with appropriate words presented on the left hand side. The reliability index measured for this test was calculated to be 0.95 running KR method which is relatively high.

Vocabulary Acquisition Tests _ In order to measure the participants' incidental acquisition of vocabulary items two tests, namely form recognition test and meaning production tests were administered. In *form recognition test* participants were required to underline the words they had encountered while reading the passages. They were presented with a random list of all 20 target words (unmodified ones) in addition to other 10 words functioning as distracters. To the extent that in the simplified version there was no word added in the text either as synonym or definition, ten more words should be added as distracters to decrease the test bias (Urano, 2000). In order to assess participants' incidental vocabulary learning considering acquisition of meaning, a *meaning production test* was administered. Participants were presented with a list of all 20 target words which had appeared in the passages. They were required to write the meaning of the words whether in English or Persian. Obviously, the instruments used for assessing vocabulary gains play crucial roles in research on incidental vocabulary acquisition. This is why the researcher preferred to use a meaning production test rather than a multiple-choice test.

Prior Knowledge Vocabulary Test In order to embark upon participants' prior vocabulary knowledge this test was designed to insure that the subjects were not familiar with the chosen target words beforehand. In this type of test, the participants were asked to identify (circle or underline) the target words they knew before the test. If the number of words previously known by the subjects had affected the overall results of incidental vocabulary gain to a great extent, those items would be deleted from the experiment. Otherwise, they would be negligible.

3.4 Procedure

Data collection procedure was done in two separate sessions. During the first session, Nation's VLT (2001) was administered to obtain a homogenized group in terms of knowledge of vocabulary. To prepare material for the main participants, a pilot group whose vocabulary knowledge range was the same as that of the main participants was employed. They were asked to underline words whose meaning they did not know. After identifying the words which were underlined by the majority of the students, just 5 words were selected randomly from each passage in order to have an overall of 20 target words for the experiment. For the experimental purposes other underlined words were substituted for other easy ones. After preparing the materials, two test formats were designed, form recognition test and meaning production test, in order to assess the participants' incidental vocabulary knowledge.

Secondly, administration of the main stage of the study to collect data was accomplished. Each group consisting of 15 students received just one version of the reading passages: baseline, simplified, or parenthetically elaborated version. Participants were not informed of this grouping. Subsequent to distribution of the papers, they were told to read the passages carefully because they would be asked to summarize each passage when they have finished reading the texts. It was said so to make the participants concentrate on the meaning or content of the passages while reading with the purpose of careful reading.

The participants were allotted 15 minutes to read the passages. When the time was over, the papers were collected. Immediately after the first test, the form recognition test was given to the subjects. Subsequently, appropriate instructions were given in Persian. Following the form recognition test, the subjects were presented with the second test, i.e., meaning production test. They were told to provide meaning for each target word whether in Persian or English. Besides, they were also allowed to give synonyms or short definition if they wished. And finally the last test, prior vocabulary knowledge test, was administered. They were given a list of target words which had appeared in the passages. They were instructed to read the words carefully and underline the words they knew prior to reading the passages.

The scoring was done by hand. No negative point was allotted for the wrong responses. Then the scores of all the students were counted at each level. In the case of form recognition test correct responses to the target words were counted. Each correct answer received one point. Since the number of target words was twenty regardless of the ten distracters, total number of the correct responses was twenty as well. For the meaning production test, as its name implies, participants were required to write synonyms or definitions whether in English or Persian. Each correct answer got the same point as in the form recognition test, i.e. one point. Approximate responses, those which could convey the correct meanings of the target words were accepted and received one point. Moreover, the results obtained from prior knowledge vocabulary test indicated that none of the participants in this study were familiar with the target words introduced before reading the texts, so further analysis was not necessary to be done on the related test.

4. Results and discussion

4.1 Results

Form recognition test was one of the tests used for measuring incidental vocabulary learning in the present study. The reliability index for this test was relatively high, 0.79, using KR-21 method. In what follows the descriptive statistics for the related test will be demonstrated. Table 4.1 demonstrates the mean scores and standard deviations for form recognition test.

Table 1. . Descriptive statistics of “form-recognition test”

groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Elaboration	20	17.6500	.48936	.10942	17.4210	17.8790	17.00	18.00
Simplification	20	1.7500	.78640	.17584	1.3820	2.1180	1.00	3.00
Baseline	20	16.1500	.67082	.15000	15.8360	16.4640	15.00	17.00
Total	60	11.8500	7.25755	.93695	9.9752	13.7248	1.00	18.00

As it is indicated in Table 1, the simplified group has received the lowest mean score (1.75) with a standard deviation of 0.786 among the three conditions. On the other hand, the elaboration group received the highest mean score (17.65) with a standard deviation of 0.489. The mean score obtained by the control group was 16.15 with standard deviation of 0.670. In order to investigate whether there are significant differences among the mean scores of all the three conditions, a one-way ANOVA was run on the data obtained from the form recognition test. Table 2 presents the result of the one-way ANOVA conducted on the form recognition test.

Table 2. One-way ANOVA for “form-recognition test”

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	3082.800	2	1541.400	3535.606	.000*
Within Groups	24.850	57	.436		
Total	3107.650	59			

As it is demonstrated in Table 2, on the form recognition test there existed significant differences in the performance of the all three groups, i.e. lexically elaborated, lexically simplified and baseline groups ($\text{sig} = .000 < p$). After the form recognition test, the meaning production test was administered to measure incidental vocabulary learning of the participants in all of the three conditions. The reliability index for the meaning production test was 0.65, using KR-21 method. In the following table descriptive statistics for the related test are presented.

Table 3. Descriptive statistics of “meaning-production test”

groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Elaboration	20	12.9000	.85224	.19057	12.5011	13.2989	12.00	14.00
Simplification	20	.9600	.05982	.01338	.9320	.9880	.80	1.00
Baseline	20	1.4350	.58063	.12983	1.1633	1.7067	.80	2.00
Total	60	5.0983	5.59738	.72262	3.6524	6.5443	.80	14.00

As it is shown in Table 3 on the meaning production test the elaborated group received the highest mean score (12.90) with a standard deviation of 0.852. Contrarily, the simplified group received the lowest mean score (0.96) with a standard deviation of 0.0598. The mean score obtained by baseline group was (1.43) with standard deviation (0.580) from the meaning production test. By comparison, mean scores in the meaning production test were smaller than those of form recognition test. In order to further investigate whether the differences among the means were statistically significant on meaning production test a one-way ANOVA was performed. Table 4 shows the ANOVA results.

Table 4. One-way ANOVA for “meaning-production test”

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1828.236	2	914.118	2570.091	.000*
Within Groups	20.273	57	.356		
Total	1848.510	59			

The results obtained from conducting one-way ANOVA suggested that on the meaning production test there existed significant differences in the performance of the all three groups, i.e. elaborated, simplified, and baseline groups ($\text{sig} = .000 < P$). Figure 1 depicts the mean scores of all of the three conditions on form recognition and meaning production vocabulary tests.

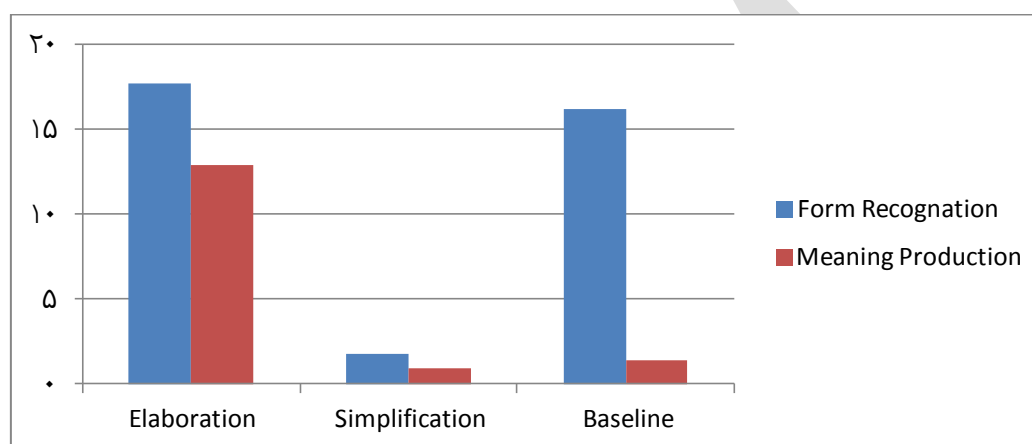


Figure 1. The mean scores of three conditions regarding incidental vocabulary learning.

4.2 Discussion

Data analysis revealed that although in the simplified condition neither target words nor synonyms or definitions were supplied, some participants were able to give correct responses on form recognition and meaning production tests. There might have been some potential possibilities for such a finding. This might have been partly due to the participants' background vocabulary knowledge or partly because of the condition under which participants were taking the tests. Since the participants in this group scored approximately zero, such acquisition in this condition can be ignored because it does not change overall results of the study to a great extent.

Participants who read the passages which were lexically elaborated were able to better perform on two vocabulary measures than the lexically simplified one. This finding is compatible with the findings of Chung, (1995) and Urano, (2000). Kim (1996) demonstrated that EFL learners who read the lexically elaborated texts performed better on immediate and delayed de-contextualized supply-definition post-tests than those who read lexically unelaborated texts. In their studies Chung (1995) and Kim (1996) pointed out that directing students' attention to the meaning of lexical target items in elaborated version of texts might lead students' attention to the meaning of target words, i.e. difficult words, resulting in the acquisition of new lexical items. The obtained finding in this study also confirms the results of the previous study by Urano (2000), whose study revealed that lexical elaboration triggers incidental vocabulary acquisition. Additionally, Long (1983) argued that if both lexical simplification and lexical elaboration enhance comprehension, then elaboration is a preferable type of modification, since it provides L2 learners with opportunities to learn new linguistic items. As it was discussed above, lexical elaboration in this study affected incidental vocabulary learning of Iranian EFL learners from reading.

Results indicated that the participants in the elaborated condition outperformed the simplified one on the above mentioned tests. Participants' performance in lexically simplified condition on two vocabulary measures did not show any significant learning of vocabulary. Contrarily, participants

who read the passages which were lexically elaborated were able to better perform on two vocabulary measures than the lexically simplified one. So by comparing the results obtained from the simplified group with the results of the elaborated group a sharp contrast can be easily noticed.

The results of the present study showed that lexical elaboration and lexical simplification do not affect the incidental vocabulary learning of Iranian EFL learners similarly. On the basis of the results obtained from the students' performance on form recognition and meaning production tests, this study indicated that although both lexical simplification and lexical elaboration enhance comprehension, then elaboration is a preferable type of modification, since it provides L2 learners with opportunities to learn new linguistic items. The obtained finding in this study also confirms the results of the previous study by Urano (2000), whose study revealed that lexical elaboration triggers incidental vocabulary learning.

5. Conclusion

This study was an endeavor to investigate the effects of lexical simplification and elaboration on incidental vocabulary learning of Iranian EFL students. To this aim, two one-way ANOVAs were run on the data obtained from the performance of participants on form recognition and meaning production tests. The findings indicated that lexical simplification was not effective in acquiring new lexical items from reading materials. In fact in this study lexical simplification did not help learning new lexical items. Furthermore, it was shown that participants' performance in lexically simplified condition on two vocabulary measures did not show significant difference in incidental vocabulary acquisition from that of the control group. Comparing the results obtained from the participants who read the simplified texts with those who had undergone elaborated texts a sharp contrast was easily noticed. Elaborated group outperformed simplified group as incidental acquisition of lexical items was concerned.

This finding is consistent with Chung's (1995) and Urano's (2000) study who detected that performance of participants in the lexically simplified condition was lower than that in the elaborated condition. Based on the findings of Chung (1995) and Urano (2000), the reason for such finding is due to the fact that deletion of lexical target items in a text cannot result in the acquisition of those lexical items. As Oh (2001) in his study pointed out, lexically simplified texts limit learners' exposure to vocabulary and structure in the target language. In other words, lexical simplification in the present study did not result in acquiring form and meaning of new lexical items.

Additionally, Long (1983) argued that if both simplification and elaboration enhance comprehension, then elaboration is a preferable type of modification, since it provides L2 learners with opportunities to learn new linguistic items. As it was discussed above, lexical elaboration in this study affected incidental vocabulary acquisition from reading materials. As a result, lexical elaboration was conducive to incidental vocabulary acquisition.

Teachers or instructors whose aim is to help students improve their vocabulary knowledge can best make use of input elaboration. On the importance of teaching vocabulary Nation (2001) has claimed that vocabulary should be taught by teachers in systematic and principled ways in order to make sure that the learners get the most benefit from the time spent. As a result, teaching vocabulary is an important task of language teachers or instructors. Language teachers might find the results of this study useful in that it provides further evidence for the importance of lexical elaboration. With regard to the findings of this study, lexical elaboration can be one of the alternative ways of teaching vocabulary in classroom. It can be used in addition to other methods of teaching vocabulary such as lexical inferencing, i.e., guessing the meanings of unknown words from context, mnemonic techniques, or key word methods, and so on. Using reading materials in which new lexical items have been elaborated can benefit language learners in the course of reading by having the meaning of the supposedly difficult words available to them.

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MJLTM

THE IMPACT OF CODE SWITCHING ON ELEMENTARY EFL STUDENTS' SPEAKING SKILL

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ABSTRACT

The present study attempted to discover the impact of code-switching on the improvement of the speaking ability of the Intermediate EFL learners. In order to have homogeneous subjects, all 44 participants of the study were given an achievement test. After random assignment of the participants to the comparison and experimental groups to make sure that they belonged to the same population the subjects were asked to deliver a five-minute description on a picture, as the pretest. The participants of both groups were asked to participate in speaking activities. The subjects of the comparison group were not allowed to use their L1, while the participants of the experimental group were allowed to code switch whenever they came short of vocabulary. After 10 sessions of treatment, a posttest similar to the pretest was administered. The result of the study indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between the groups. Therefore, it was concluded that code switching can be used as a technique to improve speaking skill.

Key Words: Code switching, speaking ability, lexical code-switching

1. Introduction

It seems natural to begin with a definition of the phenomenon. Montes-Alcalá describes it as "a natural linguistic phenomenon" in bilingual communities where two or more languages come into contact and alternate at the level of clauses and sentences (2000, p.218). Gumperz, quoted in Zentella, clarifies a little more, positing code-switching as a "juxtaposition within the same speech exchange of passages belonging to two different grammatical systems or subsystems" (1997, p.80).

However, a wide variety of terms are found such as "code-shifting" and "code-mixing" to which researchers seem to either propose contradicting definitions, despair at the "doomed" efforts to distinguish between them (Zentella 1997, p.81), or declare the unimportance of using any particular term over another (Poplack 1988).

Code-switching can be considered in relation to language acquisition particularly speaking ability. Although shifting languages during a conversation may be disruptive to the listener, when the speaker shifts due to inability to express her/himself, it does provide an opportunity for language development. Code-switching may be integrated into the communication activities used for the teaching of a second or foreign language.

Alongside the vast analytical research and literature involving this aspect of bilingual discourse, much has also been said concerning the attitudes of those within and outside of communities involved in code-switching towards this practice. Lourdes Torres' work with a suburban Puerto Rican community in New York recorded that over 50% of her participants had negative feelings towards the mixing and switching of codes (1987), whereas Montes-Alcalá, in her more recent research in California amongst Spanish speaking youths, noted a shift in the traditional opinion of code-switching towards a more positive appreciation (2000). However, in a different community in the

same state, Toribio (2002) found a considerable range of attitudes including utter rejection, apprehensiveness and even positive opinions. Montes-Alcalá (2000) noted in her research that whilst attitudes gave an insight to the perceived status and stigma of the practice of code-switching, such opinions did not necessarily dictate whether the user was able to or actually did engage in code-switching. However, Toribio noted that when a participant expressed strong disapproval or the sentiment that the behaviour was antithetical to their identity, code-switching occurrence and ability was drastically reduced, thus confirming the idea that such practice is not necessarily a part of bilingual experience (2002). Whilst there is a strong code-switching presence in the media, Johnson commented that outside the Hispanic community there is also a sense of negative opinion from the US Anglo population, who assume that code-switching is indicative of a rejection of full participation in American society and a refusal to learn 'proper' English on the part of Latinos (2000).

According to Johnson (2000) code-switching is deeply linked to the issue of identity. It was noticed by Johnson (2000) that those who had the highest rates of code-switching were also those who had the most significant and balanced contact with the rest of their community. One way in which code-switching can be seen to link to identity is the fact that it functions to preserve Spanish as the use of English does not in fact change the structure of Spanish. Anzaldúa is quoted in Johnson (2000, p.177) as describing ethnic identity as being "twin skin to linguistic identity" and Stavans has argued that language constructs our worldview (Johnson 2000). In this sense, learning a new language for many immigrants to the US is like learning a new cultural identity. However, what we see in code-switching is the mediation of two languages and two cultures, which can be interpreted as an act of "self-reflection" and construction (Toribio 2002, p.98) or even more radically as the creation of a "new powerful voice" (p.110). Finally, what is crucial about code-switching is that whilst it is important to understand the speaker's bilingual ability in both languages, it is equally as crucial to understand how the particular monolingual codes are used within the community as well as community specific cultural and bilingual patterns (Poplack 1988). For example even though a speaker may have the bilingual ability to code-switch, without membership to a code-switching community he or she will lack the necessary practice and social knowledge (Toribio 2002). The significance of community in this sense seems to suggest the importance of the phenomenon beyond a purely linguistic nature.

Given the importance of code-switching in language learning and the opportunities that it provides the present study addresses the following questions:
Does code-switching have any significant effect on the improvement of the elementary EFL students' oral performance?

2. Method

2.1. Participants

The subjects of this study were 44 male EFL learners who were studying English at the elementary level in a language school in Mashhad, Iran. They were between 12 and 17 years old.

2.2. Instrumentation

The following instruments were used to gather data at different stages of this study:

- To homogenize the subjects and in order to ensure that the members of the two groups belonged to the same population, a teacher-made test was used. The test measured the students achievement with reference to their course book i.e., Kids Club series which the subjects had successfully finished in previous terms. To assure the face validity, three experienced teachers reviewed the test. For the sake of reliability the KR-21 yielded a satisfactory index of 0.91.
- To make sure that there was no significant difference between two groups before and after the treatment, an oral performance test was used. The subjects were asked to describe a picture in 5 minutes, their speeches were tape recorded and scored by two scorers analytically based on general spoken English marking scale proposed by Weir (1993). The average score of each individual was considered as their final score in the pre-test and post-test.

2.3. Procedure

Since the present study was an attempt to investigate the effect of code-switching on the EFL learners' speaking ability, the researcher selected 40 elementary EFL students based on a teacher made test (it was discussed earlier). The subjects were randomly divided into two groups of experimental and

comparison. All the subjects were given a pre-test, picture description, which was scored analytically by two raters to make sure that two groups are homogenous at the beginning of the study. The treatment lasted 10 sessions. During each session the subjects in both groups were asked to participate in speaking activities. The subjects of the comparison group were not allowed to use their L1, while the those of the experimental group were allowed to code-switch, as a technique, whenever they came short of vocabulary. After the treatment another picture description test, post-test, was used. The two scorers scored the post-test analytically based on Weir's marking scale for general Spoken English which was also used for the pre-test. The gathered data was analyzed to detect whether there had been any significant difference between the speaking ability of the two groups after the treatment.

3. Results

After administrating the homogeneity test to 44 students, descriptive statistics was obtained. Table 1 demonstrates the descriptive statistics of this test. The mean and the standard deviation equaled 48.02 and 6.11, respectively. They were then randomly divided into experimental and comparison groups.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics of the Homogeneity Test

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance	Skewness	Kurtosis
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic
Total	44	44	32	59	48.02	6.11	65.01	.23	.19
Valid	44								
N									

to check the homogeneity of the experimental and comparison groups at the beginning of the experimentation, a pre- test was administered to both groups , and an independent *t*-test was performed on the two groups test scores. Table 2 summarizes the descriptive statistics.

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics of the Two Groups on the Pre-test

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Pre-test			
1 Comparison	22	12.38	3.03
Experimental	22	14.01	5.01

Regarding the mean scores of two groups there was no significant difference, but in order to be sure of close homogeneity of two groups, a *t*-test was run. It showed that there was no significant difference between the experimental and comparison groups in terms of their oral performance. Table 3 manifests the results:

Table 3. Comparison between Variances and Means of the Two Groups on the Pre-test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	t critical	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Pre-test Equal variances assumed	99	.001	0.65	42	2.02	1.63	1.98	-1.44	2.04

As it has been shown in table 3, the t -observed value for the comparison of the means of two groups was 0.65 at 42 degrees of freedom, which was lower than the t -critical of 2.02. Thus it could be claimed that the two groups were not significantly different in terms of oral performance before undergoing the treatment. After ten sessions of instruction, both groups were given a similar post-test. Table 4 summarizes the descriptive statistics:

Table 4. Descriptive Statistics of the two Groups on the Post-test

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Post-test Comparison	22	14.22	3.05
Experimental	22	18.02	6.13

To see whether the treatment was effective or not, the means of two groups were compared through a t -test. As it has been shown in table 5, the t -observed value was 6.89 at 42 degrees of freedom which was higher than the t -critical of 2.02. Thus, it was concluded that the students' improvement of speaking ability in the experimental group was significantly greater than that of the comparison group.

Table 5. Comparison between variances and Means of the Two Groups on the Post-test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	F critical	t	df	t critical	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Post-test	Equal variances assumed	0.02	6.10	6.89	42	2.02	3.08	3.08	-6.15	1.16

4. Discussion

The present study aims to investigate the impact of code-switching on the Iranian elementary EFL learners' speaking ability. The findings of this research demonstrates that code-switching, as a communication strategy, improve the speaking ability of the EFL learners. According to Skiba (1997), code-switching means that the two languages are kept separate and distinct creating a barrier to interference. This is on the basis assumption that when individuals code-switch, they do not try to make up their own variation of the words they are unable to say correctly. On the other hand, as Eldridge (1996) states, there is no empirical evidence to support the notion that restricting L1 use would necessarily improve learning efficiency.

5. Conclusion

The results of this study indicated that the subjects of the code-switching group achieved a higher mean score in their oral performance post-test than those of the non-code-switching group. Hence it was generally concluded that code-switching as a communication strategy can have positive impact on EFL learners' oral performance. In their research, Mirhassani and Mamaghani (2009) indicates that code-switching can be used as a technique to enhance the speaking ability. They also proved that code-switching helped the students to feel secure in case of shortage of vocabulary resources, and consequently kept their conversation going.

It should be mentioned that further and more detailed studies of different levels, ages, and settings will certainly be needed if we are to assess more fully the pedagogical effects of code-switching in the language classroom.

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A GENRE ANALYSIS OF PUBLIC DEATH ANNOUNCEMENTS IN TABRIZ

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ABSTRACT

Being an unpleasant but common human phenomenon, death is publicly announced in a language that does not only create grief in the bereaved but also presents the deceased in a way that evokes appreciation for him or her. The primary objective of this study was to investigate the death announcements (das) genre in terms of its schematic structure and linguistic features. Adopting swale's (1990) rhetorical approach to genre analysis, the study examined a data set of 108 das borrowed from a das publication center. The schematic structure together with the lexico-grammatical features pointed to a definitive set of socio-cultural norms and values of people in Tabriz, especially in an area called Eram township and the surrounding areas. This research has implications for genre studies and discourses, in general, and studies on death announcements, in particular.

Key words: death announcements, genre, Tabriz, discourses, das publication center

Introduction

The life of humans is noted to revolve around birth, marriage, and eventual death. Death, in particular, in several societies receives much attention. Among the major communicative events related to death are epitaphs, tributes, dirges, and obituaries (Moses & Morelli, 2004). In the present study we focus on obituaries or death announcements. Obituaries are presented in a manner that does not only create grief in the audience but also presents the deceased in a way that evokes appreciation for him or her (Askildon, 2007; Fernandez, 2007; Bryant & Peck, 2009).

It would be a good start to draw a distinction between an obituary and a death announcement. As presented by Fernandez (2006), the term 'obituary' comes from the Latin word 'obitus', meaning departure (a common euphemistic word for death). It refers to a record of announcement of death or deaths, especially in a newspaper, usually comprising a brief biographical sketch of the deceased. According to Campbell (1971), an obituary contains minimal information including the deceased's name, date of birth, place of residence, date of death and, sometimes, cause of death. As it concerns prominent people, it is written by an expert of a publishing firm, and it is free of charge. Campbell argues that an obituary can be pre-written on a file either by or for a notable individual who is still living. This makes it easy to allow detailed, authoritative and lengthy obituaries to appear quickly after the death of a prominent person.

Fernandez (2007) further distinguishes between informative and opinative obituaries. The first type is primarily aimed at giving relevant details about the death: the deceased, place and time of funeral, and next of kin. This is done through an impersonal language and concise expression. The language is presented in an objective and standardized manner. In other words, the language is not ornate. An informative obituary does not employ hyperbolic language to heighten emotions or praise the

deceased and it is often written by an editorial staff in charge of writing such a genre. An opinitive obituary, on the other hand, is written by a relative, friend or the funeral home staff. It offers a more emotive and intimate account of the deceased by means of consolatory and laudatory tactics to satisfy and assuage the feelings of surviving family members. Opinitive obituaries are rather subjective and perform a peculiar function of impressing readers about the social status or the exemplary conduct of the deceased. In such cases, a greater part of the obituary is devoted to the 'family stage'.

On the other hand, a death announcement (DA) is a paid for advertisement of a person's death. It is normally written by a family member or a close friend, both of whom might not necessarily be experts. Like an obituary, a DA is also published in newspapers but in Tabriz, the latter is additionally posted on walls in strategic public places so as to capture greater attention of the public and to increase participation of the public in the funeral/burial/memorial services of the deceased. Also, a DA is much more elaborate.

As claimed by Campbell (1971), the two terms are used interchangeably but the focus of this study is DAs.

2- The aim of study

Diverse studies have been carried out on DAs. While some scholars like Al-Ali (2005), Fernandez (2006/2007), and Marzol (2006) investigated the figurative language of obituaries and DAs, others like Eid (2000), Booth (2002), and Nwoye (2007) concentrated on the structure of the DA genre and factors that influence the language of the DA. The present study seeks to find out whether the DA genre in Tabriz has a common schematic structure that is accompanied by distinct lexico-grammatical features.

3. Previous Studies on Death Announcements/Obituaries

This section, in particular, reviews the literature on the schematic structure of the DA genre, literary/linguistic devices explored by the DA genre, and the functions of the DA genre. The aim of this review is to indicate the place of the present study in the current literature on DAs and obituaries.

3.1 Structure of Death Announcements

There have been several suggestions given concerning the generic structure of the DA genre. Harold et al. (2009) present five moves which obituary writers must adopt. The first is "announcement", which comprises two basic pieces of information: name of the deceased and cause of death. They stressed that these should be captured in a single sentence. The second move, biographical information, includes information like date and place of birth, schools attended, notable awards received and important hobbies. Harold et al. (2009) call the next move "survivor information", which includes people who survive or share in the inheritance of the deceased. They include, in this order, the following: immediate family members (spouse, children, parents, siblings, step-children) and secondary family members (aunts, uncles, grandchildren, close cousins). It is advised that baptismal names of relatives should be used whereas nick-names should be put in quotes. Deceased relatives are the last in this move and their names are preceded by "the late". Next is "scheduled ceremonies" – a note of where and when important ceremonies such as wake, grave-side burials and memorial services will take place. The final move is a note of where people can make donations.

Watson (2008) alludes to four moves in writing an obituary. The first, introduction, comprises the name, age, date and place of death as well as course of death. The second move, biography, comprises the bio-data of the deceased: information on parents, organization in which the deceased were active, things they enjoyed doing, and significant challenges they faced. The third move is the list of surviving relatives. Watson is concerned about the order of the list which includes spouse, children (and their spouses), siblings, number of grandchildren, cousins, friends and co-workers in that order. The final move is what he categorizes as "additional information", which includes place and time of wake (optional) and address of where donations, condolences and gifts can be sent.

These observations and stipulations of the schematic structure of DAs and obituaries aside, there are other studies on a similar subject in different geographical settings such as those by Nwoye (2007) in Nigeria, and Bonsu (2002, 2007) in Ghana.

3.2 Literary and Linguistic Devices in Death Announcements

The current literature reveals that obituary and DAs constitute a fertile ground for the use of linguistic and literary devices (Fernandez, 2006/2007; Rubinstein, 2007; Bressler, 2009; Nelson, 2009).

In particular, Fernandez, (2006/2007) identified devices that constitute the figurative language used in obituaries. They include metaphors, hyperbole, positively and negatively loaded words, and mitigating apology expressions on one hand and rhetorical questions and second person invocations on the other. He established that, from the 257 Victorian obituaries collected, metaphors are the most dominant of the literary devices. He added that metaphors portray death as a journey, loss, joyful life, rest, reward and as the end there is to life. The use of these literary devices, he concluded, was to make obituaries more emotive. Nelson (2009) shared a contrary view, arguing that euphemisms are unnecessary and even disrespectful to human life that was lost. Nelson held that phrases such as 'passed away', 'called home', and 'went to his rest' only assuage the pain that is associated with death, maintaining that it is high time people were made to feel the cruelty of death so as to come to terms with the awful truth that accompanies it.

The use of language in obituaries in Anglo-American contexts provides further interesting findings. Indeed, Bressler (2009) found the language of British obituaries rather saucy and sarcastic, depending on the writer's mood. He realized that, written in the form of story-telling, obituaries were not entirely sympathetic; rather, they stated the mere facts about the deceased. The probable reason was the outbreak of civil wars, which increased the number of deaths and gave no room for obituaries to be embellished with many figurative devices. On the other hand, Deaton (2009) and Gorshon (2009), in an American press release, noticed that Irish and American obituaries shared a lot in common regarding linguistic devices used in them. They held that adjectival and adverbial phrases like 'treasured', 'unexpected', 'peacefully' and 'sadly missed', which dominated the obituaries, rendered them emotionally appealing.

The studies reviewed above obviously share some similarities and differ in terms of methodology, findings and presentations regarding the schematic structure and linguistic/literary devices in DAs.

4. Methodology

This section aims first to describe the data sources and the data collection procedures adopted. The analytical framework used in analyzing the data is also spelt out.

4.2 Method of Analysis

This study utilized the mixed research approach (both quantitative and qualitative methods). The quantitative method enabled the researcher to present figures and facts in tables and other visuals in order to aid understanding while the qualitative method aided the researchers in providing illustrative sample texts and explaining the factors that influenced the various facts obtained.

Also, Swales' (1990) method of genre analysis was found equally useful. It served as the main analytical framework within which the schematic structure of the DA genre was analyzed. Swales defines genre as a set communicative acts with an overarching communicative goal and sub-rhetorical units (which he labels as 'moves') and their attendant lexico-grammatical features as distinguishing features of one genre from another. The content, which is the general information a particular genre puts across, is systematically structured into what Swales calls 'moves'. In other words, moves are the various structural and rhetorical systematic units within the genre which make it distinct from another genre. Together, the schematic structure, content, and lexico-grammatical features in this recurrent situational language use give vent to a genre, as noted by Bhatia (1993) and other genre analysts in the English for Specific Purposes tradition.

Finally, the present study occasionally draws on Kress and Van Leeuwen's (1996) multimodality perspective on textual analysis. This perspective on textual analysis, which rejects linguistic items as the only meaning-making device, recognizes space, colour, position, picture, size, among others, as worthwhile veritable semiotic devices.

5. Generic and Linguistic Description of Death Announcements/Obituaries

From the data set, it was observed that DAs in the data set comprise nine moves. These are as follows: caption, profile of the deceased, list of family members, date, time, and address to hold a ceremony in a mosque, an invitation and concluding sentence, a list of surnames of relatives, names of organizations and companies expressing their regrets, the name(s) of clergyman who would be present in ceremony, announcement of when and where there would be a ceremony for women. (Appendix A presents a sample of the DA genre, showing the moves described and discussed below). The linguistic resources were mainly nominal.

5.1 Caption

The first move of the DA genre is the caption. In this move, the reader is oriented to the fact of death, albeit in various linguistic means. The starting point can be a statement such as "إنا لله وإنا إليه راجعون" (we are from God and return to him). Or another wording such as "مجلس تذكّر" or "مجلس ترحيم" (death memorial ceremony).

Caption may consist of three parts as: the type of ceremony (for 3rd day, for 40th day, or for anniversary of the death), a poem representing the sorrows of the family, and it must be noted also that this is the move which actually announces the death. A declarative sentence is often used but the choice of its linguistic features varies. Some examples identified include the following:


- ☐ ... announce the death of
- ☐ ... regret to announce the sudden death of ...
- ☐ ... with regret, wish to inform the general public of the death of their beloved...
- ☐ ... announce with deep sorrow the home call of...
- ☐ ... announce the passing on of their beloved daughter...
- ☐ ... announce with the deepest of regrets ...
- ☐ ... announce to the glory of God ...
- ☐ ... announce, with the hope of resurrection, the passing away of ...



5.2 Profile of the Deceased

This is the next move of the DA, which is nominal in nature. Here, the full formal name of the deceased is stated. The name is made to stand out through indenting, bolding or capitalizing or any other visual effect. The name is preceded by a title(s) and is post modified by cluster of adjectives, depicting the person's profession, and other social status.

In some cases, nicknames, put in parenthesis as recommended by Watson (2008), are added. Such nick-names are preceded by words such as either 'a.k.a' (which is the shortened form of 'also known as'), 'alias' or 'nee'. Many of the names are followed by the nicknames usually placed in parentheses and in a different font type to perhaps pre-empt any difficulty that readers may have in identifying the deceased, even with photographs added.

This move also includes a photograph of the deceased which helps to identify them. It is interesting to note that all the DAs for men (50) had photographs but the DAs for women did not have any photo of them and there are some drawings of a flower or other things instead of their photographs. These drawings are depicted below:

Drawing	Number of occurrence
	37

	20
	1

It is important to mention that features like hobbies and challenges faced by the deceased mentioned by Watson (2008) and Harold et al. (2009), as requirements of the DA genre, were not found in the DA genre in Tabriz. In DAs in Tabriz, the source of death of the deceased is not mentioned, although in a few cases (2 cases in our study sample), where the deceased has died in accidents, it has been mentioned that he has died in an accident. There is a mention of not being married for those young deceased ones died in youth (جوان ناکام, 7 cases). And a case was mentioned (نوگل نشکفته, un-blossomed flower) since he was very young. Also there has been three cases among the deceased called "خادم دربار اباعبدالله" (the servant of Imam Hossein majesty) and it represents their deep love of the third Imam of Shiats when they were alive.

5.3 List of Members of Family

The next move of the DA genre is the list of family members and others. In general, this list comprises not only the family members of the deceased but also other clan, families or bodies (organizations) who were associated with the deceased (while s/he was alive) or the bereaved family. This move is also presented in nominal structures as it is a list of names.

This list does not include the names of any women members and thus there is gender specificity in this part.

Here the names of the closest male family member appear first and following that you can find the names of male cousins, and uncles and their children's names mostly followed by other close relatives who have had some strong relations with the deceased or his/her family.

5.4 Date, time, and address of ceremony in the mosque

This move of the DA gives a description of the date, time, and address to hold the ceremony for the deceased. Here the items above are shown in bold and bigger size fonts.

مجلس چهلم آنمرحومه روز پنجشنبه مورخه 92/9/7 از ساعت 3 الي 5 بعد از ظهر در مسجد حضرت اميرالمومنين (ع) واقع در شهرک ارم ، منطقه 9 برگزار خواهد شد.

Given the primary function of DAs (that is, announcing death and getting sympathizers to attend the ceremony), this move of the DA genre seems to be the most important part as it provides the direction or information needed by sympathizers to attend the memorial ceremony. Surprisingly, this move is rather relatively short in the DA. But it is very informative.

5.5 An invitation and a concluding sentence

In this move it is informed that those who are going to attend the ceremony are appreciated for their presence beforehand and the deceased's family wants to show gratitude towards their relatives and friends to share the sorrows they are suffering from. The sentence below is used in this move:

حضور دوستان و آشنایان محترم در این مجلس موجب شادی روح آن مرحوم و تسلی خاطر بازماندگان خواهد شد.

It means: "The presence of friends and acquaintances will make the spirit of the deceased happy and the family survivors will be satisfied by the condolences".

5.6 List of surnames of relatives and friends

In this move those people are mentioned who know the deceased by surnames. Here the closest families are mentioned first and then the other ones. Also at this part some important persons such as those having high status knowing the deceased are mentioned such as famous doctors, engineers, parliament members and

Sometimes it is too long and never anybody looks at it fully because it is too extensive. But sometimes it is abridged and short enough to follow all the names written in this part.

5.7 Names of organizations and companies expressing their regrets

In this move those organizations and companies are included that whether the deceased has had any relation with or the family survivors have had any connections with. Here also the closest ones are mentioned earlier and then the others will appear. Also they are sometimes arranged according to their status and social position. The more important ones are highlighted through using different writing techniques to show the importance.

5.8 The name(s) of clergyman who would be present in the ceremony

The presence of at least one clergyman is an obligation in the ceremony and sometimes the names of other clergymen who have had any relationship with the deceased or the family is mentioned.

حجج الاسلام و المسلمین: حاج آقا شکر نژاد ، حاج آقا سعیدیان و حاج آقا علیپور

It should be noted that the first clergyman mentioned here is going to render speeches at the 30 last minutes of the ceremony for those who take part in the ceremony.

5.9 Announcement of when and where women are going to hold a ceremony

Surprisingly, women are the last people mentioned in a DA in Tabriz in a very short sentence to inform where and when they should come to share the sorrows of the deceased's family.

مجلس ختم زنانه همزمان در حسینیه همان مسجد برپاست.

Here mostly the ceremony for women is held in a separate part of the same mosque or in some cases they are asked to go to the home of the deceased family to give their condolences to the survivors.

6. Conclusion

The main objective of this research was to explore the schematic structure and lexico-grammatical features of the death announcement genre in a setting that has least featured in such studies. In this respect, the study adopted Swales' rhetorical approach in genre analysis but that was occasionally complemented by aspects of the multi-semiotic approach. One hundred and eight (108) DAs were collected from a DAs publishing center. The key findings are briefly presented below.

The DA genre in Tabriz has nine core moves: caption, profile of the deceased, list of family members, date, time, and address of the ceremony, invitation and concluding sentence, a list of surnames of the relatives, names of organizations and companies expressing their regrets, the name(s) of clergyman present in the mosque, announcement of when and where women should refer to participate in ceremony.

Surprisingly, women are the last people mentioned in a DA in Tabriz in a very short sentence to inform where and when they should come to share the sorrows of the deceased's family.

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ATTITUDE OF IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS AND TEACHERS TOWARDS USING MOVIE CLIPS IN TEACHING IDIOMS

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ABSTRACT

Without having efficient command of idiom comprehension and use, the natural flow of speaking and listening processes in a language are impaired. Given the salience of teaching idioms effectively and the challenges language teachers normally grapple with in doing so, finding functional techniques to teach idioms have been the central focus of many studies after the emergence of post-method era. The present study aims to explore the attitude of 40 Iranian EFL learners and teachers towards the use of movie clips as a new method of English idioms instruction. As a mixed-method study, interviews and questionnaires were both used to gauge the attitude of 30 EFL learners and 10 EFL teachers. The results revealed that both groups have a strong positive attitude towards the use of movie clips as a new method of English idioms instruction. The findings of this study bear implications for both language teaching practitioners and syllabus designers.

Keywords: English Language Idioms; Idioms Instruction; Educational Movie Clips

1. Introduction

In every language one area that may give rise to misunderstanding is idiom comprehension. But what exactly are idioms? Idioms are a part of what Moon (1992, p.13) calls: "fixed expressions" which are arguably "the most difficult part of the vocabulary of a language for learners to acquire fully" (Moon, 1992, p.25), however providing an exact definition of idiom is difficult.

Moon (1992) asserts that idioms are institutionalized or conventionalized stretches of language which are almost always stored and produced holistically and can be decoded compositionally, word by word, but may be considered idiomatic because of a mismatch between their compositional values and their overall pragmatic function (Moon, 1992). An example of this is "half a loaf is better than none" (Moon, 1992). This proverb is stored as a unit and can easily be understood by knowing the literal meanings of all the words which are used idiomatically.

Learning and understanding idioms, metaphoric and idiomatic expressions have long played an important role in educational linguistics. In fact, the use of idioms is so widespread that understanding these expressions is essential to successful communication, whether in listening, speaking, reading, or writing (Cooper, 1999).

The integration of idioms into language classroom proceedings has very important ramifications in the teaching and learning process of English. Idioms in and outside the classroom are widely believed to help teachers and students promote an innovative environment of communication. However, the integration of idioms in the teaching and learning process may be difficult or ineffective for some learners or teachers because it is not relevant or necessary for carrying out educational goals (Wu, 2002). The type of activities and how they are constructed in the classroom is found as one of the most important aspects that help to the success of using idioms in and outside the classroom (Astrachan, 2006). The amount of the frequency of idioms is an important aspect of vocabulary acquisition and language teaching (Fernando, 1996). Native speakers of a language use idioms all the time. Idiomatic

usage is so common in every language, and of course in English, that it seems very difficult to speak or write without using idioms.

Using films or movie clips has been widespread since the proliferation of implementation of new technologies in language teaching and learning. Films are motivating for EFL/ESL teaching because they stress the notion that there is a story that wants to be told rather than a lesson that needs to be taught (Ward & Lepeintre, 1996). Films are very valuable and rich resources for teaching because they present colloquial English in real life contexts rather than artificial situation; an opportunity of being exposed to different native speaker voices, slangs, reduced speeches, stress, accents, and dialects. (Stempleski, 2000).

Idiom learning has been studied widely in English language institute students. Findings show that factors such as culture, context, academic literacy (reading, writing, and language ability) and familiarity influence significantly the students comprehension of idioms (Nippold, Martin, & Schwartz, 2001; Qualls, O'Brien, Blood & Hammer, 2003). These studies also support the notion that language experience is a significant determinant in student's facility with idioms. The current study seeks the answer to the following research questions:

1. What is the attitude of EFL learners towards the application of movie clips in teaching new idioms?
2. What is the attitude of EFL teachers towards the application of movie clips in teaching new idioms?

2. Literature Review

Honeck (1997) notes that figurative language is language that means one thing literally but is taken to mean something different and it is a special aspect of language. Gibbs (1980) holds that a strong knowledge of idioms will help the students to be better speakers and negotiators. They will also be in a better position to use their knowledge in appropriate contexts. Concerning teaching formulaic language and idioms in particular, some teaching approaches have been presented. Among them three approaches each of which has a different role of formulaicity in learning language come below: The first approach proposed by Nattinger and DeCarrio (1992) deals with the interactional functions accompanied by individual examples of common formulaic sequences. They focused on their usefulness in teaching conversation and recommended the following exercises:

- Pattern practice drill using fixed routines to develop confidence and fluency
- Controlled variation using substitution drill to demonstrate that "the chunks learnt previously were not invariable routines, but were instead patterns with open slots,"
- Increased variation "allowing them to analyze the pattern further" (Nattinger & DeCarrio, 1992, p.35).

The second approach which belongs to Lewis (1993) downgrades the significance of the single words as a unit and prefers the broader term like lexical item. In this approach, the lexical phrase is of importance. So, he selects lexical phrases on the basis of their "archetypicality" and his aim is to provide:

- "A large vocabulary, if low students are initially unable to grammaticalize it".
- "Balance between relatively rare words carrying considerable meaning and relatively wide and frequent patterns with low meaning content" (Lewise, 1993, p.58).

The third approach is devoted to Willis (1990) who favors "procedures which make the patterns salient (personal communication). He believes that it is a need to help students to notice patterning and to speculate about them". His approach introduced formulaic sequences incidentally, as part of the body of data used to demonstrate words in their customary usage. The rational is clear and sensible:

The common pattern in English occurs again and again with the commonest words in English. If we are to provide learners with language experience which offers exposure to the most useful patterns of the language, we might as well being by researching the most useful words in the language (Willis 1990, p.38).

Willis (1990) pivoted his material on key words, selected for their frequency. For example, he shows how way, the third most common noun in English (after time and people) appears in characteristic fixed phrases such as *the best way...is to...; one way of...-ing...is by...-ing* (p.38). Thus, Willis's attention is focused; much more than that of others, on part-variable stings, including the *lexicalized sentence stems* of Pawley and Syder (1983).

Irujo (1986) in her study pointed out that grouping idioms according to topic cannot only make them easier for students to learn, but also makes it easier for teachers to relate the exercises to topic-based

units in course books and she has found that students are always amused to learn idioms such as those dealing with, for example, part of the body (*green thumb, all thumbs, two left feet, cold feet, and so on*) all together in such a group. Wray (2000) believes that if we compare idioms in the target language with idiom in the mother tongue, this can be both an interesting exercise in itself and a means of remembering idioms more effectively. In a study (Beuscher, Robers, and Schnider, 2005) revealed a significant increase in specific knowledge as well as strong age effects of test format. Children aged 6, 8, and 10 years were shown a short film about sugar production and one week later they were individually questioned about it using different test formats: Free recall, open-ended questions and recognition questions. Expectedly, older children outperformed younger children and open-ended and recognitions yielded more correct information than free recall. Marsh and Fazio, (2006) in their study argued that although people are probably aware that popular history films are partially fictionalized, previous research indicates that information from fiction is often integrated with real-world knowledge which leads to learning and subsequent production of misinformation. Quiang, Hai, and Wolff (2007) in their study tried to explain the notion of using film. They concluded that exposing students to the language has been explored and recognized as being more beneficial for student's communicative skills, rather than grammar and such. Silvia (2008) showed that the entertainment value of a film increases interest in the topic, which can boost people's motivation to learn.

3. Methodology

3.1. Participants

Thirty intermediate EFL students and 10 English teachers were participants of this study. Students aged 14 to 21. Teachers aged 26 to 44 with teaching experience ranging between two to 16. The setting of the study was Aseman Language Academy in Kerman, Iran. Learners and teachers were chosen based on convenient sampling after the end of treatment procedure (see below).

3.2. Instruments

A questionnaire was administered to determine the students' and teachers' attitudes towards the application of movie clips for teaching idioms. They were a modified version of a popular questionnaire developed by Gardner (2005), called Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB), whose reliability and validity have already been supported (Gardner, 2005; Gardner & Macintyre, 1983). These questionnaires consist of 15 items with responses ranked on a Likert Scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree), 2(disagree), 3(neutral), 4(agree), to 5(strongly agree). A Likert scale is a psychometric scale commonly involved in research that employs questionnaires. It is the most widely used approach to scaling responses in survey research (Wuensch & Karl, 2005). To measure someone's attitudes or behaviors, a Likert scale is one of the most popular (and reliable) way to do so. The reliability of the questionnaires was determined through an exact pilot study given to 20 similar students and five English teachers similar to samples of the main study in the gifted. The Cronbach Alfa was used to estimate their reliability indexes and they were acceptable (more than 0.7).

For cross validation purposes, the interview method was utilized. Basically, the interview method is qualitative in nature as it involves the gathering of data through direct interaction (Babbie, 2005). According to Brown and Dowling (1998), the interview format is a method of data gathering which enables the researcher to explore complex issues in detail.

3.3. Procedure

Four classes were exposed to the idioms through watching movie clips containing the idioms over two semesters in spring 2014. The whole research took three and a half months. The new method, using video clips, was used which was in contrast to the traditional use of antonyms and synonyms in teaching idioms. To exemplify, the way of teaching the idiom "between the devil and the dark blue sea" is as follows:

The students were shown a movie clip that contained the idiom 'between the devil and the dark blue sea'. The students watched the clip two or three times in a language lab in order to get the meaning. Then, the researcher asked the students to write the text on a piece of paper. At the end, the students were asked some questions about the conversations in the movie clip to know whether the students got the idiom or not. The idioms were chosen based on the students' level of proficiency, culture, religion, interest, motivation, and practical feasibility.

After the end of two semesters, the two attitudinal questionnaires were administered. Thirty students and 10 English teachers completed them in order to reflect their attitudes towards teaching and learning idioms along with their movie clips.

3.4. Data Analysis

Chi Square Tests was used to analyze the individual items of movie clip questionnaire. The Chi-Squared, is common statistical procedures used after this transformation. Chi-Squared is often used in the analysis of Likert Scale data. Chi-Square is a statistical test commonly used to compare observed data with data we would expect to obtain according to a specific hypothesis (Corder & Foreman, 2009).

3.5. Results

3.5.1. Students' Attitudes towards Movie clip

To serve his purpose, the researcher administered questionnaires to obtain the student's attitudes towards using movie clips in teaching idioms.

Table1. Descriptive Statistics of Students' Attitudes towards Movie Clips

Group	N	Mean	Std Deviation	Std Error Mean
questionnaire Movie clip	30	55.2000	2.63138	.48042

Table 1. Displays the mean and standard for movie clips. It also shows the numbers of students (N). According to table 1, the total mean score of movie clip questionnaire is 55.20, so for teaching idioms students had positive attitudes towards the application of movie clips.

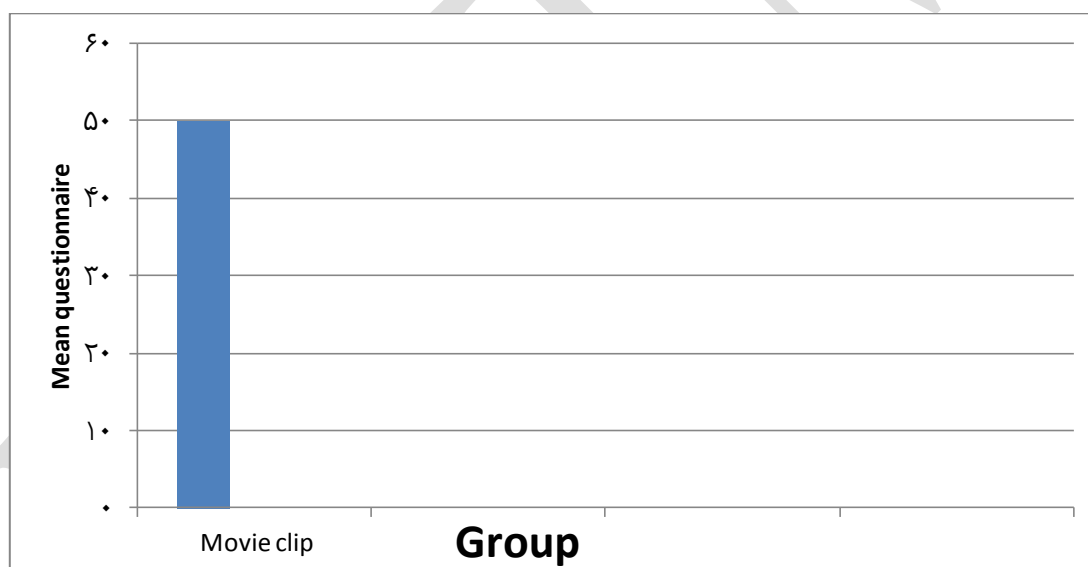


Figure 1. Graphic Representation Mean of Movie Clip in Student's Questionnaire

Figure 1 shows the mean scores in the student's questionnaires towards movie clips in teaching idioms. The students had good attitudes towards using movie clips in the idiom classes.

The data collected from the interview also supported the collected data from questionnaire and the researcher also used Chi-Square Test to analyze the individual items of movie clip questionnaire. Due to the questions fifteen categorical subjects in the questionnaire were used. Table 2 includes the observed Ns and indicates the student's attitudes towards using movie clips to teach the new idioms in the classrooms.

Table 2. Interview Movie Clip Items

	Categorical data	N	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
1	Awareness raising	30	0	2	27	1
2	Keeping in touch with others	30	0	7	19	4
3	Making students more knowledgeable	30	0	7	23	0

4	Long retention of idioms	30	0	11	19	0
5	Better comprehension of idiomatic meaning	30	1	20	9	0
6	Better use	30	0	3	27	0
7	Not a waste of time	30	0	6	23	1
8	Better comprehension of aural materials	30	0	7	20	3
9	High stimulation of students	30	0	10	18	2
10	Better comprehension of written materials	30	3	13	14	0
11	Better use in speaking	30	0	4	25	1
12	Better meaning inference	30	0	3	27	0
13	Better interpretation of idiomatic meaning	30	2	24	4	0
14	Better comprehension of informal nature of idiom	30	0	2	27	1
15	Positive feeling towards the technique	30	1	24	5	0

According to observed Ns in table 2 and by considering scales 4(agree) and 5(strongly agree) as positive answers to one item, it can be concluded that, on the whole, movie clips participants had positive attitudes towards using movie clips to teach idioms. Table 2 shows that in questions 1,2,3,4,6,7,8,9,10,11,12, and 14 most of the students agreed with the categorical data. But in questions 5, 13, and 15 most of the student had neutral attitudes towards the application of movie clips to teach idioms in the classrooms.

Table 3. Results of Chi-Square Test on six Questions 1-6 in Movie Clip Questionnaire

	Opt test	Awareness raising	Keeping in touch with others	Making students more knowledgeable	Long retention of idioms	Better comprehension of idiomatic meaning	Better use
Chi-Square	19.000	43.400	12.600	8.533	2.133	18.200	19.200
df	6	2	2	1	1	2	1
Asymp.sig	.004	.000	.002	.003	.144	.000	.000

Table 3 is representative of chi-square test obtained for questions 1-6. The first interview question was about awareness raising. According to the significant level obtained 0.000, there is significant relationship between awareness raising and presentation of video clips to teach idioms in classroom. Regarding the second question raised in questionnaire, it should be mentioned that there is a significant relationship between the presentation of video clips in classroom aimed at teaching idioms and keeping in touch with others. The significance level obtained for the third question was 0.003 at p value (0.05); therefore, there was a significant relationship between teaching idioms through video clips in classroom and the students' knowledge. But considering the relationship between idiom's teaching via video clips in classroom and language retention of them, according to significance level obtained at p= 0.05, there is no significant relationship. The sixth question of the questionnaire access the relationship between better comprehension of idiomatic meaning and video clip based teaching of idiom in classroom. As it is clear, there is a significant relation between these two variables at p= 0.05.

Table 4. Results of Chi-Square Test on Questions 7-11 in Movie Clip Questionnaire

	Not a waste of time	Better comprehension of aural materials	High stimulation of students	Better comprehension of written materials	Better use in speaking
Chi-Square	26.600	15.800	12.800	7.400	34.200
df	2	2	2	2	2
Asymp.sig	.000	.000	.002	.025	.000

Table 4. is indicative of the chi-square test results obtained for questions 7-11. As the significance level for question No.7 indicates, the relationship between playing video clips in classroom to teach idioms from and the fact that it is not a waste of time to do this is significant. Taking the relationship between better comprehension of aural materials and teaching idioms in classroom from video clips into account, it should be said that the relationship is significant at $p= 0.05$. since the significance level for question No.9 at $p=0.05$ is 0.002, it can be claimed that the relationship between students' high stimulation and motivation and movie clip based teaching of idioms is significant, namely students are motivated when exposed to this method of idiom teaching. The tenth question propounded in the questionnaire investigates the relationship between students' better comprehension of written materials and presentation of idioms through video clips in the context of classroom, since the significance level is less than $p=0.05$. Moreover, the relationship between students' better use of idioms in speaking and presentation of idioms through showing video clips in classroom environment is significant at $p=0.05$.

Table 5. Results of Chi-Square Test on Questions 12-15 in Movie Clip Questionnaire

	Better meaning inference	Better interpretation of idiomatic meaning	Better comprehension of informal nature of idiom	Positive feeling towards the technique
Chi-Square	19.200	29.600	43.400	30.200
df	1	2	2	2
Asymp.sig	.000	.000	.000	.000

Table 5 shows of the chi-square results obtained for questions 12-15. As the significance level for these questions were 0.000 at $p=0.05$, so the relationship between better meaning inference, interpretation of idiomatic meaning, comprehension of informal nature of idiom, and positive feeling towards technique and teaching idioms through movie clips in classroom are significant.

As already mentioned, in the explanations related with table 4.5 the second research question was answered.

3.5.2. Teachers' Attitude towards Movie Clip

In this part the researcher dealt with teacher's attitudes towards the application of movie clips to teach idiom.

In group statistics in table 4.6 SPSS 16 indicates the mean and standard deviation for each of the groups. It also shows the number of the students in each group (N).

Table 6. Descriptive Statistics of Teachers' Attitudes towards Movie clips

Group	N	Mean	Std Deviation	Std Error Mean
questionnaire Movie clip teacher	10	66.2000	1.54919	48990

Based on table 6. the total mean score of movie clip questionnaire was 66.20. They show that the teachers had positive attitudes towards the application of movie clips.

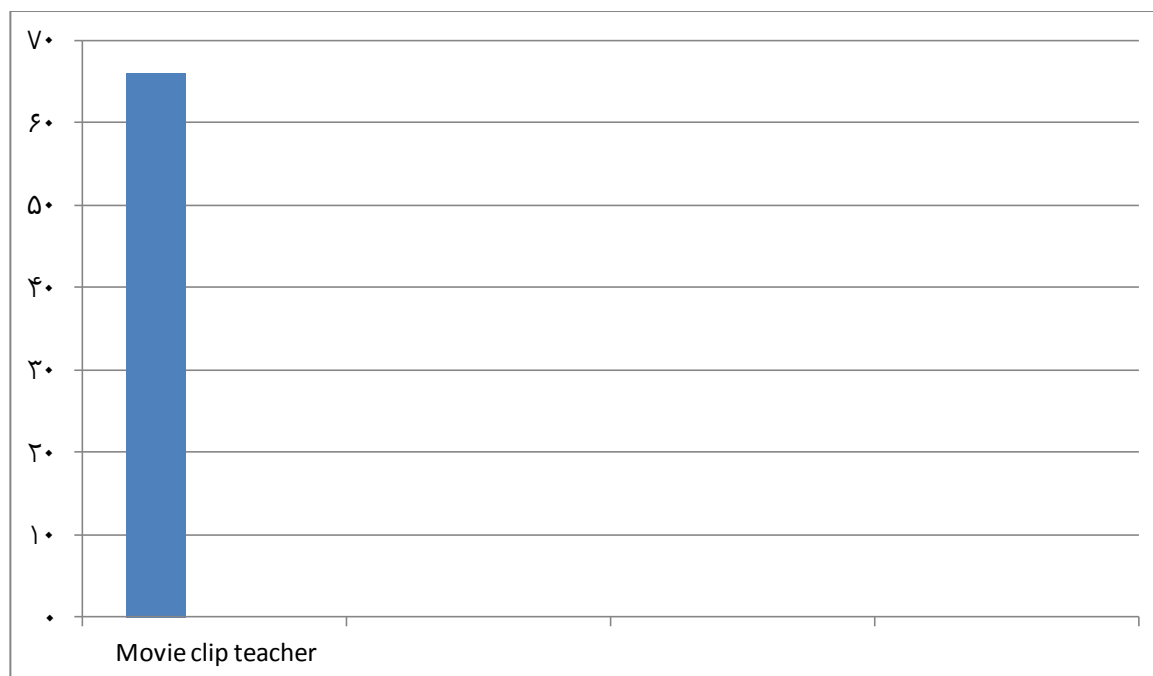


Figure 2. Graphic Representation Mean Movie Clip in teacher's Questionnaires

Figure 2 shows the mean scores in the teacher's questionnaires towards using movie clips in teaching idioms. According to descriptive statistics in table 6, the total mean score of movie clip questionnaire was 66.20. Therefore, it can be concluded that teachers had good attitude towards using movie clip in teaching idioms. Based on table 6 third null hypothesis was rejected.

The analysis of the questionnaires also revealed that both L2 learners and L2 teachers have positive attitudes towards using movies in their L2 idiom teaching classes. This can also be considered as one of the reasons for the positive effects of these methods on Iranian EFL learner's idiom learning.

4. Discussion

Some would argue that nothing would be worse than a language learner using an idiom inappropriately, either through an incorrect use of idiom or through using it in inappropriate context (Arnand & Savignon, 1997; Fernando, 1996). It is not the case that students and language learners memorize a range of idioms and expressions and then wait for a suitable opportunity to use them in conversational context. Arnand and Savignon (1997) in a study, surveying 236 French learners at four levels, ranging from first-year university major to teachers in mid-career, found that even after ten years of instruction in the target language and culture, L2 learners were still not able to handle idiomatic expressions successfully. One important component of successful language learning is the mastery of idiomatic forms of expression including idioms, collocations and sentence phrases; collectively referred to as formulaic sequences. (Wray, 2000). Whenever we ask higher level students what they would like to do more, the answer with no doubt is idioms and phrasal verbs in particular. Irujo (1986) believed that teaching idioms requires a multi-faced approach. Sometimes, a teacher needs to explain the grammar of idioms, such as the difference between separable and non-separable verbal idioms. In foreign language contexts, knowing idiomatic expressions and a feeling for how and when they are used can certainly improve the learner's ability to read in the target language and to understand colloquial conversation. After a period of relative negligence, language teachers have come to realize that idioms, as an important aspect of language, are worthy of more attention and investigation (Grand & Bauer, 2004). The need for idiom learning on the part of the students is something upon which both students and teachers agree; therefore, the problem is not with the importance of idiom learning, but the way through which students can better learn, retain and retrieve L2 idioms. Poor idiom knowledge of Iranian EFL students is a matter of serious concern among those involved in area of language teaching and learning and their request for finding suitable remedies is getting more and more intense (Sadeghilar, 1993). In recent years there has been increased interest in targeting formulaic language in second language teaching. Liantas (2006) stated that

knowledge of idioms is essential if on L₂ learner is to be able to understand native speaker's language and not textbook language since a native speaker's language is full of idiomatic expressions. "In fact, the average native speaker of English produces about 3000 metaphors a week" (p.214). Findings of this study are in line with those of the previous studies (Boers, et al., 2007; Shang-fang-Gue, 2008; Brandi-Muller, 2005; Liontas, 2002; Boers, 2001; Cacciari & Glucksberg, 1991) Positive attitudes of L2 learners and teachers towards using movie clip in L2 classes can encourage teachers to use such methods in their classrooms. These findings can address a number of key issues in the way practitioners, teachers, and educators handle the question of how idioms can be learned more effectively. The results are especially of great value to teachers in Iran, who despite devoting much time to idiom teaching are usually faced with student's complaints of learning idioms. Teachers may also familiarize the students with various methods and encourage them to read and use idioms in their studies. The results of this study can be illuminating for instructors who want to add variety in their work by teaching idioms to their students. The common institutes in Iran don't have time for extra activities. Because of their nature, idioms can be a good subject for extra activities in special institutes.

5. Conclusion

Since the English language contains a lot of idioms and fixed expressions, providing some good way to teach and use idioms seems to be useful. The students are keen on learning and using them in their speeches, lectures, and writings and language learners believe that using idioms in different occasions make them more interesting, as it is the case with their first language activities and presentations (Levorato & Cacciari, 1995). Because of the tricky nature of idioms, students face problems extracting their meanings and there is no clear solution for this problematic area. In this regard, this study was conducted in a language academy to investigate the attitude of a total of 40 language teachers and learners towards using movie clips as a new method of teaching English idioms. The finding of this study can help L2 teachers to become acquainted with new methodologies in teaching idioms to L2 learners in order to improve their learner's idiom knowledge. The results of this study may be of benefit to EFL teachers and students. The finding may encourage teachers to update their methods on teaching idioms and change their viewpoints in favor of memorizing idioms. In this way, they may try to incorporate new teaching technique such as applying movie clips in their program.

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EFL TEACHERS' IDEALITY AND EFL LEARNERS' ACHIEVEMENT

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ABSTRACT

The present study has attempted to investigate the relationship between the EFL teachers' level of effectiveness and ideality on the one hand, and the EFL learner achievement on the other. To that end, two research questions were posed to determine whether EFL teachers' and learners' ideas on teachers' effectiveness and ideality correlated, and determine if there existed a significant relationship between EFL teachers' level of effectiveness and ideality and learners' achievement. Teachers' level of effectiveness and ideality was established through a questionnaire developed by Gadzella (1971). The EFL learner achievement was obtained through calculating the learners' mean of their final examination marks. Spearman-rho correlation, however, did not reveal a significant relationship between the two; hence the null-hypotheses were confirmed.

Keywords: *EFL Teacher, EFL Learner, Teacher Ideality, Teacher Effectiveness, Learner Achievement*

Introduction

One of the main domains of research in the field of Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) is teaching-learning issues of English as a foreign language. A wide range of teacher-related variables influencing learning conditions and quality has been considered until now. The current research studies one aspect of teacher factors, namely teacher effectiveness and ideality, and its impact on learner achievement.

A superficial look at the available body of research in the field of TEFL reveals the fact that teachers and teacher-related variables are one of the major topics of investigation. Moreover, teacher effectiveness and ideality is dealt within the learning context. Learners are directly manipulated by teachers as they are the target group of teachers' work. By the same token, a considerable number of studies has investigated the relationship between teacher quality and learning conditions. It is believed that teacher effectiveness and ideality bring about positive change in the learner academic gains and achievement (Heck, 2009, Heck, 2007, Nye et al., 2004, etc.). However, this relationship has not always been observed, and certain studies have failed to yield confirming results. Heck (2009) believes that two main factors, namely lack of having a comprehensive definition for teacher effectiveness and ideality as a psychological factor and the cross-sectional nature of most of studies failing to capture temporal concerns, affect research results.

The aim of this study is to find if there is significant relationship between EFL teachers' effectiveness and ideality and learners' achievement. If yes, it may have a positive impact on learner achievement.

Research questions

1. Is there a relationship between EFL teachers' and their learners' ideas on the level of teachers' effectiveness and ideality?
2. Is there a relationship between the level of EFL teachers' effectiveness and ideality and learner achievement?

Hypotheses :

1. There is no relationship between EFL teachers and their learners' ideas on the level of teachers' effectiveness and ideality.
2. There is no relationship between the level of teachers' effectiveness and ideality and learner achievement.

Review of Literature

Teaching-learning reciprocities have always been in vogue throughout the history of language education. The Western world history of language education is full of changes and reforms. Psychology and teaching have never been separated from each other. Educational psychology has always been elucidating teaching trends. Behaviorism, Cognitivism, and Constructivism are the most notable schools of psychology with worldwide impacts on language teaching fashions. Different psychological schools of thought resulted in the adoption of several language teaching methods and approaches throughout the twentieth century. According to Kumaravadivelu (2006) language teaching methods can be grouped into three main domains: language-centered methods, learner-centered methods, and learning-centered methods. In addition, he acknowledges a fourth group called designer methods.

Methods' era, witnessing all the shifts and cycles in adopting language teaching trends, came to its end after a century. However, this extended search failed to uncover and introduce to the language teaching profession the best method which represented the most ideal form of the concept in its real sense. Although each method was born out of the concept that it would ameliorate the previous method's shortcomings, they added salt to the injury by yet introducing more pitfalls to be considered. Different names and brands were only superficial_ their base proved to be the same. Methods seemed not to be promising as they did in the beginning of the twentieth century.

Teachers and their different characteristics, such as effectiveness, have been the topic of a considerable number of studies. Heck (2009), for example, announces: "Among school factors found to affect student outcomes consistently are ... teachers (e.g. professional qualification, skills, classroom effectiveness)" (pp. 228-229). Many studies have been devoted more specifically to teacher effectiveness and its dimensions and effects on learner achievement and learning gains.

Heck (2009) generally asserts that there exists a relationship between instruction quality and student outcomes and declares: "Much attention has focused on upgrading the quality and effectiveness of the school's teaching staff. Previous studies have found teacher characteristics (e.g. preparation, qualification, knowledge) and behavior affect student learning" (p. 242). In accordance with Heck's (2009) general statement, Babai Shishavan and Sadeghi (2009) add a similar comment and announce that "... the teacher's positive and favorable personality psychologically influences the learners' effective learning" (p. 135).

Heck (2007) cites Goldhaber (2002), Lee and Burkam (2003), Lee et al. (1997), and Wenglinsky (2002) on the fact that: "Students' access to challenging learning opportunities, learning support, and positive social relationships with teachers contribute to their academic success" (p. 401).

Nye et al. (2004) report their research result, based on a study to consider teacher effects, this way: "The results of this study support the idea that there are substantial differences among teachers in the ability to produce achievement gains in their students" (p. 253).

Darling-Hammond (2000) in her study on teacher quality states that: "Despite conventional wisdom that school inputs make little difference in student learning, a growing body of research suggests that schools can make a difference, and a substantial portion of that difference is attributable to teachers" (p. 2). She also observes that "... this research indicates that the effects of well-prepared teachers on student achievement can be stronger than the influences of student background factors, such as poverty, language background, and minority status" (p. 33).

Wright et al. (1997) emphasize the priority of teacher effectiveness over class heterogeneity or size in their study:

"The results show that teacher effects are dominant factors affecting student academic gain and that the classroom context variables of heterogeneity among students and class sizes have relatively little influence on academic gain. Thus, a major conclusion is that teachers make a difference" (p. 57).

Although all mentioned studies in this part up to now confirm learner achievement to be related to teacher effectiveness and ideality, certain cases prove to be the reverse. According to Heck (2009) :

"One criticism of studies on the size and sustainability of teacher effects is that they often fail to take into account the successive teachers who come after the teacher whose long-term impact is being evaluated. ... A second criticism is the extent to which estimates of teacher effects can (and should) be used as measures of classroom effectiveness, especially in high-stakes evaluation situations, because of concerns with their validity and reliability" (p. 231).

Moreover, Heck (2009) claims that teacher effects are possible to be reported in a conservative manner_ with values less than real with an underestimating effect. Also, the research framework can be effective in manipulating the results. Nye et al. (2004) consider the effect of learner background which may negatively interfere with the obtained results in this research area.

Methodology

Participants

Two different groups of participants were involved in this study. The first group consisted of 178 EFL learners from intermediate, upper intermediate, and advanced levels of proficiency (male=71, female=107). They were from four different education levels. It is noteworthy that two EFL learners did not provide us with to report their educational status. Moreover, the general heading of "graduated from school or university" includes graduation from all levels of High school, Higher diploma, B.A, B.S, and one case of Masters degree. The second made up of 14 EFL teachers (male=7, female=7). Most of them were in their twenties and a few of them had reached their thirties. 57.14% of them majored in English language translation or English language literature at B.A level. 35.71% of them were M.A students of TEFL or linguistics. Also, one of them was a PhD candidate of literature. All the teachers were from Zanjan and had a minimum teaching experience of two years. These teachers provided the researcher with necessary information to be correlated with the basic data. Both groups belonged to ZabanSara-e-IranZamin English language institute at Zanjan, Iran.

Instrumentation

The instrument utilized in this study was a 25-item questionnaire (*Students' Views of an Ideal Teacher*©1971, Bernadette M. Gadzella). Each item was designed in the form of a statement about learners' views of an ideal teacher (Gadzella, 1971), concentrating on one specific criterion of ideal teachers. The original form of the questionnaire was modified to become more user-friendly as the respondents needed not to read about teacher criterions which would confuse them. (Refer to Appendix A and B)

Procedure

Reliability of the research instrument

According to Mousavi (1999, p. 323) reliability is "... a quality of test scores which refers to the consistency of measures across different times, test forms, raters, and other characteristics of the measurement context." It is vital that the instrument has a high index of reliability because otherwise, the obtained results will be useless. Brown (2004, pp. 20-22) acknowledges four dimensions to the concept of reliability: "Student-related reliability, rater reliability, test administration reliability, and test reliability." Each of these dimensions is considered briefly here.

Student-related reliability is a learner-centered issue which cannot be much controlled by the administrator. To assure that learner feelings and conditions at questionnaire administration time had the least effect on results, the researcher preferred a large sample size.

Rater reliability refers to rating process of tests and can be divided into two types of inter-rater and intra-rater reliability. In the case of this study, the rating process was limited to checking yes-no answers to each item. Therefore, rater reliability is fully achieved.

The questionnaire was administered in class context. Thus, certain distracters such as outside noise might have had their effects on learners. However, the administrator (i.e., the researcher) attempted to minimize such effects on learners' attention.

The administered questionnaire, considering the last type of reliability which is test reliability, has a high index as it is not too long to fatigue learners' minds. Also, the administration was not timed so that a number of participants miss certain items.

Validity of the research instrument

Validity is the second criterion we consider about this research instrument. "A test is said to be valid to the extent that it measures what it is supposed to measure or can be used for the purposes for which it is intended" (Mousavi, 1999, p. 441). Farhady et al. (2004, pp. 148-155) discuss three main types of validity: Content validity, criterion-related validity, and construct validity. Criterion-related validity can be of two types of concurrent and predictive validity. Also, Brown (2004, pp. 26-27) mentions yet another kind of validity called face validity. In the following, the three estimates of content validity, construct validity, and face validity related to this study are considered.

A test must correspond to the content which it attempts to gauge. In the case of this study, all the questions were homogeneously triggering teacher effectiveness and ideality and were in line with research content framework, i.e., representing the content from which selected.

The next type of validity discussed here is the construct validity of the instrument. The researcher's professors approving of the questionnaire qualified this instrument to be a valid gauge of teacher ideality since they have successive years of experience in the field of TEFL.

Mousavi (2002) believes "face validity refers to the degree to which a test looks right, and appears to measure the knowledge or abilities it claims to measure, based on the subjective judgment of the examinees who take it, the administrative personnel who decide on its use, and other psychometrically unsophisticated observers" (cited in Brown, 2004, p. 26). Having this definition mind, the present questionnaire has face validity as it looks suitable according to the purpose it seeks. Scoring of the questionnaire was a straightforward and objective task as there were only two choices, i.e., yes or no. No wrong answers existed and the participants had only reported their opinions about an EFL teacher of the institute. The choices were given numerical values: two points for yes, one point for no. The results ranged between the extremes of 25 (no to all items) and 50 (yes to all items). The last procedural step was to choose a valid index of learner achievement in the course of two terms. According to several authors, such as Kato et al. (2007), the arithmetic mean of learners' final examination marks during the two terms of language learning was considered to be an indicator of learner achievement.

Design of the study and data analysis

This study is based on correlational design which fits the framework of an ex post facto research design (Hatch and Farhady, 1981). This design was chosen for the study for the following reasons: firstly, the researchers had no control over the study variables and also cause-and-effect relationship was not the focus of this research; secondly, the participants were selected based on no prior randomization or grouping categories and the overall relationship between the two sets of obtained scores was the aim of the study; thirdly, no control group existed; and finally, the study included no treatment procedure.

For data analysis, the results obtained from the distributed questionnaires were correlated with the results of participants' final examination marks by *Spearman-rho correlation* via SPSS.

Results

Null-hypothesis number one

The results of the *Students' Views of an Ideal Teacher* questionnaire results, both from EFL learners and their respective EFL teachers, were analyzed via the SPSS software to check whether they were significantly correlated.

The relationship between teachers' ideas and learners' ideas on the level of teachers' effectiveness and ideality was investigated using Spearman-rho correlation coefficient. Preliminary analyses were performed to check the assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity. There was a medium, positive correlation between the two variables, with the correlation coefficient of .34, $n=14$, and the significance level of .22 ($p=.22>.05$); with high levels of teachers' ideas associated with higher

levels of learners' ideas (Figure 1). Observable as it is in Figure 1, a slight pattern can be identified; however, since the correlation coefficient does not reach the level of significance ($p>.50$), the null-hypothesis is supported.

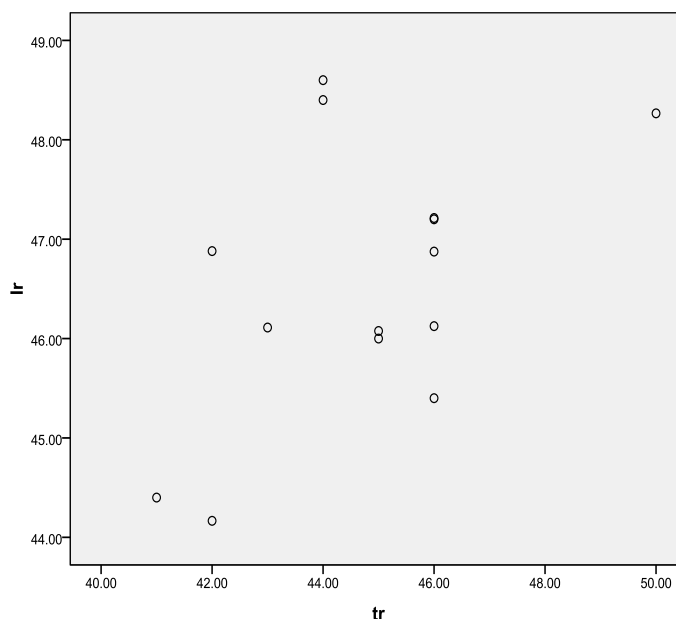


Figure1. The graphic representation of the correlation between teachers' ideas (tr=Teacher Rated Questionnaires), and learners' Ideas (lr=Learner Rated Questionnaires)

Null-hypothesis number two

Results were also correlated with the mean of the learners' final examination scores obtained in the last two terms of learning English using the SPSS software. The relationship between the EFL teachers' level of effectiveness and ideality and learner achievement was investigated using Spearman-rho correlation coefficient. Preliminary analyses were performed to check the assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity. There was a small positive correlation between the 2 variables, with the correlation coefficient of .18, $n=14$, and the significance level of .53 ($p=.53>.05$); with high levels of EFL teachers' effectiveness and ideality associated with higher levels of learner achievement (Figure 2). Although a general pattern is detected in this case as well as the previous one, it is not significant enough ($p>.50$) to reject the second null-hypothesis.

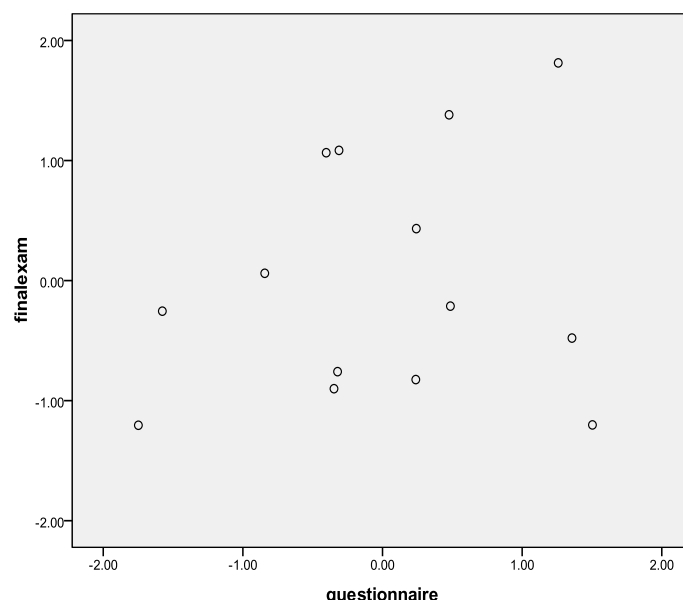


Figure 2. The graphic representation of the correlation between level of teachers' effectiveness and ideality and learners' achievement

Discussion

All the cited studies in the review of literature (Heck, 2009, Heck, 2007, Nye et al. 2004, etc.) support a positive relationship between teacher effectiveness and learner achievement. The results of this research are in line with the results of such works. However, they are not significant enough. The possible reasons of this condition are: different instrumentations utilized in obtaining results; different number of participants affecting the scope of the study; ways by which the research instrument had been filled; lack of teacher proficiency determination with counter effective impacts on the ideality ratings of learners; and finally inclusion of different proficiency groups of learners with possible different viewpoints on the concept of teacher ideality and effectiveness. It can be stated that due to the mentioned limitations of this study, the results did not reach the level of significance.

Teacher education and teacher quality improvement programs may improve the results.

As different cultures and settings have unique and unpredictable effects on this aspect of teacher personality, it is suggested that researchers carry out this research project in their own settings. Moreover, this research can investigate native teachers' ideality as opposed to non-natives as in this study. It is strongly suggested that the number of teachers who participate in such a study be sufficient so that the results will not be negatively affected. Homogenous classes on the same level and with the same textbooks are proper populations for this topic. Gender and age factors may be influential regarding this topic and can be investigated. Different means of gathering teacher effectiveness and ideality data may yield more fruitful results.

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Appendix A

Students' Views of an Ideal Teacher Questionnaire

The Original Version

YES	NO	DESCRIPTION OF CRITERION	CRITERION
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	1. Has a thorough knowledge, both basic and current, of the subject he teaches	Knowledge of Subject
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	2. Has a deep interest in and enthusiasm for the subject he teaches	Interest in Subject
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	3. Has respect for other subject areas, indicates their relationship to his own subject of presentation	Interrelationship of Subject Areas
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	4. Presents topics from different points of view	Extent of Views
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	5. Organizes and/or participates in research	Researcher
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	6. Writes books and articles for journals and publications	Writer
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	7. Takes an active part in community life, participates in clubs and community projects	Participator in Community
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	8. Is inspiring, has the ability to present material to meet students' interests and needs	Flexibility
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	9. Provides for questioning periods, encourages independent thinking	Encourages Students' Participation
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	10. Has a sense of humor, avoids irrelevant and/or distasteful jokes	Humor
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	11. Uses appropriate language, has ability to explain clearly, presents material at students' level of comprehension	Vocabulary
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	12. Speaks loudly with good enunciation and pronunciation	Speech
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	13. Is pleasant, establishes a good rapport, maintains a relaxed atmosphere conducive to learning	Informality
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	14. Respects differences of opinion, accepts constructive criticism	Respects Student's Views
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	15. Shows sincere interest in teaching college students	Interest in Teaching Students
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	16. Is punctual for classes	Punctuality
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	17. Is well groomed and appropriately dressed	Appearance
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	18. Has daily lessons well organized, provides an outline of the course and its objectives and a list basic references	Daily and Course Preparation
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	19. Provides list of supplementary references and aids	Supplementary References
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	20. Presents lectures and/or lessons which are "meaty"	Sufficient Material
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	21. Utilizes various realistic approaches and methods in presenting material, including review and use of appropriate teaching aids	Methods of Teaching
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	22. Gives sufficient number of appropriate assignments and tests based on material covered	Assignments
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	23. Has definite standards, is impartial in his grading	Standards and Grading
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	24. Is prompt in returning tests and assignments	Promptness in Returning Assignments
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	25. Has office hours free to provide opportunities for individual conferences, recognizes and provides for individual differences and interest	Availability

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Appendix B

Students' Views of an Ideal Teacher Questionnaire

The EFL Teacher Version

The Ideal English Language Institute Teacher

	An ideal English language institute teacher is someone who:	YES	NO
1	has a thorough knowledge, both basic and current, of the subject he/she teaches.	Ⓨ	Ⓝ
2	has a deep interest in and enthusiasm for the subject he/she teaches.	Ⓨ	Ⓝ
3	has respect for other subject areas, indicates their relationship to his/her own subject of presentation.	Ⓨ	Ⓝ
4	presents topics from different points of view.	Ⓨ	Ⓝ
5	organizes and/or participates in research.	Ⓨ	Ⓝ
6	writes books and articles for journals and publications.	Ⓨ	Ⓝ
7	takes an active part in community life, participates in clubs and community projects.	Ⓨ	Ⓝ
8	is inspiring, has the ability to present material to meet students' interests and needs.	Ⓨ	Ⓝ
9	provides for questioning periods, encourages for independent thinking.	Ⓨ	Ⓝ
10	has a sense of humor, avoids irrelevant and/or distasteful jokes.	Ⓨ	Ⓝ
11	uses appropriate language, has ability to explain clearly, presents material at students' level of comprehension.	Ⓨ	Ⓝ
12	speaks loudly with good enunciation and pronunciation.	Ⓨ	Ⓝ
13	is pleasant, establishes a good rapport, maintains a relaxed atmosphere conducive to learning.	Ⓨ	Ⓝ
14	respects differences of opinion, accepts constructive criticism.	Ⓨ	Ⓝ
15	shows sincere interest in teaching college students.	Ⓨ	Ⓝ
16	is punctual for classes.	Ⓨ	Ⓝ
17	is well groomed and appropriately dressed.	Ⓨ	Ⓝ
18	has daily lessons well organized, provides an outline of the course and its objectives and a list of basic references.	Ⓨ	Ⓝ
19	provides a list of supplementary references and aids.	Ⓨ	Ⓝ
20	presents lectures and/or lessons which are "meaty."	Ⓨ	Ⓝ
21	utilizes various realistic approaches and methods in presenting material, including review and use of appropriate teaching aids.	Ⓨ	Ⓝ
22	gives sufficient number of appropriate assignments and tests based on material covered.	Ⓨ	Ⓝ
23	has definite standards, is impartial in his/her grading.	Ⓨ	Ⓝ
24	is prompt in returning tests and assignments.	Ⓨ	Ⓝ
25	has office hours free to provide opportunities for individual conferences,	Ⓨ	Ⓝ

	recognizes and provides for individual differences and interests.		
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Appendix B

Students' Views of an Ideal Teacher Questionnaire

The EFL Learner Version

Students' Views of an Ideal Teacher

I am: Male ☐ Female ☐ Age: Level of Education: This is myterm in Zabansara.

	An ideal teacher is someone who:	YES	NO
1	has a thorough knowledge, both basic and current, of the subject he/she teaches.	(y)	(n)
2	has a deep interest in and enthusiasm for the subject he/she teaches.	(y)	(n)
3	has respect for other subject areas, indicates their relationship to his/her own subject of presentation.	(y)	(n)
4	presents topics from different points of view.	(y)	(n)
5	organizes and/or participates in research.	(y)	(n)
6	writes books and articles for journals and publications.	(y)	(n)
7	takes an active part in community life, participates in clubs and community projects.	(y)	(n)
8	is inspiring, has the ability to present material to meet students' interests and needs.	(y)	(n)
9	provides for questioning periods, encourages for independent thinking.	(y)	(n)
10	has a sense of humor, avoids irrelevant and/or distasteful jokes.	(y)	(n)
11	uses appropriate language, has ability to explain clearly, presents material at students' level of comprehension.	(y)	(n)
12	speaks loudly with good enunciation and pronunciation.	(y)	(n)
13	is pleasant, establishes a good rapport, maintains a relaxed atmosphere conducive to learning.	(y)	(n)
14	respects differences of opinion, accepts constructive criticism.	(y)	(n)
15	shows sincere interest in teaching college students.	(y)	(n)
16	is punctual for classes.	(y)	(n)
17	is well groomed and appropriately dressed.	(y)	(n)
18	has daily lessons well organized, provides an outline of the course and its objectives and a list of basic references.	(y)	(n)
19	provides a list of supplementary references and aids.	(y)	(n)
20	presents lectures and/or lessons which are "meaty."	(y)	(n)
21	utilizes various realistic approaches and methods in presenting material, including review and use of appropriate teaching aids.	(y)	(n)
22	gives sufficient number of appropriate assignments and tests based on material covered.	(y)	(n)
23	has definite standards, is impartial in his grading.	(y)	(n)

24	is prompt in returning tests and assignments.	Ⓨ	Ⓝ
25	has office hours free to provide opportunities for individual conferences, recognizes and provides for individual differences and interests.	Ⓨ	Ⓝ

MJLTM

THE EFFECT OF GLOSSING TECHNIQUE ON INCIDENTAL VOCABULARY RETENTION, A COMPARISON BETWEEN TEXTUAL AND MULTI-MEDIA GLOSSES

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ABSTRACT

Developing techniques for handling unknown words during reading activities has always been one of the principal challenges of English reading classes. One such technique that facilitates vocabulary learning and saves students' time and effort in reading L2 texts is "Glossing." The present study examined which gloss type, textual or multi-media, is more effective for vocabulary learning through reading. After administering a proficiency test, 105 homogeneous students were assigned to two experimental groups (X1 & X2) and one control group. Afterwards, a pre-test (Test of Novelty) was administered to verify students' unfamiliarity with the intended target words to be learned later. During this study experimental groups received different types of glosses for unknown words. As opposed to experimental groups, the control group received no glosses. In order to assess the efficacy of each gloss type, two types of post-tests were administered: immediate and delayed post-tests both in recognition and production form. A one-way ANOVA indicated that learners with access to different gloss types demonstrated significantly greater retention of word meanings. Additionally, a further analysis known as the Tukey test was conducted to pinpoint exactly where the differences exist in a pair-wise way. The results of this analysis showed that X2 outperformed the other experimental group (X1) and the control group. Furthermore, to assess the difference in outcome between short-term and long-term word retention a within-subjects was applied.

Key words: Incidental vocabulary learning, Gloss, Textual gloss, Multi-media gloss, Retention.

1. Introduction

Arguments have been advanced supporting the reading of L2 literary texts as powerful sources of linguistic and cultural input. In fact, the use of any authentic selection is apparently very appealing to foreign language students (Swaffar, 1985; Laufer, 2001; Krashen, 2004). Many literary passages, however, contain so many low-frequency vocabulary items that the readers' background knowledge may be unavailable because of the undue attention required to decode individual word meanings. In this case, reading no longer provides a minimally stressful access to real language but becomes instead a "three to four" hour ordeal, mainly because of the non-native readers' constant recourse to a

dictionary. The importance of vocabulary is underscored by studies which found that, in certain contexts, just one unfamiliar word can render a sentence or even a whole passage incomprehensible (Wittrock, Marks & Doctorow, 1986; Watanabe, 1997). Such studies provide teachers with excellent reasons for devoting attention to the vocabulary enhancement of their students. But language teachers face a dilemma in current teaching situations. Although they have admitted the importance of vocabulary learning in English teaching and wanted to teach a lot of it to their students, it is impossible for them to spend most of the class time on vocabulary teaching alone. Moreover, students, themselves, are not interested in intentional vocabulary learning in which they are requested to do some exercises that focus on vocabulary itself. That is, EFL students prefer incidental vocabulary learning in which their attention are focused on some other features. In this vocabulary learning style, they learn vocabulary through reading texts, working on reading comprehension tasks or doing other activities that are not directly related to vocabulary learning.

However, the process by which incidental vocabulary learning takes place is slow and the amount of vocabulary acquired through this kind of learning is relatively small (Krantz, 1991; Paribakht & Wesche, 1997; Min, 2008). That is, successful and efficient incidental vocabulary learning just through reading alone cannot be expected.

Glossing is a well-known technique for enhancement of incidental vocabulary learning. This study aimed at investigating the effectiveness of different gloss types, that is, textual and multi-media glosses on incidental vocabulary retention of Iranian students.

1.1.Objectives of The Study and Research Questions

This study aimed at investigating the effectiveness of different types of glosses on incidental vocabulary retention of Iranian third-semester Azad University students.

The following questions are to be answered through this study:

1. Do textual annotations facilitate vocabulary acquisition across the time?
2. Does glossing words through different modalities (image, sound, and printed text) affect incidental vocabulary retention?
3. Does exposure to any type of gloss have a significant effect on L2 readers' learning of target vocabulary words as measured through a) recognition or b) production tasks? And if so, will this effect be maintained over a period of time?

To be on a safe side, the following null hypotheses were proposed:

HO: Textual glosses do not have any facilitating effects on incidental vocabulary retention of Iranian students.

HO: Multi-media glosses do not have any significant effect on L2 readers' retention of target words.

HO: Glosses do not have any effects on long-term retention of learned words.

2. Literature Review

Researchers have examined the effectiveness of glosses on incidental vocabulary learning (Hulstijn, 1992; Jacobs, Dufon, & Hong, 1994; Paribakht & Wesche, 1996; Watanabe, 1997; Al-Seghayer, 2001; Wang, 2005; Yoshii, 2006; Min, 2008). Comparison of gloss conditions with non-gloss conditions has revealed the advantage of using glosses for enhancing incidental vocabulary learning. The question, therefore, has shifted from whether or not glosses are useful for vocabulary learning through reading to which gloss type is most effective. Some researchers have further investigated the effectiveness of different formats in text glosses (Gettys, Imhof, & Kautz, 2001; Grace, 2000; Rott, Williams, et al. 2002). Attempts to compare the impact of different types of glosses on reading comprehension and incidental vocabulary retention have brought mixed results, some indicating no difference between them and others suggesting the advantage of one gloss type over the others (Chen, 2002; Hulstijn & Laufer, 2006).

2.1. Definition of Gloss

Traditionally, a "gloss" refers to short definitions or explanations of the meanings of words at the bottom or sides of a text in order to support learners' reading comprehension (Lomicka, 1998; Nation, 2001). According to Roby (1999) "glosses are many kinds of attempts to supply what is perceived to be deficient in a reader's procedural or declarative knowledge." (p. 96). In this research, glosses refer to English brief definitions, pictures, or any kind of attempts which are supplied for "unfamiliar" words in the texts to bridge the gap between the L2 text and the L2 reader's limited lexical knowledge.

Lomicka (1998) states that glosses are brief definitions or explanations which are most often supplied for “unfamiliar” words in a text. According to Hullen (1989), glosses were once of three types: synonyms, encyclopedic comments, and grammatical notes. Reading strategy suggestions and interspersed questions (Otto & White, 1982), too, have been called glosses. Stewart and Cross (1991) strongly maintain that glosses should not be confused with embedded or inserted questions... , since marginal glosses, notes written in a blank space round the printed matter on a page, represent a markedly different treatment of texts. More examples of a gloss “by any other name” are: adjunct aids (Chun & Plass, 1996), metanotes (Wolf, 1990), metatext (DeCoster, 2004), and paratext (McDonell, 2006). Oxford (1995) provides many possibilities under the rubric of assistance: error correction... a useful learning strategy... a full explanation, a schematic/partial explanation ... a leading question ... a pictorial representation of a verbal expression... a cooperative learning activity... an encouraging word at just the right moment.

2.2. Classification of Gloss

Glosses can be described and classified according their authorship (teacher-developed/ learner-generated), presentation (priming/ prompting), function (procedural/ declarative), focus (textual / extratextual), choice of language (L1/ L2/ L3), form (verbal/ visual/ audio), and format (basic dictionary form/ sentence level equivalents).

2.3. Different Gloss Types and Their Effects on Incidental Vocabulary Retention

2.3.1. Textual Gloss: Segler (2001) defined textual glosses as brief definitions or translations which are most often supplied for unknown words in a text. Lomicka (1998) gave the definition more correctly: “typically located in the side or bottom margins, textual glosses are most often supplied for ‘unfamiliar’ words, which may help to limit continual dictionary consultation that may hinder and interrupt the L2 reading comprehension process” (p.41).

2.3.2. Multi-Media Gloss: Salem (2006) suggested that “multi-media or hypermedia refers to computer-based applications that provide information in a nonlinear way through multiple types of resources such as text, graphics (still pictures) and sound.” (p. 23)

2.4. Research on the Effectiveness of Textual Glosses

The most obvious advantages of glosses, brief definitions or explanations which are most often supplied for “unfamiliar” words are that they enhance general comprehension, improve vocabulary retention, and save students’ time and effort in reading L2 texts. More importantly, glosses allow teachers to increase students’ exposure to authentic learning materials that are beyond the learners’ linguistic level, thus challenging students to read authentic, unabridged texts. Thus teachers can use glossing to significantly increase comprehensible input, an important condition of successful L2 acquisition (Krashen, 1989).

The early eighties witnessed the use of marginal glosses in assisting remedial and learning disabled readers to read more successfully (Richgels, & Hansen, 1984). While marginal glosses have been used to facilitate reading in a foreign language for many years, the resulting implications were soon applied with heightened frequency to students reading native language (L1) texts, and later, within the last decade to readers of foreign language (L2) texts. In general, researchers have agreed that glosses facilitate reading comprehension and aid vocabulary learning. Davis’ (1989) study not only supports such positive effects but concurrently refutes arising questions concerning the possible distracting repercussions of glossing. Similarly, quantitative analyses have shown that students utilizing a glossed text recalled significantly more than students reading unglossed versions (Jacobs, 1994). Furthermore, both Hulstijn and Watanabe have reported positive results in the retention of previously unknown vocabulary when reading for comprehension (Hulstijn, 1992; Watanabe, 1992). In general, four advantages result from glossing. First, glosses can help readers understand new words more accurately by preventing incorrect guessing. Driving meaning from context can be difficult and risky because of the readers’ lack of language or reading strategies (Bensoussan, & Laufer, 1984; Nation, 2001; Hulstijn, & Laufer, 2006). Second, glossing can minimize interruption while reading is in process. Since glossing provides definitions for low frequency words, L2 readers do not have to constantly look them up (Nation, 1990; Nation, 2001). Third, glosses may help readers build a bridge between prior knowledge or experience and new information in the text. In other words,

interactions among gloss, reader, and text may promote comprehension and retention of the content of the text. Besides these points, glosses in key words can help readers recall their background knowledge and connect it to the text (Stewart, & Cross, 1991). Fourth, glosses can make students less dependent on their teachers, allowing for greater autonomy.

Findings thus far related to the relationship between glossing and vocabulary retention have been numerous (Jacobs, 1994). Jacobs, Dufon, and Hong (1994) reported findings from an experiment conducted with intermediate students study Spanish: Glossing did significantly affect recall, and students with an average proficiency in a second language demonstrated a higher recall when using glosses. Subsequently, a research conducted by Hulstijn, Hollander, and Greidanus (1996) tended to support the use of glossing in L2 vocabulary retention. Students who were able to consult glosses before reading or during reading process recalled more of the text word meanings than those without glossing aids.

Moreover, Lomicka (1998) conducted a research to find out “whether to gloss or not to gloss the target words? (p.51)” The findings of this study revealed that students who received glosses in their first language outperformed those who received no assistance.

Furthermore, in a study done by Kost, Foss, and Lenzini (1999), the effect of textual glosses on incidental vocabulary learning of second-semester German students were investigated. Support was found for the hypothesis that subjects utilizing textual glosses would outperform subjects under the other two conditions on the retention of target words.

Al-Jabri (2009) studied the influence of L1 and L2 marginal glosses on incidental vocabulary learning. He found that incidental vocabulary learning is higher when L2 readers have access to the meanings of words through marginal glosses.

2.5. Multi-media Glosses and Their Effects on L2 Vocabulary Retention

In a critical analysis of L2 vocabulary learning techniques, Brown, Waring, et al (2008) stated that most learners are capable of associating new information to concepts in memory by means of meaningful visual images that make learning more efficient. Visual imagery is known to help learners’ package information more efficiently than they could if using just words alone. Moreover, the pictorial-verbal combination involves many parts of the brain, thus providing greater cognitive power.

The introduction of computers into the field of second/foreign language education caused a large number of practitioners to concur that this technology holds great potential for language learning (Levy, 1997; Pennington, 1996; Warschauer & Healey, 1998; Plass & Jones, 2005; Hulstijn & Laufer, 2006; Yanguas, 2009). This belief leads to what is known as Computer-Assisted Language Learning, more commonly referred to as CALL. Even though the field is still young, many language educators are endorsing its use as an essential component in language teaching. Embracing the use of computers seems to be due to the fact that computers are capable of performing multiple tasks and thus are more than simply text processors. The computer can organize, select, and present multiple sensory components.

Several types of glossing when reading for comprehension have been addressed in the literature and could be subsumed under textual and visual glossing and a mixture of the two. Texts and pictures which are placed at the margin of texts when the students click on the hyperlinked word help the readers understand the meaning of difficult words in the text.

In a widely cited study, Yanguas (2009) investigated the effect of visual information for vocabulary learning and students’ look-up behavior. The results were twofold: firstly, incidental vocabulary acquisition rates of 25% in production tasks and 77% in recognition tasks were observed; secondly, significantly higher scores were found for words annotated with text and picture than those glossed with text only.

Salem (2006) also measured how different types of glosses influenced incidental vocabulary growth of the students. Results showed that those participants who had access to both textual and pictorial glosses outperformed those under the textual gloss conditions in the recognition of target words on both short-term memory and retention tests over a period of time. He argued that these results were due to the different degrees of cognitive effort needed to process: the mapping of pictures onto the mental model provides a stronger bond than the mapping of words due to the different representations of their information.

Based on work carried in the field of psychology, Mayer proposed that it is through two channels that human beings represent and manipulate knowledge: a visual-pictorial and an auditory-verbal channel (Mayer, 1997, 2001, 2002, 2005b). Therefore, the use of textual and pictorial glosses would enter the cognitive system through those two channels. He argued that “meaningful learning occurs when learners engage in active processing within the channels, including selecting relevant words and pictures, organizing them into coherent pictorial and verbal models, and integrating them with each other and appropriate prior knowledge” (Mayer, 2002, p. 60).

3. Methodology

3.1. Participants

The subject pool consisted of 158 third semester Iranian students who had enrolled at the Islamic Azad University, Firoozkooh Branch. Only male students were considered as subjects in this study. The average age of the participants was 28.5 years, ranging from 18-48 years of age. The subjects had the same native language and cultural background. After administering a proficiency test (TOEFL Test), 105 homogeneous students were chosen as the main subjects of the study. They were then put into two different experimental groups and one control group.

3.2. Instruments

Four instruments were used in this study: a test of language proficiency, a test of novelty, immediate post-tests (Production & Recognition), and delayed post-tests (Production & Recognition).

The language proficiency test (TOEFL Test) was used at the beginning of the study to determine the subjects' language proficiency level. It comprised eighty multiple-choice items. The first thirty items concerned the measurement of the students' vocabulary knowledge; the second thirty items were constructed to assess the students' grammatical knowledge, and the last twenty items were intended to measure the students' comprehension of the selected passages.

The test of novelty was also used before starting the study to ensure the subjects' unfamiliarity with the words to be retained later. The novelty test comprised 60 vocabulary items which had been selected from the assigned materials to be read by the subjects. These vocabulary items were presented in 3 sections: the matching section with 10 items, the multiple-choice section with 10 items, and the production section which contained a list of 40 target words for which the subjects were supposed to provide English definitions. This test was administered to the subjects and only those words with which none of the students was familiar were included in the study.

Vocabulary post-tests, the same as the test of novelty, with the familiar words discarded, were administered as the post-tests (Immediate & Delayed) to assess the subjects' vocabulary retention.

Two types of post-tests were administered: production and recognition. The production post-test comprised 50 production items for which the subjects were asked to provide English definitions. And the recognition post-test comprised 8 matching items, and 42 multiple-choice items for which the subjects were asked to choose the correct choices. In preparing the multiple-choice items of the recognition test one criterion was met: The stems of the items did not provide any contextual clues which might help the examinees find the correct responses without knowing the meanings of the intended words.

Furthermore, to assess the difference in outcome between short-term and long-term word retention, immediate post-tests (recall of the words immediately after reading the texts) and delayed post-tests (recall of the words after three weeks) were administered.

3.3. Data Collection Procedures

To accomplish the purpose of the study, the following procedures were carried on:

The language proficiency test (TOEFL Test) was administered in the first session of the study to assess the homogeneity of students. All 158 students took part in the test. The results were then used to select those students who were supposed to be the final participants of the study. Those students whose scores fell between 15.46 and 5.67 were chosen for the final data analysis.

The novelty test was administered in the second session of the study. The rationale for using this kind of test was its feasibility and its appropriateness for the level of the subjects.

Six roughly-equivalent non-fictional texts were used as the assigned materials. Texts were quite similar in terms of readability and lexical profiles. Using the “Fog index of readability”, the difficulty level of the passages was computed. Readability indexes were presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Readability Indexes of the Assigned Materials

passage	1	2	3	4	5	6
Readability Index	22.07	22.96	23.55	24.96	26.12	27.34
Average	24.49					

Piloting of the experimental texts: Twenty randomly selected participants underlined all the unknown words in the texts. Only words underlined by more than half of the participants were selected to be glossed. After piloting, 120 potential target words were selected. Specifically, the number of new target words per text was approximately 20.

Glossing: Approximately 20 words in each text were glossed. In the experimental conditions, textual and multi-media glosses were provided for the nominated words of the texts. For providing textual glosses, the definitions of troubling words were written in the margin. For the provision of multi-media glosses, the words were hyperlinked. When the participants clicked on a word, a box appeared below the word with a definition in English, a still picture, and also the pronunciation of the word was uttered.

Participants in the first experimental group (X1) received glosses in the form of printed text definitions (textual glosses). The second experimental group (X2) was introduced to a hypermedia-learning program in which glosses were provided in the form of printed text definitions coupled with still pictures and sounds. As opposed to experimental groups, the control group received no glosses for the troubling vocabulary items in the texts.

The passages were assigned one session a week over a 3 week period (during each session two passages were covered and also two immediate post-tests were given), saving two sessions for the pre-tests (Language Proficiency Test & Test of Novelty) administration and one session for the delayed post-tests administration.

Vocabulary post-tests, the same as the test of novelty, with the familiar words discarded, were administered as the post-tests (Immediate & Delayed) to assess the subjects' vocabulary retention.

Two types of tests were administered: production and recognition. Participants performed the production task first so that the multiple-choice recognition task would not provide additional exposure to the target words.

Moreover, to assess the difference in outcome between short-term and long-term word retention, immediate post-tests (recall of the words immediately after reading the texts) and a delayed post-test (recall of the words after three weeks) were administered. On the whole the subjects' vocabulary retention was measured based on their performances on the post-tests. The students' scores were recorded to be used in the final data analysis.

3.4. Design

The design of this investigation was an experimental design which can be called the pre-test post-test homogeneous groups design. This design was often used in classroom experiments when experimental and control groups were such naturally assembled groups as intact classes, which were made homogeneous. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was also used to determine whether or not the mean test scores of each of the three groups were significantly different from one another.

A mixed experimental design was adopted. A between-subjects design was applied to measure the effects of the application of different gloss types. To assess the difference between short-term and long-term retention of words, a within-subjects design was applied.

4. Data Analysis Procedures

Data were analyzed using both descriptive and inferential statistics. Descriptive statistics consisted of the means, standard deviations, and frequency counts obtained from the scores of the students in the experimental groups and the control group both on the pre-tests and the post-tests. They were used to reveal a general picture of the three groups under investigation. Inferential statistics comprised the application of ANOVA to determine whether the means of the three groups were too different to attribute to sampling error, and the application of a Tukey test for the further analysis of the data.

Statistical Analyses were done based on the obtained scores of the subjects on the pre-tests and post-tests. They were presented in the following tables.

4.1. Analysis 1

The descriptive statistics of the subjects' scores on the proficiency test were presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics of the Subjects' Scores on the Proficiency Test

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	(Kr.21)r
Subjects	105	10.49	5.184	0.681
N of Items	75(acceptable items)			

A one-way ANOVA was utilized to show the homogeneity of the three groups. The results were presented in Table 3.

Table 3. One-way ANOVA for Performance on the Proficiency Test

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F ratio	F critical
Between Groups	.009	3	.005	.000	3.05
Within Groups	1065.475	1	11.988		

As the results of the one-way ANOVA showed, there was no difference between the three groups and they were homogeneous.

4.2. Analysis 2

Descriptive statistics of the subjects' scores on the Test of Novelty were presented in Table 4.

Table 4. Descriptive Statistics of the Subjects' Scores on the Pre-test (Test of Novelty)

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std Error	Minimum	Maximum
Control	35	1.9389	1.1786	.2124	.00	4.00
Experimental 1	35	1.9411	1.1675	.2039	.00	4.00
Experimental 2	35	1.9390	1.1893	.2103	.00	4.00

A one-way ANOVA was also used to determine whether the means of the three groups differ significantly on the pre-test (Test of Novelty). The results were presented in Table 5.

Table 5. One-way ANOVA for Performance on the Pre-test (Test of Novelty)

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F ratio	F critical
Between Groups	.02	3	.01	.005	3.15
Within Groups	130.125	1	2.453	.005	

As the result of the one-way ANOVA showed, the F ratio (.005) did not exceed the F critical value (3.15) at the .05 level of significance. This implied that there was no significant difference among the control and two experimental groups and as a result the three groups were almost homogeneous.

4.3. Analysis 3

Descriptive statistics of the subjects' scores on the immediate post-test (Production Test) were presented in Table 6.

Table 6.Descriptive Statistics of the Subjects' Scores on the Immediate Post-test (Production Test)

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std Error
Control	35	3.023	1.13	1.143
Experimental 1	35	6.154	2.78	.945
Experimental 2	35	8.112	3.17	1.254

Then production scores were submitted to repeated measures ANOVA which were presented in Table 7.

Table 7.One-way ANOVA for Performance on the Immediate Post-test (Production Test)

source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F ratio	F critical
Between Groups	131.561	3	87.765	23.146	3.15
Within Groups	101.213	1	4.869		

As the results of the one-way ANOVA showed, the obtained F ratio (23.146) exceeded the F critical value (3.15) at the .05 level of significance, implying that there was a significant difference between the three groups' performances on the production test.

Descriptive statistics of the subjects' scores on the immediate post-test (Recognition Test) were presented in Table 8.

Table 8.Descriptive Statistics of the Subjects' Scores on the Immediate Post-test (Recognition Test)

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std Error
Control	35	6.27	1.9876	.3098
Experimental 1	35	14.97	4.1765	.3734
Experimental 2	35	21.94	5.9763	.4121

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to see how the control and the two experimental groups performed on the immediate post-test (Recognition Test) and whether the differences among their means were significant or not. The results were presented in Table 9.

Table 9.One-way ANOVA for Performance on the Immediate Post-test (Recognition Test)

source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F ratio	F critical
Between Groups	241.65	3	147.873	37.342	3.15
Within Groups	279.25	1	5.643		

As the results of the one-way ANOVA showed, the obtained F ratio (37.342) exceeded the F critical value (3.15) at the .05 level of significance, implying that there was a significant difference between the three groups' performances on the vocabulary post-test.

4.4.Analysis 4

Descriptive statistics of the subjects' scores on the delayed post-test (Production Test) were presented in Table10.

Table 10.Descriptive Statistics of the Subjects' Scores on the Delayed Post-test (Production Test)

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std Error
Control	35	2.13	.953	.5101
Experimental 1	35	8.56	1.67	.4827
Experimental 2	35	10.97	1.92	.4895

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to see how the control and the two experimental groups performed on the delayed post-test (Production Test). The results were presented in Table 11.

Table 11. One-way ANOVA for Performance on the Delayed Post-test (Production Test)

source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F ratio	F critical
Between Groups	103.82	3	60.043	15.985	3.15
Within Groups	75.68	1	3.765		

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to see whether or not there is a significant main effect for Time, a significant main effect for Group and a significant interaction between Time and Group. They were presented in Table 12.

Table 12. Production ANOVA for Group and Time

source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F ratio	F critical
Group	89.79	3	48.96	1.978	1.15
Time	45.95	1	10.54	5.873	.0001
Time x Group	21.66	3	11.765	2.435	.069

Results yielded a significant main effect for time, with significant main effect for Group and a significant interaction between Time and Group

Descriptive statistics of the subjects' scores on the delayed post-test (Recognition Test) were presented in Table 13.

Table 13. Descriptive Statistics of the Subjects' Scores on the Delayed Post-test (Recognition Test)

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std Error
Control	35	6.87	1.978	.3065
Experimental 1	35	11.96	3.634	.3698
Experimental 2	35	17.13	6.114	.3923

Recognition scores for every group were submitted to repeated measures ANOVA to see whether the differences among their means were significant or not. The results were presented in Table 14.

Table 14. One-way ANOVA for Performance on the Delayed Post-test (Recognition Test)

source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F ratio	F critical
Between Groups	220.587	3	123.765	22.453	3.15
Within Groups	364.346	1	6.965		

As the results of the one-way ANOVA showed, the obtained F ratio (22.453) exceeded the F critical value (3.15) at the .05 level of significance, implying that there was a significant difference between the three groups' performances on the vocabulary delayed post-test.

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to see whether or not there is a significant main effect for Time, a significant main effect for Group and a significant interaction between Time and Group. They were presented in Table 15.

Table 15. Recognition ANOVA for Group and Time

source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F ratio	F critical
Group	179.897	3	88.652	7.123	2.05
Time	65.64	1	29.698	15.871	.0001

Time x Group	40.67	3	19.765	3.998	1.80
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Results yielded a significant main effect for Time, with significant main effect for Group and a significant interaction between Time and Group.

4.5. Analysis 5

However, this significant F did not pinpoint exactly where the differences exist in a pair-wise way. That is, the three groups differed significantly, but did group 1 differ from group 2, and/or group 3? Did group 2 differ from group 3, and/or 1? These questions could be answered by a further analysis of the data using a post hoc test known as the Tukey test. The results of multiple comparisons were presented in Tables 16 and 17.

**Table 16. Multiple Comparisons
Results of the Tukey-HSD Test for Performance on the Post-test (Production Test)**

(I)Group	(J)Group	Mean Difference (I-J)
Control	Experimental 1	*-3.8500
	Experimental 2	*-5.2500
Experimental 1	Control	*3.8500
	Experimental 2	*-1.4000
Experimental 2	Control	*5.2500
	Experimental 1	*1.4000

*The mean difference was significant at the .05 level.

Table 16 showed that the experimental groups differed from each other. In other words, experimental 2 outperformed the control group and the experimental 1.

**Table 17. Multiple Comparisons
Results of the Tukey-HSD Test for Performance on the Post-test (Recognition Test)**

(I)Group	(J)Group	Mean Difference (I-J)
Control	Experimental 1	*-6.1500
	Experimental 2	*-8.3500
Experimental 1	Control	*6.1500
	Experimental 2	*-2.2000
Experimental 2	Control	*8.3500
	Experimental 1	*2.2000

*The mean difference was significant at the .05 level.

Table 17 showed that the experimental groups differed from each other. In other words, experimental 2 outperformed the control group and the other experimental group.

4.6. Discussion

The scores of immediate post-tests (Production & Recognition) which were submitted to one-way ANOVA showed that there was a significant difference between the three groups' performances on the immediate post-tests (Production & Recognition).

As the results of the one-way ANOVA for performance on the delayed post-tests (Production & Recognition) showed, the obtained F ratios exceeded the F critical value at the .05 level of significance, implying that there was a significant difference between the three groups' performances on the delayed post-tests.

Concerning the research questions in which the effect of textual and multi-media glosses was investigated in relation to vocabulary retention, results of the Tukey test showed that participants exposed to multi-media glosses reported retention of the target vocabulary words significantly more than participants exposed to textual glosses. Therefore, the null hypothesis which suggested that there was no significant difference between the mean scores of the students who learned vocabulary items using textual and multi-media glosses and those who learned unknown words using no gloss was rejected.

In relation to research question, which investigated the effect of type of gloss on production and recognition tasks, significant effect was found both in the recognition and production tasks.

With respect to the issue of time, a significant main effect was shown for both recognition and production tasks. Learners in the experimental conditions for both recognition and production tasks significantly increased their scores from the pre-test to the immediate and delayed post-tests but also showed a significant loss from the immediate to the delayed post-tests three weeks later. However, this negative effect is counterbalanced by the fact that participants still showed a significant gain in scores from the pre-test to the delayed post-tests.

5. Conclusions and Implications

The results showed that experimental groups who received different types of glosses outperformed the control group both on the production and recognition tests. That is the provision of glosses for the unknown words seemed to be a good technique in helping students learn unknown words incidentally. As the results of the one-way ANOVA showed there was a significant difference between the three groups' performances on the vocabulary immediate and delayed post-test. Furthermore, results yielded a significant main effect for time, with significant main effect for Group and a significant interaction between Time and Group.

The results of this study may be of great benefit to EFL learners since glosses allow them the easiest and fastest access to the meanings of unfamiliar words. Glosses also provide multiple exposures to target items and hence increase the retention of previously unknown words. That is, encountering an unknown word in the passage (the first exposure), looking at its gloss (textual or multi-media) to understand its meaning (the second exposure) and going back to the word in the passage to see whether the meaning fits in the context (the third exposure). Moreover, the provision of glosses facilitate the burden of dictionary use which kills all interest in reading and even interferes with the process of constructing a mental representation of text meaning. And since it is usually too large an order for students to memorize all of the unfamiliar word meanings from word-lists, the glossing technique can help them pick up vocabulary items through reading activities incidentally in an efficient way.

The findings of this research may also encourage teachers who still believe in teacher-centeredness in language teaching to change their viewpoints in favor of more learner-centered techniques. As indicated by Stewart and Cross (1991), with glossed text, three voices become involved in the reading: the inner voice of the reader, the voice of the author, and the voice of the teacher manifested in the gloss. So the purpose of glossing is to produce independent readers which is the ultimate goal of teaching.

Based on the findings of this study materials developers can also make use of this technique and provide glosses for the troubling vocabulary items of authentic texts either in the students' first or second language but their responsibility lies in providing unambiguous glosses (glosses which themselves do not present new puzzles).

6. Limitations of The Study

Like any kind of research, the present study suffered from a number of limitations. They are as follows:

1. The researcher had to narrow down the scope of the study to only one university (the Islamic Azad University, Firoozkooh Branch).
2. The provision of comprehensible textual and pictorial glosses had its own limitations such as lack of exact equivalents or appropriate pictures for the troubling vocabulary items.

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INVESTIGATING EFL LEARNERS' PERCEPTION OF NEEDS: NECESSITIES, WANTS, AND LACKS IN DIFFERENT LANGUAGE SKILLS TAUGHT IN GENERAL ENGLISH COURSES

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ABSTRACT

The present study was an attempt to reveal the EFL students' perceptions of three subcategories of needs (necessities, wants, and lacks) in English for general purposes (EGP) courses. It also investigated students' reasons for course enrolment. A questionnaire was administered to 82 Iranian EFL students with the age range of 19 to 26, in intermediate and advanced level in a language institute in the province of Qazvin. Results showed that students had different perceptions of necessities, wants, and lacks in the different language skills taught in EGP courses. The findings also revealed differences between the students' perceptions of needs and the actual courses they took, thereby indicating the importance of understanding needs as a variant, multiple, and conflicting concept. In addition, factors like necessities, short-term, and long-term goals were identified as students' reasons for enrollment in EGP courses.

Key words: English for general purposes (egp), lacks, needs analysis, necessities, wants.

1. Introduction

Needs analysis, also known as needs assessment plays a great role in the process of designing and carrying out any language course, whether English for Specific Purposes (ESP) or English for general purposes (EGP) courses, and its centrality has been admired by several scholars and authors (Nunan, 2001; Nation & Macalister, 2010). Furthermore, the importance of carrying out a needs analysis for developing English for academic purposes (EAP) courses is emphasized in different contexts (Berwick, 1989; Brindley, 1989; Munby, 1978; Hutchinson and Waters, 1987). According to Iwai (1999), the term needs analysis involves activities that pave the way for collecting information which is considered as foundation in developing a curriculum that will meet the needs of a particular group of students. Brindley (1989) and Berwick (1989) believe that there are various definitions and different types of needs and accounts of problems and limitations in making use of this concept, including ways in which we may discriminate between the needs identified by analysts and those expressed or experienced by learners. As Iwai et al. (1999) state, formal needs analysis is relatively new to the field of language teaching. However, informal needs analyses have been conducted by teachers in order to evaluate various points their students need to master. Courses for English language learning at the tertiary level are often divided into two categories: English for General Purposes (EGP) courses and English for Specific Purposes (ESP) courses, depending on how specific a course is. Discovering students' interest and habits are the main focus of learning English (Nunan, 2001). EGP courses provide students with situations to increase their general language competence for a more accurate and fluent production and reception of English in dealing with everyday situations (Munby, 1978). ESP, on the other hand, is "an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and method are based on the learner's reason for learning" (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p.19). Therefore, ESP courses are usually designed to serve English learners' specific learning goals. Although both

EGP and ESP courses seek different ways to fulfill students' different language learning needs at the tertiary level, they are criticized in not fully serving learners' purposes because course takers still underperform, feel dissatisfied with their abilities, or are frustrated with certain aspects of the course (Chia, Johnson, Chia, & Olive, 1999; Derwing, Schutiz, & Yang, 1978). In this regard, identifying learners' learning needs is considered of prime importance to adjust the content of the courses to the teaching/learning requirements and at the same time to the learners' short-term and long-term needs.

2. Review of the Literature

Needs analysis, according to Brown (1995), is "the systematic collection and analysis of all subjective and objective information necessary to define and validate defensible curriculum purposes that satisfy the language learning requirements of students within the context of particular institutions that influence the learning and teaching situation" (p. 36). Needs analysis tends to be associated with ESP, and is neglected in General English classroom. Hutchinson and Water (1987), state that "what distinguishes ESP from General English is not the existence of need as such but rather an awareness of the need ... for the time being, the tradition persist in General English that learners' needs cannot be specified and as a result no attempt is usually made to discover learners' true needs." (p. 53). Furthermore Richards (1990) say that "needs analysis is also fundamental to the planning of General English courses." (p. 2). In fact, needs analysis has often played a great role in ESP contexts to specify college students' required language skills and make the situation easy to solve their problems and improve their language competence (Chia, 1999; Kikuchi, 2005; Kroll, 1979). Particularly, determining the ongoing needs analysis leads to a successful ESP training/learning course which can be considered as a significant instrument to anticipate learners' future demands so that learners will be able to transfer "language knowledge to novel situations" and "acquired skills in real life communication" (Kavaliauskien & U_zpalien, 2003, p. 35). By encouraging learners to discover their own needs, many ESP professionals look forward to "promoting a greater sense of ownership of learners and making a more consistent identification between need and want than is often achieved in ESP programmes" (Holme & Chalausaeng, 2006, p. 404).

As Long (2005) suggests, "There is an urgent need for courses of all kinds to be relevant and to be seen to be relevant to the needs of specific groups of learners, thus, not only are accurate learner-needs assessment valued in ESP courses, they are especially important for EGP courses; for general courses without detailed and selective goals often either teach too much or too little than what learners need" (p. 19). Compared to ESP courses, general English courses seem to lack the same concerns of learner needs due to "an erroneous belief that it is not possible to specify the needs of general English learners, and partly because of a lack of literature on the practicalities of analyzing needs data in the context of General English" (Seedhouse, 1995, p. 59).

Seedhouse (1995) investigated Spanish teenagers' language learning needs in general English courses, he found that the students were motivated to learn English primarily for psychological and social purposes (e.g. to travel, to speak to foreign people, and to get a better job). His study not only indicated that learners in EGP courses have a clear understanding of their needs, but he also stated how findings from needs analysis could be useful for EGP course design, classroom implementation, and evaluation. Furthermore, Seedhouse's study strengthens Nunan's (1988) and Richards' (1990) beliefs that the application of needs analysis research in EGP courses may be able to illuminate the otherwise less discernable needs of students in EGP courses and serve as "fundamental to the planning of general language courses" (Richards, 1990, p. 13). In ESP context, Jasso-Aguilar's (1999) study of hotel maids' language needs in Hawaii demonstrated a conflict between the language the maids needed to perform their daily housekeeping routine and the welcoming "aloha" language desired by hotel management.

Garcia (2002) examined learners' multiple learning desires by broadly defining the target discourse community. She found that immigrant factory workers in Chicago not only needed the English communication skills to successfully perform their duties in the workplace, but also desired to learn skills beyond those, for example, using computers, which learners identified as an important motivator for their English learning. Eslami (2010) investigated students' and instructors' perceptions of students' problems in EAP programs, results indicated no consensus among the learners' and instructors' perception of language needs: while instructors believed problems such as low level of language proficiency, negative attitudes toward English, and lack of audio-visual material as more important than their students did, students ranked boring classes and excessive use of translation

activities as more problematic than their teachers did. Hence, the study illustrates that since students and teachers have different perceived problem areas in EAP classes, “instructors may not always be the best judges of students’ needs and challenges” (Eslami, 2010, p. 7).

To explain the learners’ desire and/or action in language learning, Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p.35) once proposed the use of three detailed subcategories of needs when conducting needs analysis in language classrooms:

- Necessities: The language skills and knowledge learners are required to have to function effectively in a target situation.

- Wants: Learners’ self-perception of what needs to be known. Although individual wants may differ and may depend on the perceived needs of course designers, learners’ wants influence learning efficacy, thus deserving our attention.

- Lacks: The gap between language learners’ target proficiency and their existing proficiency. The lacks are skills that learners perceive as insufficient.

Findings from the previous studies on learners’ needs in language classes, the present study was an effort to find the different needs EFL students have in EGP courses through a categorized and learner centered investigation. Furthermore it explored the reasons that influence students’ decisions to enroll in the course.

In this regard, the following research questions were posed:

1. Are there significant differences among Iranian EFL learners’ needs (i.e., necessities, wants, and lacks) with regard to four language skills?
2. What are the Iranian EFL learners’ reasons for enrollment in EGP courses?

3. Method

3-1 . Participants

The participants of this study were 82 Iranian EFL students with the age range of 19 to 26, in intermediate and advanced levels from a language institute in the province of Qazvin. They were randomly selected among the students of EGP courses in that institute. Before they participated in the present study, some of them had taken EGP courses whereas others had not.

3-2 Instruments

To understand EFL students’ needs in EGP courses, a questionnaire developed by Jin-Yu Liu, Yu-Jung Chang, Fang-Ying Yang, and Yu-Chih Sun (2011) was applied. The items in the questionnaire were categorized into two parts: (a) students’ needs in EGP courses (18 items, Cronbach α reliability: 0.94), (b) reasons for enrollment in EGP courses (32 items, Cronbach α reliability: 0.97). In the first and second parts of the questionnaire language tasks representing the four skills in EGP courses were introduced. For instance, listen to daily English conversations, introduce oneself in English, read English letters and E-mails, and write English letters and E-mails were the tasks that represented EGP listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills, respectively. The purpose of the questions was not only to find out what seems necessary and desirable from EFL students’ point of view, but also which insufficient language skills require to be strengthened in EGP courses. The third and fourth parts of the questionnaire involved items that might be accounted as factors or reasons which influence EFL students’ course enrollment. The possible factors include EFL students’ needs, as well as their short-term and long-term goals. The purpose of the questions was to examine how these factors contribute to EFL students’ perceptions of their needs. The participants were asked to rate their perceptions and attitudes based on a 5-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3= neutral, 4= agree, and 5= strongly agree).

3-3 Procedure

The questionnaires were distributed to and completed by the students. The researcher first verbally explained the terminologies (e.g., EGP, needs, wants, and lacks) used in the questionnaire. When students were filling out the questionnaire, the researcher provided further individual assistance to those who still had questions regarding the questionnaire items. At the end, the collected data were entered into the SPSS 19 for further analysis. Descriptive statistics and one way ANOVA were used to answer the research questions of the study.

4. Results and Discussion

4-1 . Learners' Needs (Necessities, Wants, and Lacks) in Four Skills

The first research question was an attempt to find out whether there are significant differences among the learners' needs in four language skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing).

Table 1 is a summary of descriptive statistics and ANOVA results for the students' necessities, wants, and lacks for four language skills in EGP courses.

As can be seen from Table1, the most necessary skills in EGP courses were related to speaking ($M = 5.10$) and writing ($M = 5.10$) skills. Speaking skill was also rated as the most desirable or needed and insufficient or lacked ($M = 5.20$, $M = 3.62$) by EFL students. The results of three one-way ANOVAs also indicated how EFL students perceive their needs (i.e., necessities, wants, and lacks) in four language skills in EGP courses. The results showed that the four types of language skills were not significantly perceived as equally necessary, desirable, and insufficient by EFL students: necessities, $F = 40.68$, $p < 0.01$; wants, $F = 13.20$, $p < 0.01$; and lacks, $F = 11.15$, $p < 0.01$. Follow-up multiple comparisons revealed significant differences among several pairs of language skills under each needs subcategory (i.e., necessities, wants, and lacks), as shown in Table 1. Among the significant paired differences ($p < 0.01$), it is important to note students' conflicting needs. For instance, the students indicated that their listening skills were less sufficient than reading skills; yet, at the same time, listening was considered a less necessary skill to master compared to reading skill in EGP courses. This result implies that while students may be fully aware that they lack listening ability, they would not consider it as a necessary skill to acquire in EGP courses. Instead, they perceived reading a more necessary skill to learn, although reading ability is not what they lack.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics and ANOVA results for EGP courses

Four skills	Needs					
	Necessities		Wants		Lacks	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Listening	3.81	0.58	4.10	0.56	3.59	0.72
Speaking	5.10	0.73	5.20	0.66	3.62	0.88
Reading	4.03	0.65	4.10	0.63	3.42	0.84
Writing	5.10	0.71	4.21	0.65	5.53	0.93
F	40.68*		13.20*		11.15*	
Post Hoc Tests	L<S*		S>R*		S>R*	
	L<R*		S>L*		L>R*	
	L<W*					

Note. Li= Listening, S= Speaking, R= Reading, W= Writing.

* $p < 0.01$

The results in this section indicate that what students need is not always what they lack. Students' internal mismatch of needs may be attributed to "their self-knowledge, awareness of target situations, life goals, and instructional expectations" (Belcher, 2006, p. 136). For example, in an EFL context like Iran, the efforts that students put into learning speaking and listening skills in EGP courses would not be paid off as immediately as those into reading and writing, which are usually the focus of the exam. In addition, the social context where learning is situated does not impose on students such an urgent demand of speaking in or listening to English. Therefore, regardless of their lacking speaking and listening abilities, it is possible that reading is considered a more necessary skill to learn.

4-2 . Learners' Reasons for Enrollment in GEP Courses

The second research question was an attempt to answer what reasons were given by the EFL learners for their enrollment in General English courses.

In Table 2, a student's course selection decision seems to be determined by the EGP course teaching skills that fulfill students' necessities. This is most evident in EGP courses that aim to strengthen students' receptive skills (listening and reading). In terms of productive skills (speaking and writing), however, the students' short-term and long-term goals also play a crucial role in students' EGP course selection. That is, the students would probably want to take EGP courses in speaking and writing not

just to fulfill their lacks, desires, or necessities, but also to pass academic requirements or to succeed in future career performances.

Table 2. Reasons for enrollment in EGP courses

Skills	Courses	Factors	Course-taking Willingness		
			M	SD	Rank
Listening	EGP	Contain the language skills of necessities	4.20	0.58	1
	EGP	Helpful for future careers	4.32	1.00	2
	EGP	Helpful for passing the English proficiency tests	4.47	0.93	3
Speaking	EGP	Helpful for future careers	4.81	0.89	1
	EGP	Contain the language skills of necessities	4.76	0.89	2
	EGP	Helpful for future academic studies	4.47	0.95	3
Reading	EGP	Contain the language skills of necessities	4.39	0.81	1
	EGP	Helpful for passing the English proficiency tests	4.93	0.83	2
	EGP	Helpful for future academic studies	4.89	0.68	3
Writing	EGP	Helpful for passing the English proficiency tests	4.81	0.93	1
	EGP	Helpful for future careers	4.97	0.94	2
	EGP	Helpful for future academic studies	4.87	0.90	3

The findings of this study showed that the participating students' self-perceptions of needs in EGP did not necessarily have a causal relationship to their actual choice to take EGP courses. In other words, even though an EGP course may teach language skills that the students desire to learn or they lack, when it comes to taking courses, the students' perceived language necessities or their long-term or short-term goals rather than their wants or lacks may have ended up influencing their course selection.

5. Conclusion

This study was an attempt to provide a more detailed examination of EFL students' needs in EGP courses. It also studied factors that might influence their willingness in their enrolment in EGP courses. Following Hutchinson and Waters' (1987) subdivision of needs into necessities, wants, and lacks, the needs analysis of 82 EFL students in Iran underlined the importance of understanding needs as a complex, multiple, and conflicting concept. The findings showed that the students have different perceptions of necessities, wants, and lacks not only in terms of the different language skills taught in EGP courses. First, they do not perceive all language skills as equally desirable, necessary or insufficient; and the reason behind dedicating efforts in developing a particular language skill is not always to make up for their lack in competence. Learning desire or their belief in the necessity of such language skill to their future career or academic goals might also play important roles in their perception of needs. More importantly, the students' responses to the questionnaire shed significant light on the inconsistency between their perceptions of needs and their actual course-taking action. Even though a student may desire to acquire language skills in a specific area, his/her wants could very well be undermined in the face of his/her perceived language needs for the purpose of fulfilling his/her long-term or short-term professional goals.

According to Kumaravivelu (1991), "The more we know about the learner's personal approaches and personal concepts, the better and more productive our intervention will be" (p. 107). In an effort to develop more effective classroom pedagogies that suit individual learners' learning goals, instructors and educators should first develop better understanding of students' different language needs (including but not limited to categories such as necessities, wants and lacks). Curriculum design should take learners' perception and goals into consideration so that the courses will not only be more efficient, but also more motivating and engaging. Moreover, perhaps more importantly, instructors and educators should help students become more aware of the complexity of their needs and the importance of taking suitable EGP courses to acquire the specific language skills that the students initially might not perceive as necessary, desirable, or insufficient. After all, having students become active and self-responsible learners can bring about long-term benefits for learners than passively feeding them fixed sets of information. This justifies the importance of conducting needs analysis to survive the language learners' immediate and long term requirements and modify

the EGP and ESP courses accordingly. The results of such an approach would also be helpful to syllabus and curriculum designers and materials writers.

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A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF METADISCOURSE MARKERS IN SOME SELECTED NEWS PROGRAMS ON VOA: THE CASE OF REGULAR ENGLISH PROGRAMS VS. SPECIAL ENGLISH PROGRAMS

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ABSTRACT

Metadiscourse is a way of persuading and involving listeners and readers. Since this involvement or interaction with the audience in news report usually takes place instantaneously, the probability of perceiving the message incorrectly accelerates and makes it difficult to get the material completely processed. Therefore, it is undeniable that reporters are expected to use such rhetorical devices in order to keep high profile of interaction and involvement with their audience. The aim of the present study was to investigate the use of textual and interpersonal metadiscourse markers in some selected programs of VOA news: the Special English programs report for nonnative audience and the Regular programs report for native ones. For this purpose, fifty news reports (25 from each program) were selected. The selected corpora in both programs were matched for topic to make sure that the topic varieties have not considerable influence on the aim of study. The frequency and type of metadiscourse markers in each program were investigated in accordance with Hyland (2005a) taxonomy and the frequency of the metadiscourse markers was calculated per 1000 words. Based on the results of total frequency of metadiscourse markers no significant differences were found between Special and Regular programs. Furthermore, this study revealed the most frequent use of transitions and engagement markers, following evidentials and hedges in news report programs. The findings of the present study might be useful for teachers and pedagogic designers to pay serious attention to metadiscourse markers in L2 listening courses.

Key Words: News report, Metadiscourse, VOA special news programs, VOA regular news programs

Introduction

Generally speaking, language is not used randomly and without definite rules or patterns by speakers and writers. This complex phenomenon, as a means of communication, can be used for transferring information from one living source to another (Lyons, 1981). To transfer information, speakers or writers should use a group of rhetorical devices to attract and involve their listeners or readers. Since this involvement or interaction with the audience in news report usually takes place instantaneously, the probability of perceiving the message incorrectly accelerates and makes it difficult to get the material completely processed. Therefore, we must have enough knowledge about how reporters are able to attract and involve a great number of people by using such rhetorical devices.

The term 'metadiscourse' refers to one of such devices. According to Vande Kopple (2012) it is commonly defined as "discourse about discourse" and refers to integrated expression of three kinds of meanings. Hyland and Tse (2004, p.156) define metadiscourse as, "an intuitively attractive concept as it seems to offer a motivated way of collecting under one heading the range of devices writers use to explicitly organize their texts, engage readers, signal their attitudes to both their materials and their

audience.” According to Hyland (2005a, p.3) “metadiscourse embodies the idea that communication is more than just the exchange of information, goods or services, but also involves the personalities, attitudes and assumptions of those who are communicating”.

Removing these metadiscourse features make the passage less personal, less interesting and less easy to follow. By offering a way of looking at these features systematically, metadiscourse provides us with access to the ways that writers and speakers take up positions and align themselves with their readers in a particular context. (ibid., p.4)

Crismore, Markkanen, and Steffensen (1993) point out that writers and speakers employ metadiscourse to make it easier for their readers and listeners to arrange, interpret, judge and react to texts as the writers and speakers expected. According to Crismore (1989), Hyland (1999) and Hyland (2000) other benefits of metadiscourse derive from its use of explanatory and persuasive elements (e.g., code glosses, attitude markers, evidential) which attest to its key rhetorical function (cited in Camiciottoli, 2003:29). Furthermore, Camiciottoli (2003) notes that writers use such rhetorical devices to represent an acceptable effect depend on their underlying purposes and perception of readers' expectations.

The term 'metadiscourse' has been derived from Halliday's classification of language macro-functions. Halliday (1985) considered three main functions of language. 1. Ideational function denotes language functioning as a means of conveying and interpreting experience of the world, comprising of physical experiences and mental processes. 2. Interpersonal function implies language functioning as an expression of one's attitude and influence upon the attitude and behavior of the hearer. 3. Textual function means language functioning as a means of text construction. Many metadiscourse studies (Vande Kopple, 1985; Crismore et al., 1993; Hyland, 1998; Dafouz-Milne, 2003) utilized the Halliday's macro-functional theory to discriminate textual and interpersonal functions of language in order to categorize the linguistic elements and discuss their effects in various texts. Vande Kopple (1985) states that textual and interpersonal are imperative to metadiscourse. He also notes that they are communication about communication. According to his thought, interpersonal metadiscourse signals speakers and listeners to state their personalities and their reactions to the propositional content of their texts and adjust the interaction they desire to have with their audience about that content, while textual metadiscourse displays the way speakers and listeners incorporate individual propositions to construct a cohesive and coherent text. According to Crismore (1984; as cited in Noorian and Biria, 2010:66) when interpersonal metadiscourse markers are added to texts, interpersonal function of language will be attained. To reply these and other definitions of metadiscourse, Hyland and Tse (2004) refused the duality of textual and interpersonal metadiscourse functions performed by most of the researchers and assert that all metadiscourse is interpersonal. Since all metadiscourse comes across with readers' needs, textual experiences, processing needs supply the writers' rhetorical demands to be achieved this. Hyland (2005a) argues that textual, interpersonal and propositional elements of the texts are not separable. According to Hyland (2005a), discourse is a process in which writers are simultaneously creating propositional content, interpersonal engagement and the flow of text as they write. In this process the creation of text is a means of creating both interpersonal and ideational meanings, and textual features cannot be seen as ends in themselves. If metadiscourse is the way writers engage their readers and create convincing and coherent text, then we have to acknowledge that it is about interaction in text. It expresses the interpersonal dimension and how both interactive and textual resources are used to create and maintain relations with readers. (P.27)

Several studies have been conducted to investigate the term 'metadiscourse' in different contexts. For example, it has been investigated from a comparative viewpoint to understand cultural and individual differences. Based on Crismore et al. (1993) investigation writers from various language backgrounds apply different kinds of metadiscourse elements. On the other study, Abdi (2002) investigated the way writers utilize the interpersonal metadiscourse may have correspondence with their identity; he examined their ways of interaction in social sciences and natural sciences. The analysis revealed that writers of social sciences employed larger number of interpersonal metadiscourse than writers of natural sciences.

Many other studies were carried out to examine the use or effect of metadiscourse markers in various genres and disciplines, including textbooks, advertisements and science popularization. Hyland (1999) explored the possible function of university textbooks in students' acquisition of a particular disciplinary literacy; he concentrate on the use of metadiscourse as a clarification of the

writer's linguistic and rhetorical presence in a text. Fuertes-Olivera, Velasco-Sacristán, Arribas-Baño, and Samiengo-Fernández (2001) studied the metadiscourse resources commonly used by copywriters to organize their slogans and headlines. Examples selected from a typical women's magazine manifest that both textual and interpersonal metadiscourse help copywriters to deploy their persuasive message. Liddicoat (2005) analyzed the aspects of hedging in French scientific writing; the investigating of modal and lexical verbs used for hedging in French uncovered not only the resources which academic writers may convey in constructing their texts, but how they approach the issue of knowing and representing knowing in the articulation of science. The application of hedges and their distribution in the texts exposed scientists are developing statements about knowledge which are conjectural rather than ultimate statements of knowledge. Mostafavi and Tajalli (2012) compared and contrasted English medical and literary text to find out whether there were any considerable differences between the two kinds of texts in terms of the types and frequency of metadiscoursal markers. The frequency and types of metadiscoursal markers in each text were investigated according to Vande Kopple's (1985) taxonomy and the total frequency of metadiscoursal items in each type of the texts was determined in this study. Metadiscourse has also been analyzed in different comprehension skills like reading comprehension. Hyland (2005b) investigated the interactional model of stance and engagement used as an analytical structure to find out the number and types of reader engagement markers in different articles. Ansarin and Tarlani (2011) studied how native Persian and English writers involve their readers in their articles, the result of the analysis demonstrate significant differences in the way native Persian and English engage their readers. Besides, remarkable differences were observed in categorical distribution of reader engagement markers.

Most of the studies have been conducted on writing; in this regard academic writing has more adherent among researchers in recent decades especially in Iran. Hyland and Tse (2004) analyzed metadiscourse in academic writing, based on the analyses of 240 L2 postgraduate dissertations, they suggest the way of understanding interpersonal devices to which writers deploy to represent propositional materials. Hyland (2004) examined metadiscourse in L2 postgraduate writing to illustrate how advanced second language writers employ these resources in a high stakes research genre. The analysis suggests the way academic writers use language to propose a credible representation of themselves and their works in different disciplines; therefore, the way metadiscourse can be seen as a means for manifesting the rhetorical and social varieties of disciplinary communities. Hyland (2008) investigated persuasion, interaction and formation of knowledge by expressing self and others in research articles and proved the importance of interaction in academic argument and pointed out how these choices reflect and constitute disciplinary communities. Bahrami (2012) analyzed frequency and distribution of transition markers in English and Persian research articles in applied linguistics. The results acknowledged that Persian researchers, unlike English writers, make more use of transition markers. Moreover, it was emphasized nonnative English writers represent a pattern of overuse of transition markers when they write in English due to the cultural effects of their native language. Shokouhi and Talati (2009) analyzed metadiscourse functions in English and Persian sociology articles. The outcomes revealed a greater range of metadiscourse markers in the English texts. It is found that total numbers of textual metadiscourse markers are more than the interpersonal markers in both language samples. Jalilifar (2011) studied metadiscourse diversities in the discussion sections of articles written in Persian and English and published in Iranian as well as international scholarly journals in English language, then hedges and boosters were identified. The results of the quantitative and qualitative analyses revealed considerable variations in frequency, types, and functions of these devices in the texts. Jones (2011) investigated the effects of metadiscourse application for enhancing coherence in academic writing; he also intended to observe the impacts of the globalisation of English in non-native English speakers' university courses in English-speaking countries. He analyzed this difficulty with significant attention to the techniques of reader-based writing represented in the concept of metadiscourse and offered reasonable remedies to help the student, both for the short and long term. Dastjerdi and Shirzad (2010) explored the consequence of explicit instruction of metadiscourse markers on EFL Learners' writing skill; the findings denoted that explicit teaching of metadiscourse markers noticeably developed EFL learners' writing performance.

While research on metadiscourse has traditionally focused on written texts, little attention has been paid to the presence of metadiscourse in spoken one; Pérez and Macià (1999) analyzed

metadiscourse in lecture comprehension to find out how the presence or absence of metadiscourse works on lecture comprehension; two groups of students listened to two different version of same lecture on embedded metadiscourse whereas other did not. The results recommend that there are two key factors to be taken into account: students' abilities in English and different types of metadiscourse items exist in lectures. Ädel (2010) provided a Taxonomy of Metadiscourse in Spoken and Written Academic English; she explained that diversities of spoken and written metadiscourse markers are rare, so the similarities and differences between spoken and written types of metadiscourse are unknown. The outcomes pointed out that most of the discourse functions in the taxonomy found in both speech and writing, even spoken metadiscourse conveyed a higher frequency of discourse actions than written metadiscourse.

On the other hand, few studies have been done in the case of metadiscourse markers on Media, and mostly focused on the genre of newspaper; Dafouz-Milne (2008) investigated the role of metadiscourse in the opinion columns of two elite newspapers: the Spanish *El País* and the British *The Times*. Findings suggest that both textual and interpersonal metadiscourse markers are embodied in English and Spanish newspaper columns. But there are dissimilarities in distribution and constitution of such markers. The results revealed that the Spanish writers applied considerably more textual metadiscourse than the English writers; on the contrary, the British writers deployed more interpersonal markers. In other study, Abdollahzadeh (2007; as cited in Noorian and Biria, 2010:67) scrutinized the presence of metadiscourse in the editorial sections of Persian and English newspapers. The results revealed that English editorial writers deployed more hedges while Persian editorials utilized more certainty markers. Furthermore, he said high frequency of the certainty markers in the Persian editorials may refers to an Iranian tradition of valuing and abiding by the rules of those in power without expressing uncertainty about social and religious issues, moreover the high distribution of hedges by the English group was attributed to their being more polite to their readers. Following the studies of these researchers, Noorian and Biria (2010) examined the role of interpersonal metadiscourse in opinion articles written by American and Iranian EFL journalists. For this reason, two elite newspapers in the United States and Iran, *The New York Times* and *Tehran Times* were selected to realize whether American and Iranian EFL writers applied the same amounts of interpersonal markers in their texts. The findings indicated on the presence of interpersonal metadiscourse in both data sets, but there were significant differences between the two groups concerning the occurrences of interpersonal markers, particularly in the case of commentaries. The results proposed that different factors interacted in the selection of metadiscourse elements in newspaper opinion articles written by American and Iranian EFL columnists: culture-driven preferences, genre-driven conventions, and Iranian EFL writers' extent of foreign language experience.

Ultimately, the investigation of metadiscourse in news report programs, to the best of our knowledge, has not received considerable attention, just some studies focused on political programs in the news. It is undeniable that, this different channel of media discourse is one of the most popular and public media with particular social importance having wide range of audience daily. This article, therefore, aims to compare VOA Special English programs in the news present for nonnative audience with VOA Regular programs report for native audience. VOA Special English is a controlled version of English, reports daily by United States broadcasting service are delivered one third slower than VOA Regular English, the addressees are supposed to be at the intermediate to advanced levels of English language proficiencies. Besides, VOA Regular programs are usually addressing their audience who are the aborigines of English language and are indigenous in that country.

Thus, the present study aims to investigate the frequency and types of textual and interpersonal metadiscourse markers used by reporters in these two programs of the news report. In order to achieve the purpose of the study, the following research questions were proposed:

1. Are there any differences in total frequency of metadiscourse markers in the two news programs report for native and nonnative audience of English?
2. What differences can be seen in the frequency of textual and interpersonal metadiscourse markers in these selected programs report for native and nonnative audience of English?
3. What differences can be seen in the types of textual and interpersonal subcategories in these selected news programs?

Methodology

Corpus

The data of this research came from the two VOA English news programs: The Special English programs in the news presented for nonnative audience and the Regular programs announced for native ones. Fifty news programs' voices and their transcriptions (25 from each programs) comprising 30195 words were selected. The voices and transcriptions extracted from Special English program contained a total of 15488 words ranging from 390 to 1287 words whose average length amounted to 530. The transcription derived from Regular programs comprised 14707 words. The lexical range of transcriptions was 373 to 892 with an average length of 620 words. The selected corpuses in both programs were matched for topic to ensure that the topic varieties have not considerable influence on the aim of study. The voices and transcriptions of Special English programs and Regular programs covered various topics including: Technology, Economic, Agriculture, Science and Health; five from each topic were selected.

Data collection and Procedures

The first step involved the collection of 100 news report from the online archives of the Special and the Regular programs of VOA. Then, 25 news reports from each program were chosen for the analysis. The data were collected in November 2012 and the transcriptions were reported in the period between 2009 and 2012. A variety of metadiscourse taxonomies have been proposed (Crismore, 1989, 1993; Vande Kopple, 1985, 2002; Ädel, 2006; Hyland, 2004), but the analysis of the selected voices and their transcriptions were closely based on Hyland's (2005a) taxonomy which not only has theoretical and practical advantages to other models, but has also been utilized by most of the researchers in the field. The taxonomy presented by Hyland (2005a), comprises of two main categories of "interactive" and "interactional". According to Hyland (2005a), these two dimensions are defining characteristics of any communication, whether spoken or written. The interactive aspect of metadiscourse refers to the writers' awareness of their readers and their intension to accommodate their interests and needs to make the argument acceptable for their audience. The interactional aspect, on the other hand, deals with the writers' efforts to make their views clear to involve the readers by anticipating their responses to the text. "Interactive" category comprises of five subcategories: transition markers, frame markers, endophoric markers, evidentials and code glasses. "Interactional" category as well contains five subcategories including: hedges, boosters, attitude markers, self mentions and engagement markers.

A brief summary of these subcategories based on Hyland (2005a) is as follow: 1. Transition markers are primarily conjunctions and adverbial phrases which make it easier for readers to interpret pragmatic connections between steps in an argument. 2. Frame markers concern text boundaries or schematic components of text structure. 3. Endophoric markers are utterances which attributed to other parts of the text. 4. Evidentials are metalinguistic expressions of an idea from another source which help the readers to interpret and organize an authorial command of the subject. 5. Code glasses provide further information by explaining or elaborating what has been said to make sure that readers will understand the intended message of the writer. 6. Hedges are devices which remark the writer's decision to identify alternative points of view. 7. Boosters enable writers to close down alternatives and conflictive views and convey their certainty in their statements. 8. Attitude markers represent the writer's affective, rather than epistemic attitude to propositions. 9. Self mentions concern the degree of explicit author existence in the text by measuring the distribution of first person pronouns and possessive adjectives. 10. Engagement markers explicitly relate to readers, either to capture their attention or incorporate them as discourse participants.

Accordingly, in this research attempts are made to analyze the metadiscourse elements existing in the selected news reports' transcriptions manually. After identifying and categorizing the metadiscourse markers, a quantitative analysis was conducted to determine the frequency of different types of metadiscourse and to find the differences between the two groups in this regard. The frequency of the metadiscourse markers was calculated per 1000 words.

Results and Discussion

Table 1 illustrates the total number of metadiscourse elements in the two programs of news report; these findings show that there are not significant differences in frequency of metadiscourse in news programs. In other words, metadiscourse markers consist of 16.10 percent of the words in

Special programs and 15.87 percent in Regular programs. These percentages point to the importance of metadiscourse elements in two different programs of News report; indicating in spite of the fact that Special English programs provided nonnative English learners with the clear and simple news and information to improve their use of American English, this simplification may have not so much influence on total frequency of metadiscourse elements. This 0.23 percent insignificant difference in frequency of metadiscourse may be due to the influence of differences in the length of texts in these programs.

Table1: Total number of Metadiscourse per1000 words in two different programs of News broadcast

No. of Metadiscourse Elements in Different programs	Frequency per1000 words	Percentage
Special programs	161.02	16.10%
Regular programs	158.76	15.87%

In order to answer the second question of the study which addresses the frequency of textual and interpersonal metadiscourse in the selected programs of news report (Special and Regular programs), the frequency of occurrence of textual and interpersonal metadiscourse markers per 1000 words were calculated and their percentages were computed. Tables 2 and 3 illustrate that there are slightly more frequent textual (interactive) metadiscourse markers in these two programs. The Special programs contain 18.12 percent more textual (interactive) elements than interpersonal (interactional) elements and the Regular programs contain 17.09 percent more textual elements. These findings are in line with most of the researches carried out in different genres and disciplines, as mentioned in Hyland (2005a), like Doctorial dissertations, Public Administrations, Business studies, Computer science, Electronic engineering, Biology, some of research articles, Science popularization writings, Different academic textbooks, CEOs' Letters and Directors' Reports; shows that writers and speakers use slightly more interactive markers than interactional ones. These findings lead us to believe on priority of managing and organizing the text interactively in order to negotiate with readers and listeners and guiding them through utterances whether spoken or written; although it is undeniable that both interactive and interactional resources are two sides of the same coin used to create relations with readers and listeners simultaneously.

Table2: Textual and Interpersonal MD Elements in Special English programs in the News

Textual and interpersonal elements	Frequency per 1000 words	Percentage
Textual(Interactive)	95.10	59.06
Interpersonal(Interactional)	65.93	40.94
Total	161.02	100

Table 3: Textual and Interpersonal MD Elements in Regular English programs in the News

Textual and interpersonal elements	Frequency per 1000 words	Percentage
Textual(Interactive)	93.62	58.92
Interpersonal(Interactional)	65.13	41.02
Total	158.76	100

Table 4 and 5 illustrate the use of textual (interactive) metadiscourse markers in different programs of news report. These findings show that the most frequently used textual metadiscourse markers in both Special and Regular programs were transitions and evidentials indicating the significance of transitions and evidentials in elaboration of ideas and assumptions for sharing topical knowledge. Here some instances of more frequently used interactive metadiscourse markers including transitions and evidentials have been presented. Transitions appear in bold and evidentials are marked underlined:

Extract 1

Robb Wolf says the Paleo diet helps to treat a number of medical conditions, including Type 2 diabetes **and** heart problems. There is, **however**, no scientific evidence for these claims.

The U.S. Preventive Services Task Force says wider public acceptance of HIV testing could lead to earlier treatment of cases, **and further** slows the spread of AIDS.

The experts said some plant chemicals are high in antioxidants. **In addition** to turmeric, these include cloves, cinnamon, ginger, oregano, sage and thyme.

Other nutritionists say many people fail to follow the diet for long periods **because** it is too restrictive.

Still, the Mayo Clinic warns that cinnamon CANNOT replace proven medicines for diabetes.

But the co-op president says the DRC's 12% export taxes on coffee **still** invite smuggling.

People are less likely to progress to disease **and also**, as importantly, is people are less likely to transmit to others. **So** starting therapy early **leads to** better disease outcomes

Four months ago, the South Korean government reported to the country's lawmakers about the plan to re-start whaling. A Foreign Ministry official says the plan is **still** under consideration.

(VOA Special English Programs)

Extract 2

Nevertheless, Lele says new thinking **and** "radical changes" are needed in 2010.

But experts say donors can help the needy **and** a nation's farmers **at the same time** if they buy food for humanitarian aid locally rather than importing it.

Although this work is **still** very much in the early research stage, Hill says it's possible that if drugs can be developed to target the sleeping sickness parasite, the same general principle might **also** be used against the parasites that carry some other tropical diseases including malaria and leishmaniasis.

However, Walensky notes that first-line anti-retrovirals - those medicine given to newly diagnosed patients that can stave off symptoms for years - are much cheaper than they were a decade ago.

In addition to this major benefit, Sun points out that less refined grains tend to have more nutritional benefits than their refined counterparts.

And the minimum cost of dialysis - \$117 a week - is virtually unaffordable for low-income patients **even though** it is a subsidized rate.

The International Monetary Fund said last week that **while** it continued technical assistance to Zimbabwe, the political situation remains too unstable for the international body to grant the country financial assistance.

Davies said, as an example, that **although** the MDC is in charge of the public service within the unity government, the party would not be able reduce the number of public servants if that was necessary to revive the economy.

U.S. President Barack Obama has proposed a freeze on non-entitlement domestic spending, **while** awaiting recommendations from a bipartisan commission tasked with charting a course to a balanced federal budget.

However, the FAO says, "Available financing mechanisms are substantially insufficient to meet the climate change **and** food security challenges faced by the agricultural sector

The United Nations says Zimbabwe **still** needs emergency feeding, **though**, for about 1.7 million people before the next harvest, which beings in April.

Masaka says research is needed into ways to balance people's needs with the preservation of natural resources. **However**, in the face of economic crises **and** widespread hunger, local authorities who used to strictly enforce such bylaws are now tolerating urban crops.

(VOA Regular Programs)

According to Hyland (2005a) most of textual knowledge is realized by transition markers like conjunction and adverbials help the readers interpret links between ideas. In addition, High frequency of transition markers and evidentionals in Applied Linguistics, Public administration, Business studies, Computer science, Biology, Master and Doctorial dissertations acknowledge the importance of internal connection in the discourse and intertextuality. Furthermore, the least frequent used metadiscourse markers in News programs were endophorics. Since News programs are ongoing process, with small length (an average length of 530 words) with no chart and graph, they may

provide little opportunity for listeners referring back to information in part of the statement said before.

Table4: Textual MD Elements in Regular English programs in the News

Metadiscourse category Regular programs	Frequency per 1000 words	Percentage
Evidentials	26.72	28.54
Endophorics	0.47	0.50
Code glasses	16.38	17.49
Transitions	43.92	46.91
Frame markers	6.11	6.52
Interactive	93.62	100

Table5: Textual MD Elements in Special English programs in the News

Metadiscourse category Special programs	Frequency per 1000 words	Percentage
Evidentials	29.18	30.68
Endophorics	0.64	0.67
Code glasses	17.56	18.46
Transitions	38.09	40.05
Frame markers	9.62	10.11
Interactive	95.10	100

Other significant differences revealed in this research are that: Regular programs have 6.86 percent high frequency of transition markers, while Special programs have 2.14 percent high frequency of evidentials. These results indicate that in the process of simplification, the Special programs presented nonnative English learners, clear and simple news and information. So they may avoid using complex sentences with subordinates and other complex conjunctions like (conversely, even though, nonetheless and nevertheless). Meanwhile, overuse of evidential markers in Special programs may be because of removing ambiguous language. They repeat nonnative audience evidential markers to provide clear expressions about sentences refer to someone or something, because it is rather difficult for them to realize the reference of indirect pronouns outside of clause or sentence.

Table 6 and 7 illustrate the use of interpersonal (interaction) metadiscourse markers in different programs of news report. These findings show that the most frequently used interpersonal metadiscourse markers in both Special and Regular programs were engagements and hedges. The more frequently used interactional metadiscourse markers including engagement markers (bold) and hedges (underlined) are illustrated in a number of examples from the data. These examples are as follow:

Extract 3

It **notes** that limited whaling for scientific research is permitted under the commercial whaling ban. Japan has continued hunting whales under this exception.

Earlier in this report, **we** heard from Han Jeong-hee of Greenpeace. She says pro-whaling forces appear to be in control of the South Korean government.

NOAA **must consider** when deciding whether these animals may be imported.

The researchers believe this is evidence of what they call "spontaneous mimicry of the human voice, presumably a result of vocal learning." In other words, they suspect the beluga whale was copying the sounds made by humans.

Now **we have to** fast-forward to a day -- hopefully in the next year or two -- where at least in clinical studies the information is flowing forward to the patients and the doctors.

Generally, herbs come from the green leaves of plants or vegetables. Spices come from other parts of plants and trees.

You know, **you** connect with the earth, where **your** food comes from. **You** appreciate the food a little bit more."

If approved, aquarium officials would send some of the animals to the other facilities.
(VOA Special English Programs)

Extract 4

In **our** final recommendation **we will have to** say that one shoe is not for everybody; **we** still **have to** skillfully identify the low-risk and high-risk."

Ambrose says any Reforms would likely favor middle-income countries like Turkey and the Philippines and not the poorest of the poor.

"**You have to see** how **you** can demystify the technology and bring it down to the community level so that they can manage, control and own the technology,"

The end product is then often enriched, to replace a portion of the nutrients lost during the refining process. However, white rice is essentially a starch.

"**We** also **look at** the potential to link with existing financing mechanisms for agricultural development and overseas development assistance.

Nearly a billion people are food insecure today. The Millennium Development Goals are not likely to be reached by 2015.

So I think one of the first things that **should** happen is the pledges **should** materialize. That's the least that can happen,"

When a breast cancer is palpable, it's usually larger and has spread beyond the breast. **Our** goal with screening mammograms is to detect a cancer that is small and contained within the breast.

Until 2007, there were declining real commodity prices, production was increasing and there was generally a sense that **we** were accomplishing something.

U.S. food aid consists almost entirely of American grain. Cohen says that started in the 1950s, when the United States had "what were called, 'burdensome surpluses' of food.

(VOA Regular Programs)

Furthermore, the least frequently used interpersonal markers were attitudes. The results provide evidence for the importance of engagement markers in the process of announcement by creating convincing and persuasive social context to establish relationship with audience.

Table6: Interpersonal MD Element in Regular English programs in the News

Metadiscourse category Regular programs	Frequency per 1000 words	Percentage
Hedges	14.61	22.43
Engagement markers	25.22	38.72
Boosters	9.45	14.50
Attitude markers	3.53	5.41
Self mentions	12.30	18.88
Interactional	65.13	100

Table7: Interpersonal MD Elements in Special English programs in the News

Metadiscourse category Special programs	Frequency per 1000 words	Percentage
Hedges	16.78	25.44
Engagement markers	24.53	37.21
Boosters	11.16	16.92
Attitude markers	3.03	4.59
Self mentions	10.39	15.76
Interactional	65.92	100

Hyland and Tse (2004) point out engagement markers obviously deal with making relationship with readers, by considering their attention and engaging them as participants in the text. Hyland (2005a) acknowledges that it is often not easy to discriminate attitudes and engagement markers in practice. He also described engagement markers' characters based on reader's participation in two modes. First case associates with the need to reasonably meet readers' expectations of inclusion and disciplinary solidarity, addressing readers to involve in an argument. Second one deals with placing the audience especially at critical arguments for predicting objections and directing them to particular interpretation. Additionally, as mentioned in Hyland (2005a) engagements and hedges are most frequent components in majority of researches like Masters and Doctorial dissertations, Applied Linguistics, Public Administrations, Business studies and Electronic engineering. However, in these studies the frequency of hedges are more prominent and in the news programs engagement markers are more frequently used. These findings could be indicate that first of all, announcers need to provide context to attract their audience by making explicit relationship to show that they are in the same road with their audience in an ongoing and momentary process of announcing; while as mentioned in most of the studies, academic writers need to be more conservative to their readers and weaken their position by using weak verbs like modals and hedges. On a general level, the percentage of interactive metadiscourse markers in regular programs is slightly more than special programs, while the percentage of interactional metadiscourse markers is slightly more in special programs. This could reveal the significance of providing satisfactory argument by organizing suitable text for nonnative learners in special programs and the significance of engaging native audiences in the process of announcement in Regular programs. As Hyland (2005a) assert that interactive metadiscourse functions rhetorically to point readers and listeners in the direction the writer and speaker intends by his or her argument. On the other side of the coin, the ways writers and speakers control the expression of interactional relationships within a text are as crucial to the rhetorical success of a text as its propositional content. Furthermore, metadiscourse which considered as a rhetorical means in construction of a text is culture-bound; thus writers and speakers deploy different strategies in using some types of metadiscourse due to their cultural differences (Shokouhi and Talati, 2009; Bahrami, 2012). Therefore, ongoing exposing of EFL learners in the context of English native speech can provide learners rhetorical knowledge and understanding of the ways meanings are conveyed in this language.

Conclusion and Implications

The present study offers clear evidence that metadiscourse markers play a significant role in the construction of different programs of news report. Based on the results of total frequency of metadiscourse markers hardly any significant differences were found between Special and Regular programs, indicating that simplification in Special programs of news reports may have not much influence on total frequency of metadiscourse elements. As in line with the results of most of the studies that have been conducted to compare textual (interactive) and interpersonal (interaction) metadiscourse elements, the findings suggest priority of interactive elements in order to negotiate with listeners and engage them in news programs, although this interpretation must be said with caution. Because the role of interpersonal sources which are continually interact with textual knowledge in order to negotiate meaning are undeniable in these processes of meaning making programs. Additionally, this study revealed the most frequent use of transitions and engagement markers, following evidentials and hedges in news programs. Findings of this study are approximately in line with most of studies that have been conducted in the field of writing. As pointed out in the discussion section, it seems that few differences in this regard have been observed. Even though this research provided useful information about presence of metadiscourse elements in construction of the two selected programs of news, it would be worthwhile if larger corpus size were provided for this study to see more reliable picture of results. The findings of such studies may promise some improvements in construction of listening materials designed for pedagogical purposes, and might be effective for teachers and syllabus designers to pay considerable attention to metadiscourse markers in L2 listening courses. It is undeniable that understanding spoken language is problematic issue for language learners; this might be useful for L2 learners to improve their listening skill by helping them to be aware of these jack of all trades strategies that have significant application in construction of every spoken and written language. This analysis suggests the necessities of providing suitable listening materials for language learners. Since all languages use for

social and communicative purposes, lack or ineffective application of metadiscourse devices in pedagogical materials may cause difficulty in speech comprehension and production for language learners. Teachers also need to provide feedback for students and deploy metadiscourse markers in an overtly manner with intonation for delivering efficiently their speech in academic spoken discourse. Still another pedagogical implication is providing pre-task listening activities and encourages students to determine and correct misused forms to provide insight about these devices and prepare them for the listening task. Making awareness in application of metadiscourse markers should also be an effective way to facilitate their communication. It is also essential for teachers and language instructors to be aware of currently developed research articles to keep them up to date and provide effective criteria to meet their students' needs. Moreover, the results provided useful information for comparing metadiscourse markers in news programs considered as an authentic language with those listening materials designed for pedagogical purposes of EFL learners. This aspect certainly deserves further studies.

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Appendix

The data of this research came from VOA English programs online archives www.VOAnews.com. First step involved the collection of 100 news broadcast from the online archives of the Special and the Regular programs of VOA. Then, 25 broadcasts from each program were chosen for the analysis.

VOA Special English Programs in the News

Science

Should Whales be Hunted or Watched? By VOA, 03 December, 2012

Is Eating Like our Ancestors Good for us? By VOA, 12 November, 2012

Condition of Oceans Affects Human Health. By VOA, 05 November, 2012

Scientists Search for New Ways to Treat Infection. By VOA, 22 October, 2012

Scientists Look at Plant Products With an Eye to New Possibilities for Health. By Jerilyn Watson, 2010-5-31

Health

For Smokers, Never Too Late to Quit; Diesel and Cancer. By VOA, 19 June, 2012

Seeking HIV Tests for All in US Age 15-65. By VOA, 27 November, 2012

Gene Mapping Identifies Four Different Types of Breast Cance. By VOA, 02 October, 2012

New Medical Tape Reduces Pain for Newborns, Older Adults. By VOA, 13 November, 2012

UN Says Family Planning Pays Big for Developing Countries. By VOA, 20 November, 2012

Economic

Patriotic Millionaires' Say Their Taxes Are Too Low. By VOA, 29 November, 2012

Nobel Prize in Economics Recognizes 'Market Designers. By VOA, 18 October, 2012

Connecting Employers with Jobs Seekers in Today's Economy. By VOA, 02 August, 2012

Vietnam Opens its Securities Companies to Foreign Investors. By VOA, 20 September, 2012

A Former American Treasury Secretary Talks about US-China Economic Ties. By VOA, 19 July, 2012

Technology

Are Smartphone Apps Encouraging Young Smokers? By VOA, 04 November, 2012

South Pacific Islands Now Totally Powered by the Sun. By June Simms, 26 November, 2012

Mobile Phones Could Help Efforts to End Malaria. By VOA, 21 October, 2012
Technology Designed to Take Paralympians to New Levels .By June Simms.16 September, 2012
Electronics among Most Popular Gifts This Year. By VOA, 2011-12-25

Agriculture

To Protect Rhinos, Anti-Poaching Business Grows in South Africa.By VOA, 03 December, 2012
Seeking a Better Way for African Farmers to Fight a Fever. By Jerilyn Watson, 2011-11-7
In Eastern DRC, Ex-Fighters Make a New Life with Coffee. By VOA, 05 November, 2012
The Appeal of Urban Farming. By VOA, 2012-3-5
Teaching Coffee Farmers About the Birds and the Bees. By VOA, 2012-4-23

VOA Regular or Standardized Programs in the News

Science

Eating More 'Good' Fats Lowers Risk of Heart Disease. Art Chimes | Washington, DC
25 March 2010
Research Finds Possible New Way to Attack Sleeping Sickness. Art Chimes | St. Louis, Missouri, 17
December 2010
Early HIV Treatment Saves Lives. Rose Hoban | Durham, North Carolina ,29 December 2010
Pregnant Women Who Take Iron, Folic Acid Have Smarter Babies. Rose Hoban | Durham, North
Carolina. 29 December 2010
Double Transplant Can Improve Quality of Life for Diabetics. Véronique LaCapra | St. Louis,
Missouri. 28 December 2010

Health

Rice Could Help Prevent Heart Attacks. Naomi Seck | Washington, DC. 04 May 2010
Estrogen Therapy Reduces Breast Cancer Risk.Art Chimes | St. Louis, Missouri. 09 December 2010
Early Detection Still the Best Defense Against Breast Cancer. Vidushi Sinha | Washington
31 October 2010
Eating White Rice Increases Diabetes Risk . Smitha Raghunathan | Washington, DC . 25 June 2010
Spanish Doctors Train Kenyan Counterparts in Kidney Transplant Surgery. Cathy Majtenyi |
Nairobi. 30 May 2010

Economic

Zimbabwe's Economic Woes Continue. Peta Thornycroft | Johannesburg . 06 December 2010
International Monetary Fund Debates Internal Reforms, Global Economic Growth
William Eagle | Washington, DC. 07 October 2010
Obama Urges US Senate to Pass Financial Reform. Kent Klein | White House . 15 May 2010
Central Bankers: Economic Depression Averted, But Debt Crisis Remains
Michael Bowman | Washington. 21 April 2010
EU Wants Stronger Measures to Fix Greek Economy. Nathan Morley | Nicosia, Cyprus
01 March 2010

Technology

Technology Enables Small Artists to Compete for Big Bucks. St. Louis, Missouri | David Weinberg. 26
November 2010
Technology Changes Peace Corps Experience . Zack Baddorf | Kigali, Rwanda. 31 August 2010
Futuristic Robot Comes to Life in Virginia Lab. Beverly Amsler | Blackburg, Virginia
06 December 2010
UN Official Calls for Investment in Climate Technology. By Ron Corben Bangkok. 24 February 2009
India Plugs into Low-Cost Solar Technology. Raymond Thibodeaux | Tiloniya, Rajasthan
25 October 2010

Agriculture

Climate Change: More Funding Needed for Agriculture Adaptation. Joe DeCapua
06 December 2010
Mobile Phones Help Farmers Feed Their Fields. Steve Baragona | Washington, DC
28 July 2010
Food Aid Hurts Haiti's Farmers. Steve Baragona | Artibonite Valley, Haiti
29 April 2010

Report Calls for Radical Changes on Eve of Global Agriculture Conference.

Joe

DeCapua

25

March

2010

Zimbabwe's Hard-Pressed City Dwellers Cultivate Urban Agriculture

By Taurai Shava. Gweru, Zimbabwe. 25 November 2008

MJLTM

TECHNOLOGY AND ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING (ELT)

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ABSTRACT

This paper is a try to investigate the attitudes of English language university teachers in Kerman (Iran) toward computer technology and find the hidden factors that make university teachers avoid using technology in English language teaching. 30 university teachers participated in this study. A questionnaire and semi-structured interview were used in order to collect the data. Both descriptive and inferential statistics as well as content analysis were conducted to analyze the data. The findings of the study revealed that a great majority of university teachers attribute positive remarks for integrating technology in language teaching. However, they get difficulty in integrating technology into their instruction effectively.

Keywords: Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL), English Language Teaching (ELT)

1. Introduction

It is undeniable that we now live in a world in which technology has emerged in every aspect of our lives. Technology is wonderfully becoming highly significant in both our personal and professional lives, and our learners are using technology more and more. There is no doubt that technology in language learning is not new. Indeed, it has been around in language teaching for decades- one might argue for centuries, if we consider the blackboard as a form of technology. Tape recorders, language laboratories and videos have been in use since the 1960s and 1970s, and are still being used in classrooms around the world. Computer -based materials for language teaching, often referred to CALL (computer Assisted Language Learning), appeared in the early 1980s. Apart from its time and labor -saving function, technology can also give the idea of variety and bring new opportunities to people; connecting them to new thoughts and to people they otherwise might not have met. This increase in the availability of technology has led to an explosion of interest in its use in the language classroom.

In order for learning technology to be successful, it should be integrated into the curriculum (Graham Stanley, 2013). The main challenge in terms of keeping things fresh, especially in teaching has been getting a hold of new technology and mastering new technological things. Use of CALL for the teaching activities has become a widely acceptable way of knowledge transfer because of the flexibility and standardization of the overall educational process they offer. It is more significant especially to the professors who are the main source of knowledge at university. It is clear that there is a need to focus on faculty attitudes and affecting participation of them in e-learning, web-based teaching using technology in teaching-learning process. Few years ago using computer used to be the concern of those teachers who were familiar with computers .But using computer assisted language learning(CALL) has received attention of many English and foreign language instructors and also SLA researchers. (Kawase 2005; Beauvois, 1992; Chappell, 2001; Chun, 1994; Dhaif,1989; Kern, 1998; Kern & Warschauer, 2000; Loewen & Erlam, 2006; Sauro, 2009; Smith, 2003; Smith, 2004; Sullivan, &

Pratt, 1996; Warschauer, 1996a and 1996b; Warschauer, 1997; Razagifard & Rahimpour, 2010). Teachers should become effective agents to be able to use CALL tools in the classroom, which is possible via positive teacher attitude thereby adopters feel more comfortable with using them and usually integrate them into their teaching (Bullock, 2004; & Ker saint et al, 2003). Positive attitudes often stimulate teachers with less technology knowledge to learn the required skills for employing CALL -based tasks in the classroom setting. Although computer -based materials for language teaching (Computer Assisted Language Learning), appeared in the early 1980s, it is not widespread .Most of the professors have understood CALL just as web -based materials , and they think of multiple computers for each student. This study wants to show professors that it's not necessary for them to have multiple computers, but most of the time just one computer or even a laptop computer and speakers in the classroom can suffice for implementing CALL in the classroom. In this study, we focus on studying the factors related to the attitude of professors' toward using technology in instruction.

2. Review of literature

Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) is a technique for using technology in the field of language learning (Januszewski & Molenda, 2008). According to Wikipedia encyclopedia (2005), CALL is defined as an approach to language teaching and learning in which computer technology is used as an aid to the presentation, reinforcement, and assessment of material to be learned, usually including a substantial interactive element. In the light of this definition and for the purpose of this study, the CALL refers to the use of multimedia CD-ROM combining text, pictures, audio, and video files for the purpose of teaching English as a second language. Many studies worldwide have been conducted to investigate the effect of CALL on learning languages. Research results demonstrated a positive effect of CALL on students' learning and competency (Almekhlafi, 2006; Ertmer, Ottenbreit-Leftwich & York, 2006; Benson & Mekolichick, 2007; Teo, 2009). In other words, CALL has gained considerable attention from various entities including researchers and writers. As a recent educational innovation, the computerization of education is a sophisticated process where many agents play a role. Forces at the micro-level of the educational system (teachers and students) may be impressive in facilitating or impeding changes that are outside the control of the ministries of education (Pelgrum, 2001). Unfortunately, much of the researches on computer uses in education has ignored teachers' attitude toward the new machines (Harper, 1987).

Recent studies have shown that the successful implementation of educational technologies depends largely on the attitudes of educators, who eventually determine how they are used in the classroom. Bullock (2004) found that teachers' attitudes are a major enabling or disabling factor in the adoption of technology. Similarly, Kersaint, Horton, Stohl, and Garofalo (2003) found that teachers who have positive attitudes toward technology feel more comfortable with using it and usually incorporate it into their teaching. In fact, Woodrow (1992) asserted that any successful transformation in educational practice requires the development of positive users' attitude toward the new technology. The development of teachers' positive attitudes toward CALL is a key factor not only for enhancing computer integration but also for avoiding teachers' resistance to computer use (Watson, 1998). Watson (1998) warns against the severance of the innovation from the classroom teacher and the idea that "the teacher is an empty vessel into which this externally defined innovation must be poured. Knezek and Christensen (2002) analysis of several major cross-cultural studies completed during the 1990s and related to CALL in education suggested that teachers advance in technology integration through a set of well defined stages, which sometimes require changes in attitude more so than skills. If we examine works such as Liu et al. (2002) where the authors present a review of the research on CALL from 1990 to 2000. Out of the 70 articles studied by Liu and her colleagues, 44 dealt with the effectiveness of CALL in language teaching vs. traditional teaching, 15 dealt with how to use CALL more effectively, and the other 11 dealt with students' attitude to using CALL. Even when we review more recent studies, we find that these three key areas continue being the main focus for researchers, as we can see in Aydin and Genç (2011), and in Heift and Schulze (2012). There is, however, one key element which has been ignored to a great degree in most studies despite its importance in the classroom; the professors. Professors and lecturers are the ones in charge of incorporating CALL into their classroom, and as Sagarra and Zapata (2008) explained, the success of CALL is linked to the abilities of those who manage the course.

3. Methodology

The participants of this study were 30 professors at Islamic Azad university & Shahid Bahonnar university in Kerman (Iran). In this study, both quantitative and qualitative data collection instruments (a questionnaire and a semi-structured interview) were employed in order to collect the data. Descriptive and inferential data analysis procedures were used to analyze the data gathered via the questionnaire. The data was analyzed using SPSS and content analysis was conducted in order to analyze the data collected through the semi-structured interview.

4. Results and Discussion

This study aimed at examining the factors affecting the perceptions and behaviors of English professors which make them avoid using technology in their teaching process. More specifically, the following six aspects were investigated in terms of six different variables:

1. English language professors' computer literacy
2. Professors interest toward computers and technology use in their teaching process
3. Professors self-confidence in technology use in teaching activities
4. The attitudes of English professors toward CALL and whether using computer is a waste of time
5. The attitudes of English language teachers toward the fear of using computers in educational settings, especially in instruction
6. The attitudes of English language professors toward available facilities and if they have received any training

Table 4.1. Computer Literacy

Item No	computer literacy		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
1.	1. Since teaching via a computer is a little complicated so using it in the classroom would be very hard for me.	Frequency	11	9	3	6	1	30
		Percent	36.66	30	10	20	3.33	100
2.	2. Using computer needs master of knowledge and I'm not the type to do well with computer.	Frequency	14	9	1	2	4	30
		Percent	46.66	30	3.33	6.66	13.3	100
3.	4. I use computers just for simple applications like word processing, spreadsheet, etc. not for other purposes.	Frequency	1	1	1	12	15	30
		Percent	3.33	3.33	3.33	40	50	100
4.	5. I don't have enough computer integration literacy but to be used in the classroom curriculum.	Frequency	3	4	0	13	10	30
		Percent	10	13.33	0	43.33	33.33	100
5.	26. I rarely have a clear and coherent sense of the reasons for educational change.	Frequency	4	14	6	3	3	30
		Percent	13.33	46.66	20	10	10	100

Table 4.2. Computer Interest

Item No	Computer Interest		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
1.	11. Computers interest me little.	Frequency	6	12	1	8	3	30
		Percent	20	40	3.33	26.66	10	100
2.	12. Anything computer can be used for, I can do just as well in some other way.	Frequency	4	10	7	8	1	30
		Percent	13.33	33.33	23.33	26.66	3.33	100
3.	15. I would like working with a computer during my teaching activities.	Frequency	4	7	1	10	8	30
		Percent	13.33	23.33	3.33	3.33	26.66	100
4.	13. I look forward to using computer on my job.	Frequency	5	2	3	11	9	30
		Percent	16.66	6.66	10	36.66	30	100
5.	3. I have never used a computer in my teaching process but I would like to learn.	Frequency	16	7	1	4	2	30
		Percent	53.33	23.33	3.33	6.66	6.66	100

Table 4.3. Computer Self confidence

Item No	Computer Self-confidence		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
1.	6. I can't show myself as a successful teacher when I use computer	Frequency	4	8	7	11	0	30
		Percent	13.33	26.66	23.33	36.66	0	100
2.	14. Since I may face a problem I would never start a subject where I had to work with computer.	Frequency	2	6	1	9	12	30
		Percent	6.66	20	3.33	30	40	100
3.	16. I have a lot of self-confidence when it comes to work with computers.	Frequency	6	8	5	8	3	30
		Percent	20	26.66	16.66	26.66	43.33	100
4.	21. My students know so much more about computers than I do, so I cannot keep up with them.	Frequency	2	3	0	14	11	30
		Percent	6.66	10	0	46.66	36.66	100

5.	28. I hardly believe I am able to make effective use of technology in everyday classroom teaching.	Frequency	2	1	1	11	15	30
		Percent	6.66	3.33	3.33	36.66	50	100

Table 4.4. Computer and Waste of Time

Item No	Computer and Waste of Time		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
1.	7. I think it takes a long time to finish my teaching by computer.	Frequency	1	9	4	13	3	30
		Percent	3.33	30	13.33	43.33	10	100
2.	8. Teaching via a computer is a waste of time.	Frequency	5	2	2	12	9	30
		Percent	16.66	6.66	6.66	40	30	100
3.	9. By using text books in the classroom I can use my time more appropriately than using a computer.	Frequency	2	7	0	12	9	30
		Percent	6.66	23.33	0	40	30	100
4.	22. It takes a lot of time to bring required equipment in the classroom.	Frequency	2	7	0	9	12	30
		Percent	6.66	23.33	0	30	40	100
5.	24. I'd like to use computers more, but preparing materials is so time consuming.	Frequency	0	3	4	18	5	30
		Percent	0	10	13.33	60	16.66	100

Table 4.5. Computer and Technophobia

Item No	Computer and Technophobia		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
1.	17. I hesitate to use a computer for fear of making mistakes I cannot correct.	Frequency	7	12	0	6	5	30
		Percent	23.33	40	0	20	16.66	100
2.	20. I'm a digital immigrant so I prefer to avoid using technology	Frequency	9	10	2	5	4	30
		Percent	30	33.33	6.66	16.66	13.33	100
3.	23. I have had a negative experience with technology in the past.	Frequency	13	14	1	0	2	30
		Percent	43.33	46.66	3.33	0	6.66	100
4.	25. By including technology in the	Frequency	6	13	4	5	2	30

	classroom the role of the teacher will be diminished.	Percent	20	43.33	13.33	16.66	6.66	100
5.	27. By using computer I can hardly have a controlled learning environment.	Frequency	4	10	4	11	1	30
		Percent	13.33	33.33	13.33	36.66	3.33	100

Table 4.6. Computer and a Facility

Item No	Computer and a Facility		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
1.	10. Since I have never received any training I expect to have little use for computers in my teaching process.	Frequency	4	9	4	10	3	30
		Percent	13.33	30	13.33	33.33	10	100
2.	18. Usefulness of technology has been reduced by a lack of facilities.	Frequency	1	2	0	9	18	30
		Percent	3.33	6.66	0	30	60	100
3.	19. Usefulness of technology has been reduced by a lack of training	Frequency	1	0	1	11	17	30
		Percent	3.33	0	3.33	66	56.66	100
4.	29. I like to use technology, but I don't know what to do.	Frequency	2	7	2	7	12	30
		Percent	6.66	23.33	6.66	23.33	40	100
5.	30. Limited number of computers for students make Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) less beneficial for our students.	Frequency	5	3	7	2	13	30
		Percent	16.66	10	23.33	6.66	43.33	100

5. Conclusion

According to the results of the quantitative questionnaire, it was found out that most of professors were knowledgeable, but their level of literacy was different. However, when their computer literacy was considered, it was understood that they use computers and the Internet at low-levels. Teachers usually admit that they do in fact know a bit about technology. They usually know how to use e-mail, word processing program and how to use the internet. This knowledge is certainly enough to get started with using technology in the classroom, and the learners are delighted to be called upon to help out, and to get a chance to demonstrate their skills and knowledge in this area. Some computer - based work can be done alone, for example using CD-ROMs. The CALL approach is one that is still found on many published CD-ROMs for language teaching. Although the use of ICT by language teachers is not still widespread, the use of technology in the classroom is becoming increasingly important, and it will become a normal part of ELT practice in the coming years because younger learners are growing up with technology ,and it is a natural and integrated part of their lives. Another

significant comment of the interview data is that English professors used computers more for personal purposes. However, they could not make use of computers effectively for the tasks which included the students and classroom activities. Besides, few teachers used web blogs in their language teaching practices.

According to the results of the quantitative questionnaire, it was found out that majority of the professors totally were interested in using computers and computer technologies. As we know professor have varying level of interest to computer and technology. As access to Information and Communication Technology (ICT) has become more widespread, so CALL has moved beyond the use of computer programs to embrace the use of internet and web-based tools. Using a range of ICT tools can give learners exposure to and practice in all of the four language skills –speaking, listening, reading and writing.

According to the descriptive statistics of the questionnaire data showed that, English teachers used computers rarely in their classroom. However, when their usage levels were considered, it was understood that different factors make them avoid using computer .One of these factors was professors' self-confidence to use computer or other resources. According to the quantitative data from questionnaire, it was clarified that most of these participants do not have the required self-confidence to use technology. According to their comments in their interviews, some of them think by using computer in the classroom they may face problems that they cannot correct. The others think that because their learners are digital natives and the professors are digital immigrants, so they know less than their learners, and consequently they will lose their self-confidence .They are worried about failing technology, as well as going something wrong, and also the professors don't have the required skills in implementing CALL in the classroom curriculum.If professors try to make themselves strong in technical skills, surely their self-confidence will improve, besides after having such an experience for one or two sessions after that this problem will be diminished.

One of the most important features of a computer is the access to information it provides. Because the internet acts as a virtual library, students can have access to nearly any piece of information imaginable. This can be highly advantageous in the classroom as it can enhance the information on any classroom subject. Computers also save time in many ways. Not only can computers access millions of pages of information on the Internet, but also they can do this in an incredibly fast time. What once might have taken hours of library research might now only take a few minutes on the computer.

In addition to the Internet, tools such as word processors, presentation software, and spreadsheets have added efficiency. They eliminate much of the time that traditional writing, presentations, and creating tables and forms once required. According to the obtained statistics from analyzing this question a considerable number of professors believe that using computer in the classroom is wasting time .According to their comments in their interviews, by including any source of technology in the classroom the speed of teaching process will slow down. Some of them say that they would like to use computers, but preparing materials is so time- consuming. The answer is here that typically, a course book will have its own web pages on the publishers' website; a list of recommended websites to visit for each unit, a CD-ROM and / or DVD, and occasionally teacher support online, in the form of frequently asked questions (FAQs), or discussion forum.

Preparing materials is not as time- consuming as paper -based materials. The findings in this study showed that professors still prefer textbooks to technology. It is worth mentioning that traditional materials (blackboard /whiteboard or a course book) can never be replaced by using computer or other technological devices. Technology can be used to complete your activities in the classroom .Imagine that a unit in the course book deals with animals in the danger of extinction. Technology can be used to do complementary activities such as data collection, or a webquest on animals in danger of extinction. The teacher can produce additional materials to review course book material on the topic, too.

There is a tendency to call computer users *technophobes* or *technogeeks* (a term for technology enthusiast), the truth is that most of us probably fall somewhere between the extremes. Teachers who have had negative experience with technology in the past often express dislike and fear of computer. The qualitative data yielded invaluable findings regarding English professors' technophobia and their use of computer technology. According to the results of the quantitative questionnaire, it was found out that English professors overall had positive attitudes toward computers and computer technologies and they do not feel like having technophobia. The best way to address the situation is to

make teachers aware that they already have certain technical skills-they probably know how to use a tape recorder in the classroom, for example, and often already use technology in their personal lives, such as MP3 player, the internet or email. In other words, rather than dismissing very real fears, these need to be acknowledged and addressed. The technophobic teacher needs to be encouraged to get started by implementing simple, undemanding technology with learners. Using a ready-made webquest from the Internet, for example, is a good way to start. Teachers also need to realize that technology does and will break down occasionally, and that it is always good to have a lesson plan that does not require the use of technology, and sometimes professors can ask learners to help out if technology fails. Select a volunteer or two to help sort out the problem, and always have an alternative activity/lesson plan ready. In addition, providing good training in the use of technology in the classroom is a key to encourage the long-term acceptance and the use of technology by technophobic teachers.

The pedagogical exploitation of technology depends as much on the availability of teaching resources as it does on teachers' understanding of how best to use the technology (Schmid & Hazerbrouck, 2010). This trends to indicate that training, therefore, is the key to effective use of indeed any technology. As the quantitative figures of questionnaire besides the professors' comments in their interviews show, a considerable number of the participants were firmly believed that they have no facility and no training. This was an often-heard remark in the process of doing this study. Most of the professors said that we need a hall with computers for each student. There is a language lab in both Azad & Bahonnar universities, but the problem is here that professors do not use these facilities properly as well. There was a DVD player in the professors' offices in Azad & Bahonnar universities, but according to the data obtained from students' questionnaire, none of them uses it frequently. They have never asked for more facilities, because they have never thought of including technology in their classroom.

In addition to teachers' own perceptions about technology and computers, it was observed that external factors are quite influential on teachers' use of computers and technology. The common factor is the lack of technological tools that can be utilized while teaching classes. The interview data suggested that some of professor use projectors in order to present the course content to their students. However, it was also found out that just a few respondents have projectors in their classes every time. A majority of English teachers had to share some limited projectors with their colleagues. Because there are limited technological tools, this insufficiency sometimes affects professors' overall use of computers in their classes. Another paramount factor that hampers the use of technology by professors as data collected from professors showed that teachers do have positive attitudes toward computers and technology, but their adoption of computers and their use of technology in their language teaching practices do not correlate with their positive attitudes. They are using computers at low-levels which do not require complex applications and their use of technology cannot enhance interactive student participation in language learning and teaching process. However, the more teachers have access to computers and make use of them, the better they will learn how they can conduct more complicated tasks using technology in their language teaching practices (Ertmer, 2005 & Wozney, 2006).

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SECOND LANGUAGE(L2) LEARNERS' MOTIVATION AND LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES WITH L2 WRITING ABILITY OF THE STUDENTS OF MEDICINE AND DENTISTRY AT SHIRAZ UNIVERSITY OF MEDICAL SCIENCES

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ABSTRACT

It is axiomatic that affective factors play crucial roles in learning a language. Among the numerous affective factors motivation and learning strategy have salient roles. This study was conducted to examine the relationship between second language (L2) learners' motivation and language learning strategies (LLSs) with L2 writing abilities of the students of medicine and dentistry at Shiraz University of Medical Sciences (SUMS). In a correlational design, forty medical and dentistry students participated in the study. In order to collect data two different questionnaires were administered at the beginning of the term. Moreover to obtain the students' scores in the writing course two writing exam, mid-term and final, were administered. Spearman Correlation Coefficient was estimated to examine the relationships between learners' motivation and writing scores, LLSs and writing scores and the possible links among gender, motivation and LLSs. Results revealed that at the beginning of the term due to lack of motivation, lack of familiarity with LLSs use and the focus of teaching on grammar and paragraph writing, motivation and LLSs did not have significant effect on L2 writing ability. However regarding the time interval between mid-term and final exam and respecting the students' development on education, motivation and LLSs, results illuminated that motivation and LLSs had significant effect on L2 writing ability. On the other hand, it came to light that gender did not have significant effect on the use of LLSs, motivation and L2 writing. The findings highlight the noteworthy effect of motivation and LLSs on learners' L2 writing ability.

Key words: Motivation, Language learning strategy.

1. Introduction

Writing is generally regarded as a difficult skill and a complex task (Graham, Harris, & Mason, 2005). It is something most native speakers never master (Nunan, 2001). However, it is much more intimidating for non-natives, especially EFL (English as a foreign language) learners in Iran with only

limited exposure to English. The importance of writing skill and its role in demonstrating students' learning is undeniable. Academics evaluate students through their writing. Hence, poor writing ability of students may jeopardize their academic success to a considerable extent (Tan, 2011).

Data analysis indicates that Iranian EFL medical students have problem both in language and writing skills, but with a higher percentage of problem in writing skills. Although grammar, vocabulary and syntax are crucial for a well-written report, other more important areas such as affective factors are significant as well. It has been, through different studies, an axiom that there are various factors affecting the language teaching and learning process. Among these different factors, affective factors in general and motivation and language learning strategies (LLSs) in particular play an important role. Motivation has been accepted by both teachers and researchers as one of the key factors that influence the rate and success of second and foreign language learning. For example, research shows that those students who have higher motivation are more successful and efficient in their learning (for example, Ely, 1986; Gardner, 2000). Rigney (1978) defines language learning strategies (LLSs) as the often-conscious steps and behaviors used by learners to enhance acquisition. What about gender? Does it really matter here as it does in other fields? Gender is considered as one of the main factors that influence second language learning (Andreou, Vlachos & Andreou, 2005) and ignoring its effect can lead to inappropriate selection of learning environments and materials for both male and female language learners and especially in co-educational institutions.

The students of medicine in Shiraz University need to pass more English courses than those studying in other national medical universities, and there is a three unit writing course specifically offered for graduate students. Nevertheless, these students still have many problems in their reports, notes and case histories. Knowing English is essential for these students because they require it for medical reporting, exposition of the operation, clinical descriptions, etc. Therefore, this research project is concerned with EFL writing issues at the university level, trying to indicate the major variables such as learners' motivation and learning strategies which may affect the medical students' second language (L2) writing in Shiraz University of Medical Sciences hoping that such information can help teachers, in general, and Iranian EFL teachers, in particular, to be more efficient in their career. To meet this aim, the present study seeks to address the following research questions:

1. Is there any relationship between medical students' motivation and paragraph writing and essay writing?
2. Is there any relationship between medical students' learning strategy use and paragraph writing and essay writing?
3. Is there any relationship between medical students' learning strategy use and paragraph writing and essay writing in terms of different learning strategy types?
4. Is there any relationship between Medical students' gender, motivation, learning strategies and (L2) writing ability?

1.1 Statement of the Problem

Medical students and clinicians whose native language is not English must learn it to benefit themselves from the large body of medical knowledge published in English, to have a good and acceptable writing specially in their profession of medicine and also to use English for their future career. Students' difficulties in writing and using English for academic purposes might be due to a number of reasons. In public education, students at schools have some English courses which are not effective enough. Furthermore, at universities, except English majors, students pass some credits in general English and English for specific purposes (ESP) courses which, according to Ghonsooly and Pishghadam (2007), do not seem to be useful and interesting for students. Many students, unfortunately, only rely on English courses offered at universities and do not attempt to enhance their ability in ESP in their own field of study. In particular, they do not get the opportunity to develop and improve their academic English writing skills and strategies that potentially enhance their proficiency.

That might be the reason why researchers have observed that despite the fact that medical students are in an upper-intermediate level in English, their grades in writing exams indicate that these students still have many problems in their reports, notes and case histories (Shokrpour, N. & Fallahzadeh, M. H, 2007). Knowing English is very important for these students because they need it for medical reporting, exposition of the operation, and clinical descriptions. Therefore this research is concerned with EFL writing issues at the university level, trying to point out the major variables such

as learners' motivation and learning strategies which may affect students' writing abilities. It seems to help us better figure out how they deal with academic writing in English.

1.2 Significance of the Study

The results of the present study are supposed to help medical students in dealing with L2 writing with an awareness of motivation and LLSs in their education and beyond that while they are involved in their career. Furthermore, Iranian ESP instructors can apply the findings of this study to develop more effective instructional strategies addressing learners' needs for a variety of writing strategies which will help them cope with difficulties in writing texts in English. Moreover identification of the relationship between motivation, LLSs and L2 writing can suggest teachers to foster positive and realistic beliefs and motivation that lead to effective learning of writing ability and minimize negative and unrealistic beliefs that inhibit learning. Furthermore it seemed to open up a new line of research in this regard especially considering the point that it was carried out in a medicine and dentistry department.

2. Literature Review

In what follows, theoretical studies of writing, motivation, language learning strategy and gender will be illustrated in details.

2.1. Writing

Writing is generally regarded as a difficult skill and a complex task (Graham, Harris, & Mason, 2005). It is a difficult skill for native and non-native speakers because writers should balance numerous issues, such as content, organization, purpose, audience, vocabulary, punctuation, spelling, and mechanics. Writing is not only a difficult task but also a time-consuming activity that requires attention and determination. Academics assess students through their writing. Hence, poor writing ability of students may endanger their academic success to a considerable extent (Tan, 2011).

Individual difference variables also play an important role in how language learners develop the potential of writing to acquire an L2. Manchón (2011) and Williams (this volume) argue that L2 writing is contributing to second language development, because it helps learners to perceive and internalize new linguistic knowledge and promotes automatism, knowledge integration and hypothesis testing. Feedback on L2 writing also assists second language acquisition (SLA) processes (for a recent discussion see Bitchener & Ferris, 2012).

Another line of research has focused on students' attitude of the peer response method. Exploring Students' attitude of the peer response knowledge has yielded contradictory results. Whereas Nelson and Murphy (1993) and Hu (2005) found that Chinese students welcomed peer feedback, other educators like Leki (1990) and Srichanyachon (2012) identified several shortcomings with peer feedback and concluded that students prefer teacher feedback as a more effective means of writing revision.

In order to investigate the transfer of writing skills between Persian and English, (as two languages different writing features, grammar, or even type of writing system) little research has been done. Studies conducted by Arefi (1997), and Zia Houseini and Derakhshan (2006) are two cases in point. Arefi (1997) studied the relationship between first and second language writing skills for Iranian students in Australia. In this respect, the students were asked to write descriptive and comparative essays in English and Persian. Then their papers were evaluated by means of three writing indicators, including "linguistic productivity," "holistic scheme," and "technical skills." In her study, linguistic productivity consisted of number of words, number of simple sentences, number of complex sentences, number of T-units, and mean T-unit length in students' essays. Holistic scheme was analyzed through the number of ideas introduced by the subject, the development of ideas, coherence, the connection between ideas, and the ending. Technical skills consisted of spelling, punctuation, grammatical correctness, and capitalization. Finally, the results of Arefi's study (1997) showed that L1 (Persian) writing skill indicators of linguistic productivity and holistic scheme transferred to the English language in spite of the very different writing system of these two languages.

2.2. Motivation

Brown (2001) in his study stated that motivation simply refers to the intensity of one's impetus to learn. The study of motivation in second language acquisition has become an important research topic with the development of the socio-educational model on second language motivation (Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Gardner, 1985; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995). According to Gardner and Lambert (1972), motivation to learn a second language is grounded in positive attitudes toward the second language community and in a desire to communicate with prized members of that community and become similar to them. This latter desire is integrative orientation, which is a better support for language learning, while an instrumental orientation is related to a desire to learn L2 for pragmatic gains like getting a better job or a higher salary (Dörnyei, 2001; Gardner & Lambert, 1972). The role of orientation is to help stimulate motivation and direct it towards a set of goals, either with a strong interpersonal quality (integrative orientation) or a strong practical quality (instrumental orientation) (Dörnyei, 2001).

Some Iranian researchers have examined the type of motivation and its orientation in addition to the attitudes of the learners towards learning English and found different results. For example, Moiiinvaziri (2008) claimed that students in her study were highly motivated in both instrumental and integrative orientations. On the other hand, studies such as Vaezi (2008) claimed that Iranian students had very high motivation and positive attitudes towards learning English and they were more instrumentally motivated.

Noels, Clément, and Pelletier (1999) studied the relationship between students' perceptions of their teachers' communicative style and the students' motivation and language competence. This investigation found that intrinsic motivation was negatively associated with class anxiety, with the teacher as controlling, and with perceptions of being controlled by the environment, but that it was positively related to motivational strength, to intention to continue language study, to self-evaluation of language skills, and to perceptions of the teacher as informative.

2.3. Learning strategy

Rigney (1978) defines LLSs as the often-conscious steps and behaviors used by learners to enhance acquisition. Tarone (1981) also defines LLSs as attempts to develop linguistic and sociolinguistic competence in the target language. Likewise, Rubin (1987), and O'Malley and Chamot (1990) present learning strategies as important contributors to language learning.

Oxford's (1990) classification of L2 learning strategies into six distinct categories has been welcomed and followed by most researchers in their studies on strategy use and training. The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) developed by Oxford (1990) subdivides these strategies into cognitive, meta-cognitive, memory, compensatory, affective, and social strategies. In the following, each of these strategies is defined in order.

1. Cognitive strategies enable learners to manipulate language materials in a direct way.
2. Meta-cognitive strategies are employed for managing the overall learning process.
3. Memory-related strategies help learners to link one L2 item or concept with another but do not necessarily involve deep understanding.
4. Compensatory strategies help the learner make up for missing knowledge.
5. Affective strategies include measures such as identifying one's mood and anxiety level, talking about feelings and rewarding oneself for good performance.
6. Social strategies help learners work with others and understand the target culture as well as the language.

Abdul Razak, Abdul Aziz, Adamu, Babikkoi and Ismail (2012) assessed the use of language learning strategies among secondary school students. According to findings, Students of secondary school used all six strategies (cognitive, meta-cognitive, memory, compensation, social and affective) in order to learn English as a second language and female students used more strategies for learning English than male students.

Rahimi and Katal (2011) studied the effect of learning strategies on learners' success in learning English on Iranian EFL learners. The result showed that learners who were conscious about what they were doing and they used variety number of strategies seemed to be more successful than others. The use of meta-cognitive strategies helped learners to control and evaluate their own learning and gain better learning outcomes.

Zhou (2010) investigated the English learning strategy use by Chinese senior high school students. The study has revealed that senior high school students used compensation strategies more frequently and used social strategies less frequently. Study showed that female students used language learning strategies more than male students and students who had higher grade used learning strategies less than others.

In a preliminary study, semi-structured interviews were conducted with a small group of twelve-year-old students in their second year of foreign language study in schools in London (Harris, 2004). These students had been exposed to learning strategy instruction in their English classes, so they were asked to judge on 16 different strategies as to whether each strategy was useful only for learning English, only for learning the foreign language, for learning any language, or not useful. Differences were found between high level and low level students. High level students used more meta-cognitive strategies and were making some transfers of strategies from their English class to their foreign language class, whereas low level were less likely to use meta-cognitive strategies or make transfers from English. This work is continuing on a larger scale during 2004-2005.

A high level of proficiency has been correlated with an increased use of both direct and indirect strategies (Chang, 1990; Chen, 2002; Green & Oxford, 1995; Park, 1997). Specially, cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies show high correlations with high language proficiency levels (Ku, 1995; Peacock & Ho, 2003). (O'Malley, J.M., A.U. Chamot, G. Stewner-Manzanares, L. Küpper and R.P. Russo, 1985b), for example, studied the range, type and frequency of LLSs used by beginning and intermediate high school L2 learners. Their results revealed that while both groups used more cognitive than meta-cognitive strategies, intermediate students used more meta-cognitive strategies than the beginners.

2.4. Gender

The word gender has been used since the 14th century as a grammatical term, referring to classes of noun designated as masculine, feminine, or neuter in some languages. The sense 'the state of being male or female' has also been used since the 14th century, but this did not become common until the mid-20th century.

Gender is supposed to have an important effect on attitude and motivation and learning process. Nowadays, the researchers are very much eager to attribute gender related differences to socio-cultural factors (Ekstrand, 1980 cited in Sunderland, 2000) that impose on females' role models that promote a positive attitude to second language learning. In different motivation studies conducted on gender differences in foreign language learning context, it has been observed that females are more motivated in learning foreign languages than boys (e.g. Dornyei, Csizer, & Nemeth, 2006; Mori & Gobel, 2006).

Some researchers have looked into the correlation between gender and second and foreign language anxiety. McLean & Anderson (2009) indicate that female have greater fear and have high possibility to develop anxiety compared to men. However, findings on the relationship between learners' difference in gender with their performance, anxiety level and understandings in learning L2 and foreign language remain questionable and arguable (Matsuda & Gobel, 2004).

However, a study by Wicks-Nelson & Israel (2006) found that naturally, female feel more anxious than male. This is due to many factors such as confidence, proficiency (Bruce 2005), security, and superiority. Under certain conditions, female tend to easily vulnerable and so lead to the feeling of anxious and worried while male attain more self-control and ability to remove themselves from unpleasant.

Suleiman (1993) handled a research on the students of Arabic ethnicities studying EFL at Arizona State University. The study showed motivational differences related to gender. Sung and Padilla (1998) examined 144 elementary and 451 secondary school students' motivation towards learning Chinese, or Korean as L2. Results of the study confirmed significantly higher motivation for females than their male counterparts.

3. Methodology

3.1 Participants

This study was carried out at Shiraz University of Medical Sciences in Iran. A total of 40 medical and dentistry students (males and females ranging in age from 20 to 25) took part in this study. All of the

participants had experienced formal instruction in English for a period of 7 years during their public education.

Regarding the English program in medical schools, the students of medicine at Shiraz University have to pass more English courses than those studying in other national medical universities. There are usually three writing courses specifically for graduate students.

3.2 Instruments

3.2.1 Questionnaire

The basic instrument for collecting data about motivation and patterns of language learning strategy use in this study was questionnaire. The motivation questionnaire was derived from Laine's (1987) Intrinsic-Extrinsic Motivation Questionnaire and Instrumental-Integrative Motivation Questionnaire, and validated by Salimi (2000). One more point regarding this questionnaire is that Sedaghat (2001) states that Salimi (2000) estimated its reliability by Cronbach Alpha; and it turned out to be .71. The LLS questionnaire of this study was derived from Oxford's (1989) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) Questionnaire, and Language Learning Strategy Questionnaire (LLSQ). Its reliability was turned out to be .78. However reliability estimation repeated in this study by Cronbach Alpha for the sake of certainty. The reliability indices were within an acceptable range for all questionnaires (.93 for the motivation questionnaire, and .95 for the SILL questionnaire).

In this study the first questionnaire was related to motivation and consisted of two parts. The first part provided personal information about the participants and the second part involved thirty one items in five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (never or almost never) to 5 (always or almost always). The second questionnaire utilized in the study was the questionnaire about language learning strategies, which consists of eight sections in five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (never or almost never) to 5 (always or almost always). The first section was on personal information about the participants. The second section consisted of seven items about memory strategies. The third section consisted of twelve items about cognitive strategies. The forth section included five items about compensation strategies. The fifth section contained eight items about meta-cognitive strategies. The sixth one consisted of four items about affective strategies. The seventh was about social strategies with five items, and the last part of the second questionnaire which contained eighteen items was about writing which derived from version seven of Oxford's (1989) Language Learning Strategy Questionnaire (LLSQ) to collect information about participants' writing ability.

3.2.2 Test

Moreover to obtain the students' scores in the writing course two writing exam, midterm and final, were administered.

3.3 Data Collection Procedure

The study was a quantitative research project carried out at Shiraz University of Medical Sciences (SUMS). All participating students, the students of medicine and dentistry at SUMS, were given two different questionnaires on motivation and LLSs. They were asked to fill out the questionnaires. In order to collect data the questionnaires were administered at the beginning of the semester and two writing exams; namely, (mid-term and final) were managed during the semester. The students' scores in midterm and final exam in the writing course were obtained. Correlational techniques were used to analyze data obtained from descriptive research, which examined existing relationships between variables, with no manipulation of variables.

3.4 Data Analysis

Quantitative data resulting from the questionnaire responses were analyzed with correlational techniques which examines existing relationships between variables. SPSS 15 was employed to analyze the obtained data. Spearman Correlation Coefficient was estimated to examine the relationships between learners' motivation and writing scores, LLSs and writing scores and the possible links among gender, motivation and LLSs.

4. Findings and Discussions

1. Is there any relationship between medical students' motivation and paragraph writing (mid-term exam) and essay writing (final exam)?

The first research question of the study seeks to find the relationship between motivation with paragraph writing (mid-term exam) and essay writing (final exam) among medical students. To address this question, the results of the motivation questionnaire were analyzed. Students' responses to the questionnaire were evaluated on the basis of frequencies of motivation. The results are reported in the following table.

Table1.
The correlation of motivation with midterm exam and final exam

Motivation		
Midterm exam (paragraph writing)	Spearman Correlation	0.312
	Sig.(2 tailed).	>0.05 (p.value=.050)
	N	40
Final exam (essay writing)	Spearman Correlation	0.502
	Sig.(2 tailed)	<0.05 (p.value=.001)
	N	40

As it is conspicuous from the table, there is not a significant correlation between motivation and midterm exam (P. Value>0.05). But the correlation between motivation and final exam is significant (P. Value<0.05)

Writing is generally regarded as a difficult skill and a complex task (Graham et al. (2005).

Scarcella and Oxford (1992) state that writing in second language (L2) helps L2 learners to improve their grammatical, strategic, socio-linguistic, and discourse competences in foreign language.

Ellis (1994) in an overview of research on motivation said that motivation refers to the extent to which language learners persist in learning, and to what kinds of behavior they use and their actual achievement. In a task as difficult as writing, motivational aspects have great impact upon process and product (Bruning & Horn, 2000). In the academic context, the concept of student motivation is used to explain the extent to which students attend and effort to various chases (Brophy, 1998).

Generally speaking in this study two scores (mid-term exam and final exam) had been considered. At the beginning of the term may due to the lack of motivation and may because of the fact that the focus of teaching were on grammar and paragraph writing, the results do not reveal the significant correlation between motivation and midterm exam (P. Value >0.05). But during mid- term exam and final exam regarding the increment in motivation and educational level of students, the results show that the correlation between motivation and final exam is significant (P. Value<0.05).

2. Is there any relationship between medical students' learning strategy use and paragraph writing and essay writing?

The second research question of the study delved into the relationship between learning strategy use with paragraph writing and essay writing among medical students. To this end, the results of the learning strategy questionnaire were considered in detail. Students' responses were evaluated from the point of view of strategy use. The results are reported in Table 2.

Table2.
The correlation of learning strategy with midterm exam and final exam

Learning strategy		
	Spearman Correlation	0.343
Midterm exam (paragraph writing)	Sig.(2 tailed)	<0.05 (p.value=.030)
	N	
		40
Final exam (essay writing)	Spearman Correlation	0.510
	Sig.(2 tailed)	<0.05 (p.value=.001)
	N	
		40

As table 2 reveals, learning strategies have significant correlation with both midterm and final exam, (P. Value<0.05)

Rubin (1987), and O'Malley and Chamot (1990) present learning strategies as important contributors to language learning. Learning strategies are procedures that facilitate a learning task. Strategies are usually conscious and goal-driven, especially in the initial stages of performing an unfamiliar language task. Once a learning strategy becomes familiar through repeated use, it may be used with some automaticity, but most learners will, if required, be able to call the strategy. Supporting the present findings, learning strategies are essential in second language learning and teaching for two major reasons. First, by examining the strategies used by second language learners throughout the language learning process, we gain insights into the meta-cognitive, cognitive, social, and affective processes involved in language learning. The second reason supporting research into language learning strategies is that less successful language learners can be taught new strategies, thus helping them become better language learners (Grenfell & Harris, 1999).

3. Is there any relationship between medical students' learning strategy use and paragraph writing and essay writing in terms of different learning strategy types?

The third research question of this study investigates the probable relationship between learning strategy with paragraph writing and essay writing in terms of different learning strategy types. Consequently, in order to answer the third research question, Spearman correlation was performed. The results are tabulated in table 3.

Table3.
The correlation of different learning strategy types with midterm exam and final exam

		Midterm exam (Paragraph writing)	Final exam (Essay writing)
	Spearman Correlation	0.310	0.353
Mental	Sig.(2 tailed)	0.05< (p.value=.052)	0.05> (p.value=.025)
	N	40	40
	Spearman Correlation	0.381	0.556
Cognitive	Sig.(2 tailed)	0.05> (p.value=.015)	0.05> (p.value=.000)
	N	40	40
	Spearman Correlation	0.364	0.392
Compensation	Sig.(2 tailed)	0.05> (p.value=.021)	0.05> (p.value=.012)
	N	40	40
	Spearman Correlation	0.344	0.450
Meta-cognitive	Sig.(2 tailed)	0.05> (p.value=.030)	0.05> (p.value=.004)
	N	40	40
	Spearman Correlation	0.133	0.312
Affective	Sig.(2 tailed)	0.05< (p.value=.414)	0.05< (p.value=.050)
	N	40	40
	Spearman Correlation	0.163	0.315
Social	Sig.(2 tailed)	0.05< (p.value=.315)	0.05> (p.value=.048)
	N	40	40

It can be inferred from the results presented in table 3 that there was a significant correlation between midterm exam and 3 types of learning strategy named: cognitive strategy, compensation strategy and meta-cognitive strategy (P. Value<0.05). While final exam showed significant correlation with mental

strategy, cognitive strategy, compensation strategy, meta-cognitive strategy and social strategy (P. Value<0.05)

Supporting the findings, Oxford (1992/1993) stated that learning strategies are specific actions, behaviors, steps, or techniques that students (often intentionally) use to improve their progress in developing L2 skills. These strategies can facilitate the internalization, storage, retrieval, or use of the new language. According to the vast literature on LLSs there are number of factors believed to correlate with learners' use of LLSs either in ESL or EFL contexts. Among these, learners' level of language proficiency, motivation and gender have shown to have a strong effect on learners' use of different types of strategies. A high level of proficiency has been associated with an increased use of both direct and indirect strategies (Chang, 1990; Chen, 2002; Green & Oxford, 1995; Park, 1997).

Another variable widely examined with respect to its relationship with LLS use is motivation. Oxford and Nyikos (1989), who studied the effect of a number of factors on strategy use, including motivation, found the latter as the single most important factor influencing strategy use.

The effect of gender on strategy use has been thoroughly investigated along with other variables (Chandler, Lizotte and Rowe, 1998; Ehrman and Oxford, 1989; Ghadesi, 1998; Green and Oxford, 1995). In the majority of these studies, females have consistently been reported as using LLSs more frequently than males (Hashim & Salih, 1994; Politzer, 1983; Sy, 1994; Wharton, 2000).

What can be inferred from the results above is that regarding the time frame between mid-term and final, three types of learning strategies named: cognitive strategy, compensation strategy and meta-cognitive strategy have significant relationship with mid-terms' scores. At the beginning of the term students initiate their L2 learning with different language proficiency, motivation and learning style. A high level of proficiency has been associated with an increased use of both direct and indirect strategies (Chang, 1990; Chen, 2002; Green and Oxford, 1995; Park, 1997). More specifically, cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies show high correlations with high language proficiency levels (Ku, 1995; Peacock & Ho, 2003). So the higher the proficiency level of the participants, the more frequently they used strategies. The results are in agreement with those of Park (1997). He reported that the high-proficient learners used more strategies than the intermediate ones who, in turn, used more strategies than the low group. Learners used compensation strategies for comprehension of the target language when they had insufficient knowledge of the target language. These strategies make up for the deficiency in grammar and vocabulary. And due to the fact that at the beginning of the term the focus of study is upon vocabulary, grammar and paragraph writing, compensation strategies help students use language in spite of gaps in their knowledge and can include using linguistic cues for guessing, coining words, and using synonyms. When learners do not know new words and expressions, they guess the meaning.

As mentioned above, final exam shows significant correlation with mental strategy, cognitive strategy, compensation strategy, meta-cognitive strategy and social strategy, (P. Value<0.05). Regarding the time interval between mid-term exam and final exam and with respect to the improvement and development of students' knowledge, these correlations are natural.

In final exam the focus of attention was on different aspects of writing not just grammar and vocabulary, so regarding students' enhancement in motivation and knowledge, they use more learning strategies to do the task. Thus, these three variables affect each other and promote language learning. In light of the association between learning strategy use and positive learning outcomes, it is not surprising that students who frequently employed learning strategies enjoyed a high level of self-efficacy, i.e., a perception of being effective as learners (Zimmerman & Pons, 1986). A general perspective of the effect of proficiency level on strategy use was the same as O' Malley and Chamot's (1990) study which found that high proficiency-level students tended to use more learning strategies than low proficiency-level students.

4. Is there any relationship between Medical students' gender, motivation, learning strategies and writing ability?

To answer the forth research question of this study and to determine whether there was any connection between gender and the aforementioned relationships, first t-test and Mann-Whitney test were performed.

Table4.

Statistical comparison of motivation and learning strategy in gender, separately

T-Test

Gender	Males	Females	P. value
Motivation	3.34±0.62 p.value=.151	3.61±0.53 p.value=.143	0.05<
Learning strategy	3.46±0.62 p.value=.211	3.70±0.53 p.value=.203	0.05<

Mann-Whitney Test

Ranks

gender		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Motivation	1.00	22	23.18	510.00
	2.00	18	17.22	310.00
	Total	40		
strategy	1.00	22	22.30	490.50
	2.00	18	18.31	329.50
	Total	40		

Test Statistics^a

	Motivation	strategy
Mann-Whitney U	139.000	158.500
Wilcoxon W	310.000	329.500
Z	-1.605	-1.075
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.108	.283
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	.112 ^b	.286 ^b

a. Grouping Variable: gender

b. Not corrected for ties.

As illustrated in Table 4, T-test and Mann-Whitney test for separate samples have no statistical meaningful relationship with gender (P. value > 0.05), despite of the fact that the mean of motivation and learning strategy were higher in females than males. Maybe it is due to the fact that most of the time gender as a variable, performs as a moderator factor. Gender differences, therefore, turned out to have no significant effect on motivation and learning strategy.

The effect of gender on strategy use has been thoroughly investigated along with other variables (Chandler, Lizotte and Rowe, 1998; Ehrman and Oxford, 1989; Ghadesi, 1998; Green and Oxford, 1995). In the majority of these studies, females have consistently been reported as using LLSs more frequently than males (Hashim & Salih, 1994; Politzer, 1983; Sy, 1994; Wharton, 2000). In different motivation studies conducted on gender differences in foreign language learning context, it has been observed that females are more motivated in learning foreign languages than boys (e.g. Dornyei, Csizer, & Nemeth, 2006; Mori & Gobel, 2006). Sung & Padilla (1998) examined 144 elementary and 451 secondary school students' motivation towards learning Chinese, or Korean as L2. Findings of the study confirmed significantly higher motivation for females than their male counterparts.

Our findings with respect to the gender effect on the use of motivation and strategy categories, contradicted the results reported by Wharton (2000). A possible explanation for this absence of gender effect might be the fact that the participants of this study were medical students with a bit more higher level in English compared with other students. It is possible that the participants' awareness of language learning processes minimized the gender effect in this study. It is therefore clear that to be

able to fully understand the nature of second language acquisition (SLA) scholars need to have a deeper understanding of the mutual interrelation of language learning strategies, motivation, gender and other essential variables.

4.1. Correlation of different types of learning strategy with midterm exam and final exam in females

Table 4.1
Correlation of different types of learning strategy with midterm exam and final exam in females

		Midterm exam (Paragraph writing)	Final exam (Essay writing)
	Spearman Correlation	0.308	0.309
Mental	Sig.(2 tailed)	0.05< p.value=.163	0.05< p.value=.162
	N	22	22
	Spearman Correlation	0.408	0.596
Cognitive	Sig.(2 tailed)	0.05< p.value=.059	0.05> p.value=.003
	N	22	22
	Spearman Correlation	0.618	0.581
Compensation	Sig.(2 tailed)	0.05> p.value=.002	0.05> p.value=.005
	N	22	22
	Spearman Correlation	0.619	0.586
Meta-cognitive	Sig.(2 tailed)	0.05> p.value=.002	0.05> p.value=.004
	N	22	22
	Spearman Correlation	0.148	0.292
Affective	Sig.(2 tailed)	0.05< p.value=.510	0.05< p.value=.187
	N	22	22
	Spearman Correlation	0.202	0.399
Social	Sig.(2 tailed)	0.05< p.value=.367	0.05< p.value=.066
	N	22	22

Among females, Midterm exam reveals significant correlation with compensation strategy and meta-cognitive strategy. (P. Value<0.05). But, final exam demonstrates significant correlation with cognitive strategy, compensation strategy and meta-cognitive strategy. (P. Value<0.05)

In terms of gender, many studies have reported a greater overall strategy use for females than males. The study by Oxford and Nyikos (1989) reveals that strategies are employed far more often by females than males. The distinct gender differences in strategy use are also confirmed by Ehrman and Oxford (1989) in such strategy classifications as general study strategies, strategies for authentic language use, strategies for searching for and communicating meaning, and meta-cognitive or self-management strategies. In the Chinese context, Sy's (1994) study found that cognitive, compensation, meta-cognitive, and social strategies were used more significantly by females than males. However, later research by Ehrman and Oxford (1990) found no evidence for gender difference. Griffiths (2004) concludes that although gender difference may not always be evident but "where differences are found women tend to use more language learning strategies than men" (p. 14). Even though most of the studies in this area reported a greater use of language learning strategies by women, Tran (1988) found that Vietnamese women use much fewer language learning strategies.

Our analysis denotes that, among females, midterm exam reveals significant correlation with compensation strategy and meta-cognitive strategy (P. Value<0.05). As mentioned above, due to the fact that at the beginning of the term, the focus of study was upon vocabulary, grammar and paragraph writing, females used compensation strategies which helped them use language in spite of gaps in their knowledge and can include using linguistic cues for guessing, coining words, and using synonyms. When new vocabulary, rules, and writing system confused the learner, these strategies became vital for successful language learning. Meta-cognitive strategies help a learner organize, focus on and evaluate his/her learning. As meta-cognitive strategies constitute the executive abilities of the learner, a learner needs to employ meta-cognitive strategies for making use of other necessary learning strategies for a successful outcome. Meta-cognitive strategies equip the learner with the ability to identify the most appropriate actions whenever and wherever required. On the relationship between writing and meta-cognition, the process view suggests that the process of writing is not linear, and that managing such processes of writing requires a higher level ability than mere recognition of certain stages and processes. A second language writer has to go through certain stages when performing a task, and has to develop special skills for planning the writing process, organizing, drafting, revising, considering the audience, purpose and genre.

In this study final exam demonstrates significant correlation with cognitive strategy, compensation strategy and meta-cognitive strategy in females (P. Value<0.05). Regarding the time interval between mid-term exam and final exam and with respect to the improvement and development of students' knowledge, these correlations were natural. In final exam the focus of attention was on different aspects of writing not just grammar and vocabulary, so regarding students' enhancement in motivation and knowledge, they used more learning strategy to do the task. In addition, the writing research suggests a positive correlation between EFL students' meta-cognitive growth and their performance on the final writing assessment (Kasper, 1997), and therefore composition teachers are strongly advised to use meta-cognition to help students learn to analyze and adapt their thinking, learning, and writing processes.

Put it in a nutshell, most studies, including Green and Oxford (1995), Sy (1994), Watanabe (1990) etc., found similar results to the current study in that females surpassed males in the amount of language learning strategies they employed.

Table 4.2. Correlation of different types of learning strategy with midterm exam and final exam in males

		Midterm exam (Paragraph writing)	Final exam (Essay writing)
	Spearman Correlation	0.191	0.352
Mental	Sig.(2 tailed)	0.05<	0.05<

		p.value=.448	p.value=.151
	N	18	18
	Spearman Correlation	0.176	0.346
Cognitive	Sig.(2 tailed)	0.05< p.value=.485	0.05< p.value=.159
	N	18	18
	Spearman Correlation	0.016	0.122
Compensation	Sig.(2 tailed)	0.05< p.value=.949	0.05< p.value=.631
	N	18	18
	Spearman Correlation	0.059	0.228
Meta-cognitive	Sig.(2 tailed)	0.05< p.value=.817	0.05< p.value=.363
	N	18	18
	Spearman Correlation	0.004	0.229
Affective	Sig.(2 tailed)	0.05< p.value=.988	0.05< p.value=.228
	N	18	18
	Spearman Correlation	0.082	0.194
Social	Sig.(2 tailed)	0.05< p.value=.748	0.05< p.value=.440
	N	18	18

Among males, different types of learning strategies reveal no significant correlation with midterm and final exam. (P. Value>0.05), which may be due to the fact that most of the time gender acts as a moderator factor.

In conclusion, the discussion of the effect of gender in SLA has been in the program of many scholars, for a long time. Yet the results they achieved are still far from being decisive. Because gender itself is not a stable factor, it depends on many variables such as biological factors, cultural and social elements etc. So, future research could further investigate the role of gender in motivation, learning strategy and writing across different populations, contexts, and age groups.

5. Conclusion

The present study aimed at investigating the relationship between second language (L2) learners' motivation and language learning strategies with L2 writing ability of the students of medicine and dentistry at Shiraz University of Medical Sciences. The analysis of findings of the study showed how motivation and language learning strategies affected such students' writing ability. The findings provide strong empirical support for the employment of writing strategy to improve academic achievement for students. Furthermore, practical implications and suggestions can be taken from these results to assist instructors and curriculum developers plan and apply motivation and strategy instruction.

The students of medicine in Shiraz University have to pass more English courses than those studying in other national medical universities and there is a three credit writing courses specifically for graduate students. Knowing English is very important for these students because they need it for medical reporting, exposition of the operation and clinical descriptions. Despite the fact that they are in an upper-intermediate level in English considering their grades in writing exams, these students still have many problems in their reports, notes and case histories. On the surface, when looking at the notes and reports written by students and interns involved in the clinical period and studying at Shiraz University, many EFL teachers think that grammar and vocabulary are the main problem areas and that their writing would improve with remedial grammar/vocabulary lessons. Many studies have been done in the area of EFL writing problems but only a few of them have found the possible relationship between motivation and language learning strategies of such students with their L2 writing abilities. Our students need to get familiar with their motivation and different language learning strategies, so our teachers must emphasize the link between these variables in an attempt to offer a new insight on EFL writing.

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THE STUDY OF READING STRATEGIES BY EXTROVERT AND INTROVERT INTERMEDIATE EFL LEARNERS IN CHALOUS CITY, IRAN

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ABSTRACT

As different writers state the causes of the failure, different suggestions are also given to minimize the failure of students' comprehension skills as a solution. The relevance of the ability to comprehend texts, the researcher's experience and other views on the causes of the problem as well as the solutions initiated the researcher to figure out factors that affect students' reading comprehension ability. Two of the most examined dimensions of personality that have an affective influence on language learning are extroverted and introverted. In the current paper the researcher first define and look at the different studies conducted to examine the relationship between the two factors and second language acquisition (SLA). Results show that extroverts seem to take full advantage of language-use opportunities as they tend to be sociable, and are more likely to join groups, more inclined to engage in conversations both inside and outside the classroom. However, results have also concluded that a more extroverted personality may be better suited to classroom learning, especially reading skills. With this intention the study was conducted on 60 sampled students from high school. After the instructions finished, the mean scores of the two groups on this posttest was computed and a two-way ANOVA was run to test the three hypotheses raise in this study. The results indicated that extroverts outperform introverts in reading comprehension and used more strategies.

Keywords: reading, extroversion; introversion; second language acquisition; personality

1. Introduction

Reading; is a very complex mental activity that contains vision, dubbing, thought, and rendition. According to Akyol (2006:29) Reading is a dynamic inferring process that makes communication between writer and reader essential. Reading skill means students' reading texts they encounter in their daily lives properly and fluently by using right methods (Özbay, 2006: 5). Reading is a very pivotal skill in our life and it is important for the mind and the success of students' academic career as people who cannot read well, don't do well in school and lose a lot of important things in life (Swihart (2009,p.2). Reading comprehension is of paramount importance. According to Richards and Renandya (2002, p12), reading has gathered the attention of many experts, researchers, learners because of a number of reasons:

Firstly, Reading is one of the most crucial aims of foreign language learners because in this way they can read for knowledge, for their career, and for educational purposes. *Secondly*, reading texts is considered as pedagogical purposes because linguistic exposure to rich text not only increases the speed of language acquisition but also expose them to good writing samples. *Thirdly*, it also gives students time to be familiar with new points of discussion, to encourage speaking and to work on other skills such as vocabulary, grammar, idioms.

Reading in English is becoming increasingly important for the students. They need to be able to read texts in English, not only for academic purposes, but also for their careers. Reading has many beneficial effects in language acquisition. Some researchers believe that reading facilitates language development (Martin-Chang & Gould, 2008).

Reading comprehension is defined as "the ability to interact with a text to construct meaning or to convey the author's message through employing an integrated process that involves cognitive and

meta cognitive strategies (Badr El Deen (2011, p.11) ". As Grabe (2004, p.19) suggested that "reading comprehension implies processing efficiency, language knowledge, strategic awareness, extensive practice in reading, cognitive resources in working memory to allow critical reflection, and appropriate purposes for reading".

Roe, Smith & Burns (2005) stated that if one wants to understand the reading text completely, he must use the clues in the text for inferential understanding and creative and critical reading, which means figuring out literary terms, deciding the author's intention, evaluating the stated views and putting those views in real conditions.

People like to read more and more and teacher uses this opportunity to encourage learners to choose for themselves what they read and they are also encouraged to do the reading for pleasure and general language improvement which is called extensive reading (Harmer, 2008).

Richards and Renandya (2002) argue that in many second or foreign language teaching situations, reading receives a special focus. He believes that there are a number of reasons for this. First, many language foreign language students often consider reading as one of their most important goals. They want to be able to read for information and pleasure, for their career, and for study purposes. In fact, in most EFL situations, the ability to read in a foreign language is all the learners ever want to acquire. Second, written texts serve various pedagogical purposes. Extensive exposure to linguistically comprehensible written texts can enhance the purpose of language acquisition. Good reading texts also provide good models for writing and provide opportunities to introduce new topics, to stimulate discussion, and to study language. Reading, then, is a skill which is highly valued by students and teachers (p. 273).

Reading is vital for academic achievement and is an important and necessary skill for successful functioning as a competent adult in today's society (Human Resources and Social Development Canada, 2003). Reading is a way of communication. It is an interactive process of communication. It is also a means to comprehend the meaning the writer intends to convey. Reading plays crucial role in promoting learning and serving as an instrument by which students, could study subjects in the curriculum. Moreover, students' general educational achievement depends mainly on their ability to read (Wells, 2007). According to Jacobson (2007), reading consists of four core components: alphabetic, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension. Nevertheless, the aim of reading is comprehension whether the individuals read for pleasure or for going information.

As Shanker (2009) states, the term reading comprehension has several different definitions. While most experts agree that reading comprehension is the meaning gained from what is written on the page, they often disagree about the source of meaning.

According to John the Peregrine (2009), to extroverts an activity such as sitting alone for extended periods reading books seems like torture.

Certainly, plenty of extroverts read books, but it's mainly filler for odd moments when there's no one to talk to and usually titles from the bestseller list with potential as conversation material. Someone who likes to continuously talk reads the books that are being talked about.

An introvert generally pursues reading far more aggressively than the extrovert, sitting down for hours at a time, and will do so for the sheer pleasure of it. Certainly enjoyment is drawn from purely entertaining works of fiction, but what extroverts have difficulty understanding is the preponderance of less-accessible literature and non-fiction.

Personality is considered as one of the individual differences which is greatly agreed to have an influence on learning in general and second language acquisition (SLA) in particular. It should also be emphasized that people should not be regarded to be either extraverts or introverts because it is a continuum which specifies one's degree of outgoingness. Eysenck (1965, p.59) characterizes a representative extravert as: sociable, enjoys parties, has a lot of friends, and hates reading or studying by him. He desires excitement, takes opportunities...and is usually an impulsive individual. He is fond of useful jokes, always has a prepared answer...likes change...and becomes irritated fast. From another point of view, he clarifies a representative introvert as: peaceful, timid, introspective, and enthusiastic about books rather than people; he is reticent and reserved except to close friends. He enjoys planning ahead, "looks before he leaps", and mistrust the impulse of the moment.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

In many parts of the world reading knowledge of a foreign language is often very important to academic success, professional and personal development. This is particularly true of English as so much of professional, scientific and technical literature is published in English today. It is frequently

the case that the ability to read in English is required of students by their subject departments, often assessed by a test of reading comprehension. Reading ability is often all that is needed by learners of English. But, it is a common problem that most high school students fail to read adequately in the foreign language. Very commonly, high school students' reading comprehension seems at lower level and students read with less understanding than their teachers might expect them to have. Teachers, students themselves and parents tell that high school students' reading compression difficulty is a considerable problem. This study was emphasized on the factors (here extroversion and introversion) that affect the reading comprehension of high school students specifically grade nine. Grade nine students were targeted because of the following two reasons. The first reason is that grade nine is a level at which students join high school and take difficult subject matters which require their deep understanding, therefore, extra reading quality is required of them. The second reason is that, since it is the time that they start preparing themselves for tenth grade National exam. Therefore the purpose of this study was to investigate whether extroversion/introversion affect the reading comprehension of grade nine students or not.

1.2 Research Questions

With regard to the main intention of the present research the following questions were made:

1. Does the training based on personality type affect reading comprehension improvement?
2. Does the teaching reading based on introverted and extroverted learners affect learning of English reading comprehension in the students?
3. Do reading strategies increase the comprehension of English text in the students?

1.3 Research hypotheses

With regard to the main intention of the present research the following hypotheses was raised:

H1: The training based on personality type makes effect on the

The teaching based on introverted/extroverted learners increases the learning of English reading in the students.

H2: The teaching based on reading strategies increases the comprehensions of English text in the students.

Null hypothesis: The teaching based on introverted/extroverted learners doesn't increase the learning of English reading in the students.

2. Review of Related Literature

Reading comprehension is the process of meaning construction as a result of blending content and message of the text with the readers existing knowledge and skills during reader text interaction (Pardo, (2004). The aim of this study is to identify the relationship between personality types of intermediate EFL students and their learning styles. Personality can be defined in two different ways (a) a number of qualities characterizing an individual, or as (b) the subjacent system that brought on the set of attributes (Boyle, Mathews, & Saklofske, 2008). The total population of the study is composed of 60 EFL students from a high school in Mazandaran province, Iran. The source of the relationship between personality and learning styles is based on the Theory of Personality Types Carl Jung (1927) (Ekici, 2013). Personality typing is a tool with many uses. It's especially notable for its helpfulness in the areas of growth and self-development. Learning and applying the theories of personality type can be a powerful and rewarding experience, if it is used as a tool for discovery, rather than as a method for putting people into boxes, or as an excuse for behavior. Personality is defined as an inborn temperament and features arising in different situations and a combination of the characteristics of a person which separate him/her from other people. According to another definition, personality is the unique features of every human being; exhibition of characteristic adaptations; unique identifications towards life and a set of cultural differences (McAdams & Pals, 2006).

2.1 Extroversion/Introversion

The notion of extroversion/ introversion stems from trait theories of personality developed in psychology. Trait theorists try to identify this in a human being's personality that is relatively stable, and it is believed, at least partly innate. The majority of studies on the personality research in SLA have looked at the relationship between the extroversion-introversion dimension of personality and

different linguistic variables. Extroversion and Introversion are used to gauge two styles. Of course, everyone is extroverted or introverted in some degree, but not in the same degree. Extrovert characters tend to be gregarious, while the introverted tend to be private.

The activity of the extrovert is seen as directed towards the external world and that of the introvert inward upon himself or herself. Extroverts are sociable, like parties, have many friends and need excitement in everything they do; they are sensation-seekers and are lively and active. Extroverts are easily distracted from studying, partly as a result of their gregariousness and partly because of their weak ability to concentrate for long periods. On the other hand, introverts are quiet, prefer reading rather than meeting people and talking to others, have few but close friends and usually avoid excitement (Eysenck & Chan, 1982). In other words, extroverts are motivated from *without* and their attention is directed outward. They are people who appear relaxed, confident, and have trouble understanding life until they have lived it. When they are feeling bad, low in energy, or stressed, they are likely to look outside themselves for relief. They get energized from the outside world, and they look for meaning outside of themselves. Introverts, on the other hand, are motivated from *within* and they are oriented towards the inner realm of ideas, imagery, and reflection. They get their energy from within rather than from the outside world. An introvert values quiet time alone for thinking while an extrovert wants time with others for action. Introverts believe that they cannot live life until they have understood it. They are seen as reserved, quiet, shy, aloof, and distant. When an introvert is tired, stressed or feels bad he is likely to withdraw to a quiet place and engage in reflective activity that only involves herself/himself. Introverts look to the inner world for energy and meaning.

Reading, whether in first language (L1) or second/foreign language (L2), has drawn a considerable degree of pro and con debates among experts over its interpretation during the past forty years. It has been conceptualized and defined in numerous ways; however, the areas of commonality outweigh the differences. In the meantime, so much attention has also been directed toward comprehension in reading now and in years past. There is a general consensus of opinions concerning the definition that views reading comprehension as the process of unlocking meaning from connected text. However, the probing of the relevant literature encourages one to infer that less attention has been devoted in empirical investigations carried out to date on poor comprehension of EFL learners. In this connection, this writing thrived to re-raise the issue of L2 poor comprehension. Overall, the present paper explored the notion that the reason why some EFL readers excel and others struggle lies in what they themselves do the strategies that they bring to L2 reading. Lightbown and Spada (2006) state that many classroom teachers believe that in second or foreign language learning, extraverts are more successful than introverts, particularly in their communicative ability. Ehrman and Oxford (1990) found an important relationship between EXT/INT and learner strategies of 20 adults learning Turkish as a foreign language. They found that extraverts preferred social strategies such as asking for clarification, and functional practice strategies such as seeking practice opportunities outside of class while introverts preferred to learn alone and avoid social contacts and spontaneous situations. Yadegari (2007) observed that in written communication, extravert EFL learners used interactional strategies and a sub-type of linguistic strategies i.e. transliteration more frequently than introvert ones whereas introvert EFL learners used conceptual strategies more than extravert ones. In another recent study, Gan (2008) investigated the impact of extraversion on pronunciation, communication strategies, vocabulary and language patterns of L2 learners in Hong Kong. The results of analyses indicated that communication strategies correlated with extraversion although this correlation did not reach the significance level. To him, extraverts seemed to employ communication strategies more than introverts.

There is no doubt that personality is one of the important factors which impact the second language acquisition, and it is a complicated aspect which is affected by different factors, such as ethnic background, culture, and environment, and so on. Although many researches, as mentioned before, have made a lot of endeavors to study this, it is not surprising that the results of so many experiments are unclear, and that any conclusions can only be viewed as tendencies, not absolutes. More new findings are expected to come up with further development in the personality research area, and to put them into teaching practice of second language in order to the rapid development of second language teaching.

2.2 Personality and Reading Comprehension

All those who are involved in the field of language teaching, whether they are working on reading or any other skills, have one purpose in mind and that is to ease the process of teaching for themselves and learning for learners. Therefore, teachers' knowledge in the last few years towards the importance of knowing more about learners' differences, characteristics, personality types, and psychological effects has been increased. Learner factors namely age, aptitude, attitude, motivation, personality, cognitive styles, and preferred learning strategies must be taken into consideration in any comprehensive theory at L2 acquisition (Hadley, 2003). Therefore, a person may have different personality type; however, regarding what type of personality type best suit them in that very case of learning, they decide to utilize the best one through modifying the most appropriate one. Hence, in order to facilitate learning through the use of certain strategies, more effective ones should be modified (Hedge, 2008).

Millot and Cranney (1976) in a study on relationship between personality type and learning style in reading comprehension found a significant link between personality types of introversion, intuition and perceiving and learning style. Brown (1973) poses that maybe a relationship could be found between extraversion and reading comprehension.

3. Methodology

3.1 Participants

To fulfill the objectives of this study, 120 male and female EFL learners with the age range of 17-19 studying in one of Chalous city's institution. These participants were selected through a proficiency test from 120 learners in the same institution. Therefore, the number of selected participants for the sake of study was 60 students. Because of the number of the participants, the treatments were conducted in two terms. The participants' selection procedures were also done at the beginning of each term meaning that the pretest was administered to 120 learners at the outset of the study through which 60 learners were chosen. Then, they underwent reading texts, 30 introverts and 30 extroverts, and the first phase of the treatment was commenced.

3.2 Design

As it was mentioned, the current study was concerned with the effects of pre-reading activities trend (approach). The design of this study was "pre-test post-test control group design" (Maftoon, 2003). Sixty EFL learners took part as the subjects in two groups of 30. Such a design has been illustrated in Table 3.1 as follow:

Table 3.1: The design of the study

Extroverts	G1	T1	Treatment
Introverts	G2	T1	

R=Random

G=Group

/

T1=Pre-test

3.3 Materials

To accomplish the objectives of this study, two tests (pre and posttests) and a questionnaire regarding personality type were administered. Moreover, certain materials were also used in the teaching procedure throughout the both terms. The first test as the pretest was used for homogenization process prior to the treatment. The second administration of the test was when the treatment was completed. Therefore, the posttest was used this time after the course. The questionnaire was to assess the personality traits of the participants. This hugely validates test consists of 57 Yes/No items. The scores given to those who fill out the questionnaire were: the E score computed out of 24 is related to how much extrovert a person is, the N score measuring the neuroticism is also out of 24, and the Lie score which tries to measure how socially desirable a person has wanted to prove to be is out of 9. The main texts used in this research included various reading texts suitable for intermediate learners. They were taught to the learners by resorting to various reading strategies. They consisted of 15 reading texts which will be taught during 15 sessions in one semester. The main content of these texts

was learning reading texts and the purpose is to learn and practice texts with various topics such as foods, communication, friendship etc. At the outset of the study a questionnaire about personality type consisting of 30 questions will be given to the participants. Forty passages were selected for each group and from among these passages four passages were selected for each class session. The content of the passages was the same for both groups. It should be mentioned that both groups were under the supervision of the same instructors. All the students involved in the study were made aware that they were taking part in a research study. The needed information was conveyed to both groups in advance.

3.4 Data Collection Procedures

This study involved the comparison of two separate groups, one (extroverted group) and one (introverted group). There were 30 subjects in each class group. What was the overriding importance, however, was teaching the same instructors for both groups. It should be pointed out both groups were equally divided into two groups via a pre-test according to the obtained scores (see table 1).

Both groups were under the instruction of the same teacher in the same institution for two sessions a week during the same educational year. The introverted group worked on the passages. They were expected to read the passage under the instruction of the teacher and answer the question following them. Moreover, the extroverted group was also given the same passages with the same assignments. To see the effectiveness of personality type after ten sessions on working this trend, a post-test was administered for both group in the format of multiple-choice items a merely a reading comprehension questions, the scores are shown in table 2. Having data collected, the researcher processed the data using the statistical package for social science (SPSS/PC).then to compare the results and to measure the difference the statistical procedure of the T-test measurement was used to determine the difference between the two groups. Since there were two groups in the study, the statistical design of the study was independent T-test.

3.5 Data Analysis Procedure

After grouping participants into introverted and extroverted groups, the scores of both groups on reading comprehension test were taken as the pre-test. The extroverted group worked on reading passages using their own strategies. In each session of instruction, the students resorted to their own reading strategy and devoted enough time to its learning and practice. The introverted group worked on reading strategies and were taught through the traditional methods of language teaching. To analyze the data obtained through the post-test, the T-test procedure was employed and the results reported. Independent sample t-test was run to compare the reading comprehension ability of control and experimental group on the post-test. A one-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was also used to compare the gain score of learners from different proficiency groups. A post-test was also administered to determine the relationship between proficiency level and effectiveness of reading strategy training (personality type).

4. Results

There is no difference in promoting reading comprehension level of learners between reading texts read by extroverted and introverted learners.

To answer the above questions 60 male EFL learners with the age range of 17-19 studying in an institution selected among 120 students were chosen to take part in a pre-test to be known as homogeneous. The same rooms were used for both groups during the instructional and testing period and while directions were given. This helped to control the extraneous variable due to environment. The same teacher provided the directions and no teaches administered any instruction in addition to the texts. Having administered the pre-test and post-test to the results obtained were collected and registered as follows (see table 4.1 and 4.2 for the results obtained on pre-test and post-test respectively, and figure 1 for the comparison of both group performance on pre-test and post-test. Each group participated in proficiency pre-test first. The first t-test calculation showed that the two groups were homogeneous. Later on; the two groups worked on reading passages distinctively. The first class group worked on passages as the introverted group. The other class group as the extroverted group worked on passages as well. Each of these approaches was worked on totally for five weeks: two sessions each. Those participating who were extroverted outperformed to their counterpart group.

According to table 4.4, for introverted group, the calculated mean and the standard deviation were respectively 44.33 and 11.43, and for extroverted group, they were respectively 70.00 and 13.84. The t -observe was 7.832

Table 4.1: Data for the proficiency Pre-test of the two groups

N	Extroverted Group (pre-test raw scores)	Introverted Group (pre-test raw scores)
1	70	74
2	90	68
3	69	85
4	84	83
5	76	75
6	75	90
7	73	72
8	91	69
9	85	89
10	64	64
11	63	63
12	62	61
13	59	85
14	52	51
15	50	50
16	50	49
17	48	46
18	42	42
19	39	40
20	35	36
21	34	32
22	23	24
23	15	15
24	13	64
25	11	14
26	64	85
27	84	83
28	75	69
29	70	68
30	85	15

Table 4.2: The results of the Post-test of the both groups

N	Group (Extroverted)	Group (introverted)
1	62	77
2	51	92
3	58	82
4	56	90
5	60	83
6	34	62
7	42	69
8	19	58
9	51	52
10	22	83
11	35	47
12	43	74
13	50	68
14	45	46
15	28	48
16	55	74
17	46	54
18	56	73
19	53	68
20	28	62
21	50	85
22	53	62
23	30	84
24	36	59
25	51	78
26	51	92
27	46	52
28	34	75
29	42	69
30	45	82

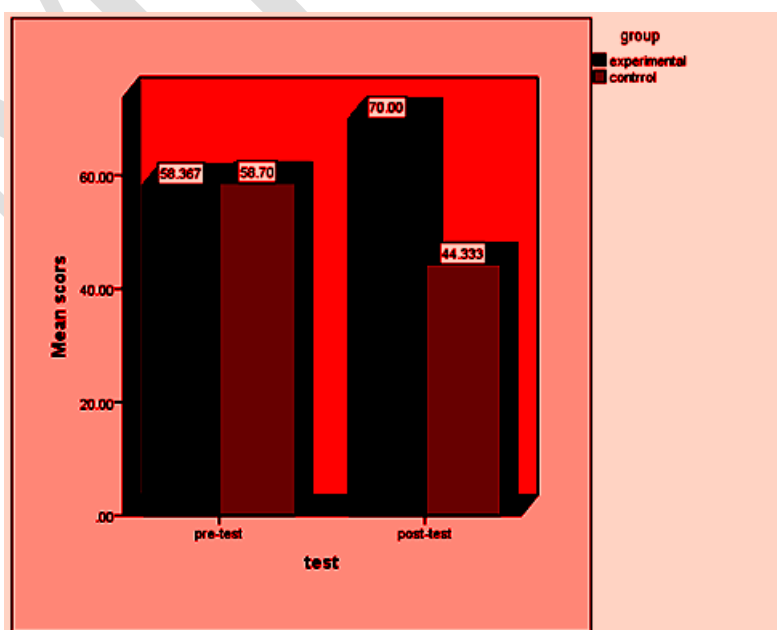


Figure 4.1: The mean scores of both groups in pre and posttest

Throughout the study two t-tests were administrated. According to Hatch and Farhady (1981) if the t -observed is higher than t -critical, our hypothesis is approved.

Table 4.3: Independent T-test for Both Groups' performance on the proficiency pretest

Groups	Mean	SD	N	Df	T obs.	T crit.
Group1(Experimental)	58.36	23.38	30	29	- .055	1.645
Group 2 (control)	58.70	23.16	30	29		
Total			60	58		

$P < 0.05$

As the above results indicate-observed is much smaller than the t -critical at the $p < 0.05$ level of significance. Based on these results, it can be concluded that the difference between two groups is not meaningful and both groups are nearly homogeneous (see figure 4.1).

Five weeks later, both groups were given a similar post-test. During testing administration, both groups favored the similar conditions.

Table 4.4: Independent T-test for Both Groups' performance on the post-test

Stems	Mean	SD	N	Df	t obs.	t crit.
G1(Experimental)	70.00	13.84	30	29	7.832	1.645
G2(control)	44.33	11.43	30	29		
Total			60	58		

$P < 0.05$

More specifically speaking, descriptive statistics including minimums, maximums, means, and then standard deviations of pre-test and post-test of all groups were computed. Results indicated that the mean score of introverted group which had been 58.70 in pre-test exam reached to 44.33 in post-test exam. It also indicated that the mean score of extroverted group which had been 58.36 in pre-test exam promoted to 70.00 in post-test exam.

Pre-test

As there were one dependent variable and one independent variable, a t -test was run; the results are shown in the Table 4.3. Table 4.3 indicates the observed t ($t_o = -.055$) is less than the critical t ($t_c = 1.645$) with df (58); therefore, the difference between the two groups has not been significant at the level ($p < 0.05$). This shows the groups' homogeneity at the beginning of the experiment.

Post-test

After there were one dependent variable and one independent variable, a t -test was run; the results are shown in Table 4.4.

Since the observed t ($t_o = 7.832$) is greater than the critical t ($t_c = 1.645$) with df (58), the difference between the two groups is significant at the level ($p < 0.05$). In other words, extroversion trait has been effective in developing participants' knowledge of reading comprehension. Thus, it indicates that students' knowledge of reading comprehension in extroverted group improved significantly. As Table 4.4 represents, the calculated mean and the standard deviation for introverted group were respectively 44.33 and 11.43, and for extroverted group, they were respectively 70.00 and 13.84. The means for both groups have been illustrated in Figure 4.1.

All in all, according to t -test principles if the calculated t -test exceeded the critical value (1.645) at the (0.05) level of probability for $d.f. = 58$, the null hypothesis might be rejected; otherwise, it might be contributed to other factors.

4.2 Discussion

As it was seen, results showed the positive effect of extroversion trait instruction on students' post-test was significant compared to control group. The results of Independent Samples t-test analysis showed that there was a significant difference between the two groups in terms of personality type ($p < 0.05$). By the comparison of mean scores of participants, the instructional method of personality type strategy appeared much more beneficial to extroverted group rather than to the introverted one. The posttest scores indicated that the personality type strategy has been positively gained by the extroverted group. The post-test scores of the extroverted group indicated that the group had better improvement compared to the introverted one. Descriptive statistics also showed that the mean scores of the extroverted group were greater than that of introverted group in each topic. Therefore, extroversion instruction had positive effects on enhancing in reading comprehension level.

EFL students mostly tend to experience considerable difficulty in understanding English texts. Not only do these texts most often contain unfamiliar vocabulary, but they also may contain unfamiliar concepts and cultural content that make comprehension difficult. Traditionally, attempts to enhance text comprehension for EFL students have focused on familiarizing the students with the vocabulary needed to comprehend the passage. Such instruction, however, is unlikely to raise students' interest in reading the text or to well prepare them for the conceptually and culturally novel elements of the text. The basic question in this study was whether or not personality types enhance EFL reading comprehension. The results are straightforward and make a strong argument in favor of considering personality type with Iranian EFL learners. Investigation of the differential potential of extroverted students' comprehension of the text indicated that EFL reading comprehension of Iranian EFL learners was more significantly facilitated when reading the texts. Activities of extroversion might also make reading more enjoyable and thus encourage more extensive reading, which would result in the building of background knowledge and lead to a better grasp of the English language. Extraversion is "the act, state, or habit of being predominantly concerned with and obtaining gratification from what is outside the self". Extraverts tend to enjoy human interactions and to be enthusiastic, talkative, assertive, and gregarious. Extraverts are energized and thrive off of being around other people. They take pleasure in activities that involve large social gatherings, such as parties, community activities, public demonstrations, and business or political groups. An extraverted person is likely to enjoy time spent with people and find less reward in time spent alone. They tend to be energized when around other people, and they are more prone to boredom when they are by themselves. This quality of being outgoing can be taken advantage of in situations such as at a workplace or social gathering. Teachers, politicians, salespersons and different types of management fields are all examples of work types that favor an individual who is considered to be an extravert. They have the ability to act naturally with people in a way that will make them much more successful than an introvert because these types of the requirements of the job. The t-test statistics was used to analyze the data collected. Table 4.3 indicates a significant difference between the performance of extroverted students and their counterparts who were not significant. A remarkable difference came about between the two groups at the post-test stage. The data revealed a significant difference between the performances of the two groups. This means that learning reading skills in English by extroverted enhances a better understanding of the skills taught. After comparing the two mean scores through t-test calculations, the null hypothesis was justifiably rejected. The results are further showed with the use of a histogram as shown in figure 4.1 in result part. In other words, it shows the degree of performance of the two groups. As illustrated, extroverted group demonstrated a more-superior understanding than the counterpart group. The use of extroversion strategies to teach reading comprehension also enhanced their more attention to reading. The two groups scored differently on the post-test, and difference was statistically significant. The researcher's interpretation was that extroversion activities trend has been proved to be effective and has desirable impact on promoting reading comprehension. The two groups were not significantly different at the outset of the study; they behaved differently on the final test therefore, it seems justifying to hold the idea that extroversion activities have served the intended purpose. The researcher is satisfied to claim that the final calculated t-test (7.832) at the $p < 0.05$ level of probability is due to independent variable (extroversion activities). That is, the extroverted group outperformed those in the introverted group. Therefore, in line with the above mentioned statements and the present study, it could be strongly argued that extroversion activities strategy instruction can significantly influence EFL language learners' developing reading proficiency.

4.3 Summary and Conclusion

Alptekin (2006, p. 494) defined reading: "as an interaction of the reader's text-based and knowledge-based processes. In processing texts, readers combine literal comprehension, based on lower-level cognitive processes of reading such as lexical access and syntactic parsing, with inferential comprehension, based on higher-level cognitive processes such as the text base of comprehension (to understand what the text says) and the situation model of interpretation (to understand what it is about)". The goal of the current investigation was to determine if personality activities affected the comprehension of Iranian EFL learners. The impact of personality type on improving reading comprehension is indisputable. This study described the participant, setting, instruments, and materials. It contained the research design, procedures to conduct the testing, description of the treatment, and outline of the data collected. The implementation of measures to support social validity, internal validity, and external validity were described. The test results, treatment data, and observations of using the personality type were provided in this study. Quantitative data collected before, during, and after treatment show that this trend was useful and significant improvement learners' reading improvement was recorded during the treatment period. The outcome of the present study, thus, has validated the research hypothesis by demonstrating that there were significant differences between the two groups. Participants in the extroverted group improved their reading comprehension skills and outperformed those in the introverted group. These positive results could be because enjoying extroversion strategy. It could be argued that the pedagogical practice of personality strategy promoted their reading skill and focused learners' attention on the understanding of the texts. As a matter of fact, this study was an attempt to investigate whether extroversion strategy task instruction had any impact on reading proficiency of Iranian EFL learners. It also sought to find out whether personality tasks strategy instruction had any significant effect on improving reading comprehension by Iranian high school students studying English as a foreign language. In doing so, two groups were selected to work on the passages. The quantitative data show that extroverted group has made big and significant progress after they received extroversion strategy training. Moreover, explicitly describing and discussing personality type strategies in the classroom can have a direct effect on students' outcomes. The use of learning strategies is more enduring when students are informed of the significance of the strategies and given reasons for their potential effectiveness. The purpose of the current study was to examine the effects of personality type activities on Iranian high school language learners' reading skills. Findings from this study indicated that resorting to pre-reading activities in a classroom had significant effect on the students' reading skills. Prior to the treatment, the independent-sample t-test was administered to find out any significant difference in pre-test mean scores between students in both groups. The findings revealed that both groups were nearly equal ($p > 0.05$) in their performances at the beginning of the course. After the treatment, the independent sample t-test was done to find out any significant difference in reading post-test mean scores between students in both groups. The findings indicated that students in extroverted group showed significant ($p < 0.05$) improvement in their reading compared with the students in introverted group. This study came to a conclusion that extroversion activities can contribute to the improvement of the students' reading skills. The findings of this study will be highly invaluable for teacher, material developers and instructors to consider the usefulness of extroversion activities, and invest more in designing and applying such materials. However, the present thesis focused on working extroversion activities task treatment which can be useful effective in boosting Iranian learners' comprehension level. It was supposed that extroversion strategies would reinforce and measure the learners' comprehension level of learners more effectively than introversion tasks. Likewise, it seems that extroversion tasks are more powerful in testing students reading comprehension. As findings show, it can be cogently argued that they are far better than introversion activities. Since working on those tasks activates the learners mind, make them prepared and familiar him with the reading contents. More clearly speaking, the results showed that there was a significant difference between the scores of the participants on traditional approach and their scores on the other approach. There was a positive impact of the method on students' vocabulary components of reading. That is, extroversion tasks strategy instruction can significantly influence EFL learners' reading proficiency. The results of Independent Samples *t*-test analysis showed that there was a significant difference between the mean score of extroverted group and mean score of introverted group. The

descriptive statistics also showed that the mean scores of the extroverted group were greater than that of introverted group.

4.4 Limitations of the Study

The research was conducted only in a high school. Therefore, the generalizability of the results is also limited by the small scale of the study. Other variables such as the cultural and educational background of the learners can affect the findings of this study. Further research is recommended to validate the findings of the current study. Totally speaking, similar to other studies, certainly there were particular limitations in the present study. Firstly, the subjects participating in this research were only 60 male EFL university learners. For the intention of more powerful results, more participants could have been selected. Secondly, the subjects were only male learning. In order to come up with better results, inclusion of female learners is also recommended. Moreover, the participants were selected from the same school and under. To gain more generalizability, heterogeneous learners could have been involved. Also, only two classes in one participated in the study, therefore the result should be used cautiously due to possible internal validity problems.

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LEARNING IN HIGHER EDUCATION; MISCELLANEOUS APPROACHES

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ABSTRACT

The concept of approaches to learning (deep, surface and strategic) has been influential in higher education research, policy and practice, particularly, in the world's leading universities. In this review, published international research investigating the relationship between approaches to learning and educational outcomes in higher education is evaluated. There is evidence that deep approaches to learning are associated with a deep understanding of educational material but not conclusively high academic achievement (as measured by assessment results). This may be because the assessment methods adopted by higher education institutions do not always reward deep learning. It is recommended that higher educational institutions in Asia aim to encourage students to develop a deep approach to learning, leading to a deep understanding of subject matter. This can be achieved through the incorporation of well organised curricula and assessment methods that reward deep understanding, such as, essay writing, problem based learning, reflective learning and research projects.

Keywords: Approaches to Learning, Assessment, Educational Outcomes, Higher Education.

Introduction

The concept of approaches to learning (deep and surface) originated from a study carried out by researchers Marton and Saljo at the University of Gothenburg, Sweden in the 1970s (Marton and Saljo 1976a). The fundamental aim of their research was to investigate differences in learning processes amongst students in higher education. Marton and Saljo used a phenomenography approach; a research method that involves obtaining descriptions of peoples experiences and performing qualitative analysis to categorise and examine relationships between them (Marton and Saljo, 2005). In their study, volunteer higher education students were recruited and provided with reading material which they were instructed to learn before being given questions to answer on the content. The students' answers to the questions helped the researchers ascertain the students' depth of understanding of the reading material. Furthermore, the students were asked questions about the process of their learning. The researchers compared the students' responses about their learning process with their level of understanding of the reading material and found that there was a relationship between them. Based on their work, Marton and Saljo were able to describe two approaches to learning which they called surface level processing and deep level processing. In surface-level processing, the students had the intention of memorising the text itself and not necessarily understanding it, they were described as adopting a rote learning strategy. Students who engaged in deep level processing had the intention of trying to really understand the line of reasoning and arguments made by the author, they engaged with the text in an active and reflective way. Through understanding these students were able to remember the contents of the text. Surface level processing was found to be associated with a low level of understanding and hence a poor learning outcome whilst deep level processing was associated with a deep level of understanding and consequently a good learning outcome.

Noel Entwistle the director of a research programme investigating learning processes considered the term 'levels of processing' too constricting in relation to learning differences and favoured the term

'approaches to learning'. Approaches to learning; deep approach and surface approach have since become widely accepted terms in the educational psychology literature (Marton and Saljo, 2005).

Entwistle (1987) described a third learning approach called the strategic approach in which the student's intention is to obtain the highest possible grade (Entwistle, 1987). Students who adopt this approach are likely to predict exam questions using previous exam papers; pay attention to clues about marking schemes and assessment questions and organise their time and intellectual resources effectively. Students who take a strategic approach to their learning may move between a deep and surface approach depending on their perception of what is required of them in the assessment (Diseth and Martinsen, 2003).

It has been reported that the approach a learner takes to their learning is not fixed but may depend on the context of the learning, motivation and cognitive style of the learner (Marton and Saljo 1976b; Fransson, 1977; van Rossum and Schenk, 1984; Dahlgren, 2005).

The 'approaches to learning' theories have been highly influential in higher education research, policy and practice in world class universities. In this review, international research investigating the association between approaches to learning and educational outcomes in higher education are explored with the aim of making recommendations for educational policy and teaching practices in Asian Universities.

Educational outcomes

Learning in higher education can be described as a multi-factorial and complex phenomenon. Just as there are a wide variety of subjects to learn about there are also a wide variety of factors that influence educational outcomes (Dahlgren, 2005). Educational outcomes in higher education could refer to the level of understanding of a subject, conceptual changes that occur as a result of learning, cognitive adaptation (assimilation and accommodation of schemata), acquisition of subject specific knowledge and terminology, problem solving and critical thinking ability, as well as examination results and in a wider context competence in future employment.

Structure of Observed Learning Outcomes (SOLO) taxonomy is also applicable to the examination of educational outcomes in higher education (Biggs and Collis, 1982). SOLO taxonomy provides a 5 level structural model of the outcomes of learning and how they develop in intricacy from surface level understanding to deep level understanding (Watkins, 1983; Krathwohl 2002; Svensson, 1977).

Do learning approaches explain educational outcomes?

The work of Marton and Saljo (1976, described in 2005) provides evidence that surface approaches to learning result in the acquisition of a superficial level of knowledge that lacks depth of understanding whilst the deep approach to learning results in profound understanding of educational content. Their work provides a valid insight into the relationship between approaches to learning and learning outcomes, however, relating their findings to the real life multi-factorial nature of higher education learning practices and outcomes may be complex. Their study lacked the real life examination pressures and academic consequences of failure faced by many students, were based on a relatively small volume of learning material in comparison to what a student may have to learn on a higher education course and were carried out within one subject discipline and within one cultural context.

With an awareness of the aforementioned criticisms Watkins (1983) carried out a study investigating relationships between learning processes and learning outcomes by analysing the actual work that students were doing across three different university faculties. SOLO taxonomy was used to assess the quality of the learning outcome. The results of the study provided evidence to support the hypothesis that depth of processing is related positively to the quality of the learning outcome. Svensson (1977) reported findings that were in accordance with Marton and Saljo (1976a) but used different terminology; holistic and atomistic approaches as opposed to deep and surface approaches to learning respectively. In an American study by Schmeck and Grove (1979) it was shown that deep processing correlated with higher academic achievement in terms of grade point average (GPA). On the other hand, a study by Diseth and Martinsen (2003) exploring the association between learning approaches and academic achievement in undergraduate psychology students reported that a deep approach to learning was not associated with higher academic achievement. The authors related this to the nature of the curriculum and assessments because exploration of learning materials beyond the course work was not rewarded. Also, Newble and Hejka (1991) found a poor correlation between deep approaches to learning and superior academic performance amongst medical students. The

authors felt that an overloaded curriculum and assessment methods that require remembering large amounts of factual information were encouraging and rewarding students who adopted strategic or surface approaches to their learning.

In more recent times, a study by Ward (2011a) showed that medical students who took a strategic approach to their studies were more likely to perform highly in terms of their collective grades at the end of their first and second years and performance on a medical licensing examination. Deep approaches were associated with adequate performance and surface approaches with inadequate performance on the same outcomes. In another study by Ward (2011b) it was reported that mean grades of first year medical students on a gross anatomy course who took a strategic approach were significantly higher than those who took a surface approach to their learning. Mansouri et al, (2006) reported that Nursing and Midwifery students who adopted a deep or strategic approach to learning exhibited higher grade point averages compared to students who adopted a surface approach. Ryan et al (2004) reported that grades were associated positively with both the deep and strategic approaches but negatively with surface approaches for veterinary medicine students in their pre-clinical years.

The views of educational researchers

Haggis (2003) provides several criticisms of the widely accepted approaches to learning theories that have greatly influenced higher education policy, funding priorities and curriculum. Haggis feels that there is a lack of critique of the approaches to learning theories and their extensive use in higher education. She describes the theories as being an over generalisation and too narrow to fully encompass the complexity of learning practices and the diversity of student circumstances in higher education. A major criticism that Haggis makes is that the approaches to learning theories may not reflect the goals and aims of many students but reflect the class based values of academics. She is concerned that students may not be able to engage with their learning material in the way that higher education institutions would like because they do not understand the aims as conveyed through teaching and assessment or because they are coming from a different cultural perspective or are juggling work or parental responsibilities.

In response to Haggis's critique Marshall and Case (2005) state that academic goals associated with a deep approach such as intellectual curiosity and personal and meaningful relation with a subject are essential to higher education and while some student's may find them hard to attain they should certainly be strived for.

Conclusions

The research literature supports the theory that deep approaches to learning leads to a deep understanding of academic material (Marton and Saljo, 1976a; Marton and Saljo 1976b; Biggs 1979; Watkins 1983). Based on this evidence higher education should be aiming to encourage academic practices that are in line with the deep approach to learning. Higher education courses are preparing many students for the work place i.e. training them for vocations associated with their chosen subject. A student who has completed a Bachelor of Science degree, for example, may work as a research scientist. The work of a research scientist requires a deep understanding of their topic of research to enable identification of gaps in the literature, critical thinking about contradictory findings, experimental design, analyses of results, problem solving and reflection on practices. Students should therefore be equipped with the skills associated with a deep approach to learning to enable them to be successful in their chosen profession. This view is supported by the work of Newble, Hejka and Whelan, (1990) which showed that specialist physicians take a deep approach to their learning. Haggis (2003) suggests that the deep approach simply reflects the values of academics; however, it should be considered that the deep approach is a requirement of many professions and should therefore be valued and strived for in higher education.

In relation to exam performance, the findings described above suggest that taking a strategic approach to learning, as opposed to a deep or surface approach, is associated with higher exam success. This may not be the optimal scenario for higher education institutions as while students who take the strategic approach perform well on exams, parts of their understanding may be deficient. The research findings on the relationship between deep and surface approaches to learning and exam success are controversial and this is likely to be related to differences in curriculum and assessment methods across disciplines and universities.

Understanding is a complex phenomenon that has been described as being internal and not fully observable; through assessment lecturers are able to gather evidence that a student probably understands (Potter and Kustra, 2012; Entwistle and Nisbet, 2013). If higher institutions aspire to deep understanding and the academic qualities associated with the deep approach then they should aim to encourage and reward such qualities in their curriculum, teaching methods and assessments. Studies have shown that problem based learning; research projects, reflective learning, essay writing and the creation of learning outcomes and aligned assessments are associated positively with a deep approach and deep understanding whilst lecture based learning, heavy workloads, objective tests and assessments that require the recall of large amounts of factual information promote the more undesirable surface approaches to learning (Newble and Hejka, 1991; Scouller, 1998; Leung and Kember, 2003; Ryan et al, 2004; Craddock and Mathias, 2009; Ward, 2011b; Potter and Kustra, 2012; Grant and Kinnersley, 2012).

One must consider however that other external factors beyond the context of the learning such as motivation or personal circumstances may influence the learning approach adopted and that changing the learning approach of a student may not be straightforward as demonstrated in the work of Marton and Saljo (1976b).

Infrastructural problems in some countries, underfunded higher education systems and institutional cultures may induce unfavourable teaching practices that do not encourage deep approaches to learning. It is also important to consider that school leavers and mature students starting higher education for the first time may not initially have the meta-cognitive skills and learning strategies to engage with the learning material in a deep way; teaching strategies that promote a deep approach to learning may have to be introduced gradually into the curriculum and some students may benefit from study skills counselling (Watkins and Hattie, 1981; Haggis, 2003). Organisational self-learning strategies such as selecting the main ideas from the text and sketching a map of the most important ideas, as well as, e-learning systems such as PeerWise that allow students to author their own multiple choice questions and associated explanations, are associated with a deeper understanding of educational material (Pintrich, 1999; Bates et al, 2011).

Other factors, such as, IQ, personality, socioeconomic status/social factors, disorganised study habits and learning pathologies are likely to influence educational outcomes in higher education to varying degrees (Watkins and Hattie, 1981; Newble and Hejka, 1991; Walpole, 2003; Matthews et al, 2005; Deary and Johnson, 2010).

The evidence described above suggests that approaches to learning do impact upon educational outcomes and the approaches to learning concepts should therefore be influential in higher education teaching and practice in Asia and by extension universities worldwide, however higher education institutions should also consider the multi-factorial nature of learning and the diversity of its students. Critiques of the approaches to learning theories should be welcomed and research should continue, in particular, to identify optimal ways of promoting deep approaches to learning in higher education and to understand their relevance in different cultural contexts.

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MJLTM

The EFFECTS OF PERSONALITY TYPE ON TRANSLATION QUALITY BASED ON THE FIVE FACTOR MODEL

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ABSTRACT

The present study aimed at investigating the relationship between students' personality types and the quality of their English-into-Persian translations. These personality types included neuroticism, extraversion, openness, agreeableness, and conscientiousness. First, forty-one M.A students of translation, both males and females were sampled according to their availability. To obtain some information about the participants' translation skills, the researcher administered a Translation Notions Instrument as a background test (Orozco and Albir's method). Next, the participants were given an English text for the task of translation. Finally, they were administered a NEO-FFI test in order to find out more about the personality of each participant. To analyze the data, multiple regression procedure was employed. The results of the study revealed no statistically significant relationships among the students' personality types on the one hand, and their English-Persian translation quality on the other.

Key Words: translation quality assessment, personality type, big five factor, neo-ffi.

1. Introduction

Throughout the history, many other disciplines have had significant influences on the field of Translation Studies (TS) (Floros, 2005). Although many scholars around the world account for TS as an independent field of study, some of them believe that this newly developed field must still be regarded as an inter-disciplinary one (Chesterman, 2005). In this regard, several other scientific fields have entered TS. Linguistics, psychology, teaching, etc. are some examples. Accordingly, as Munday (2008) believes, within all these fields, psychology and cognitive studies are among those which play a pioneer role within studies related to the act of translation. This might be due to the fact that the process of translation requires a high deal of psycholinguistic issues (Hoey & Houghton, 1997). The relation between TS on the one hand and psychology on the other has become more significant in recent years (Hubscher-Davidson, 2009). As Hubscher-Davidson (2007) believes, translation and psychology have become interrelated and interdependent.

During the short history of TS, in which, translation was studied as a systematic discipline, there have been many studies carried out around the world with the aim of exploring different aspects of translation. Comparative studies, for example, try to compare a source and a target text. The main aim of these studies is then reviewing the product of translation (Holmes, 1988). Likewise, many scholars and researchers have concerned themselves with the process of translation. The first empirical studies in to translation process focused on the cognitive perspective, including "Think Aloud Protocols" (TAP) in translation. That is identification of translation difficulties and strategies to solve those problems and also decision-making. The main idea of these studies has been figuring out what steps are taken during the process of rendering a text (Holmes, 1988).

Consequently, the works which try to review translation and translating based on psychological models and frameworks are classified under process studies. Concerning the field of psychology, there are many frameworks to choose from. A researcher might be interested in finding out the relationship between the ideology of a translator on the one hand, and his way of choosing

different translation strategies on the other (Van Dijk, 1996). Others might be interested in finding out the relationship between personality of a translator and the quality of a translated text done by that individual. Accordingly, the present study aimed at investigating the possible relationship between a psychological trait (i.e., personality) on the one hand, the quality of translation on the other.

1.1. Statement of the Problem

Personality is a dynamic and organized set of characteristics possessed by a person that uniquely influences his or her cognitions, motivations and behaviors in various situations (Ryckman, 2007). It influences how a person interacts with his or her environment. Individuals can be classified according to their personality type. In psychology, the big five personality traits model was proposed by Costa and McCrae (1992, as cited by Carducci, 2009). These are five dimensions of personality which tend to describe human personality. The theory is called the Five Factor Model (FFM). The Big Five Factors include the following segments:

- 1) Openness (inventive/curious vs. consistent/cautious): people with this trait are creative, emotional, adventurous, curious and seek novelty and variety.
- 2) Conscientiousness (efficient/ organized vs. easy going/ careless): people with this trait are planned, organized, self-disciplined, dependable and dutiful people.
- 3) Extraversion (outgoing / energetic vs. Solitary/ reserved): people with this personality type are sociable, talkative, and enjoy being in a group.
- 4) Agreeableness (friendly /compassionate vs. cold/unkind): These people are compassionate, kind and cooperative toward others.
- 5) Neuroticism (sensitive/nervous vs. secure / confident): people with this trait have instable emotions such as anger, depression, anxiety and moody.

Many researchers have designed a personality test to investigate the possible relationship between translator's personalities on the one hand, and another skill on the other, such as the quality of a translation. Investigating translators' personality traits is helpful because in this way, the translators could understand their strengths and weaknesses. The Big Five model has been validated experimentally (McCrae & Costa, 1987) and has become the dominant approach to modeling personality in psychology (De Road and Perugini, 2002 as cited by Li and Chingnel, 2010). Therefore, the present study aimed at determining whether the translators' personality traits could affect the quality of their translations or not.

1.2. Significance of the Study

As a brief look into the related literature shows, there are many factors influencing the quality of a translation with regards to the target text purpose. The current research aimed at investigating whether a translator's personality type would be among one of these influential factors or not. According to House (1997), the quality of translation depends largely on translator's subjective interpretation and transfer decisions which are based on his linguistic and cultural knowledge. These also include the personality of a translator. Likewise, Birbili (2000) believes that the linguistic competence of the translators, the translator's knowledge of the culture of the people under study, the autobiography of those involved in the translation and the circumstances in which the translation takes place are among the factors which affect the quality of translation in social research. Therefore, investigating the effect of personality on the quality of a translation could be significant enough to be carried out. Additionally, the importance of this paper is to examine the negative and positive impacts of translator's personality traits on their performance which lead to a better quality of translation.

1.3. Objectives of the study

The main purpose of the current research was the investigation of the role of personality traits in translation quality. In other words, the researcher intended to examine whether different people with different personality traits, would translate differently and whether these traits would affect their translations or not.

Another aim of the current study was to indicate that some basic knowledge of psychological and personality traits could possibly help translators improve their translations. To achieve this purpose the analyses were conducted by applying NEO-FFI inventory to the groups of university students and Multiple Regression Test was performed for analysis.

Meanwhile, in this study, the researcher aimed at demonstrating that translators should be aware of some general knowledge of translation in order to understand their strengths and weaknesses to overcome their deficiencies while translating texts. For this purpose, a background questionnaire was administered to the participants of the study and their responds were extracted from the questionnaires.

1.4. Research Questions

The researcher posed the following research questions:

- 1) Is there any statistically significant relationship between translators' personality traits and the quality of their translation?
- 2) Among various translators' personality traits, which one is predictive of their success in translation?

1.5. Research Hypotheses

Similarly, the following research null hypotheses were formulated:

- 1) There is no relationship between translator's personality traits and the quality of translation.
- 2) None of the personality traits are predictive of translators' success in translation.

2. Review of the Related Literature

2.1. Theoretical Considerations

2.1.1. The Concept of Personality

Personality has often been accounted for as an influencing factor in translation. In his well-known publication, Toury (1995) mentioned some factors which are necessary in translation. These included personality, context, and environmental circumstances. Toury (1995) also emphasized the role of 'positive-negative' feedback on a translator's behavior. He argued that the translator starts to respond to the feedback and immediately creates his/her translation according to this feedback. At this level an internal control mechanism develops inside the translator.

There is still no clear and satisfactory definition as to what the term 'personality' refers to. Although it is not easy to define personality, this term has been defined differently. Kline (1993) defined personality as an individual's trait determining all behavior. To put it simply, personality refers to the complex of all the attributes, behavioral, temperamental, emotional and mental, that characterizes a certain individual.

There are several psychologists who offered 'trait theories' to describe the nature of personality differences and their classifications, as well as their influences on different tasks. For instance, Cattell (1946) offered a model with sixteen traits. Eysenck (1947) also presented a model, which in turn, had three traits. Myers et al. (1988) developed a model called 'The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator' (MBTI) for assessing the types of personality.

One of the most popular models investigating personality traits is that of Costa and McCrae (1997). Likewise, Jung (1971) made his own way of looking at personality via 'personality types' based on individuals' preferences for functioning in both the personal and professional areas of everyday life.

Based on Hubscher-Davidson (2007), Barboni (1999) & Reiss (2000) are the researchers who tried to study translator's personality within a psychological framework. But none of them presented experimental evidence to support their claims. Barboni (1999) presented psychoanalysis methods in translation. It means that she worked on translator behaviors. She stated that many factors such as psychoanalysis, unconscious, and etc intervene in translation processes. According to Barboni (1999) if a translator meets a specific situation, for example a nervous situation, it affects on his/her translating. In this situation, a translator uses some defense mechanisms to protect her/himself. Reiss (2000) classified the translator's personality on the basis of Spranger's typology. According to Munday (2008), Reiss categorized texts into four types of 1) informative, 2) expressive, 3) operative, and 4) audiomedial texts. Among these text types, expressive texts need creativity or a "Creative Composition". She asserted that, this text type deals with aesthetic and artistic dimension of language that should be transmitted to the target text (TT).

One of the closest notions related to personality is the process of decision-making. In fact, there is general consensus among translation researchers, educators, and practitioners that decision making process also plays a significant role in translator's performance and the quality of the translations made (Darwish, 1999).

2.2. Empirical Backgrounds

2.2.1. Personality and language-related Fields

As Hubscher-Davidson (2007, p. 52) believes, "research on personality in translation is influenced by research on personality in other disciplines". Unlike a few scholars conducting research in the realm of Translation Studies (TS) from the perspective of personality, there is an extensive body of research done on the relationship between personality type and the students' performance in various fields of study. This section tends to provide a brief overview on these works.

Kiani (1997) carried out a piece of research to realize the effect of personality on the students' language learning. The basis of his research was on the psychologists and applied linguists' assumptions. The former believed that the extraverts are not good at language learning due to having a limited long-term memory. In contrast, the latter indicated that extraverts are suitable candidates since they are able to elicit more input and to produce more output. Having compared the PhD students' TOEFL, IELTS scores and their GPAs, the researcher asserted that negative relation emerged between the students' personality traits namely extraversion and their TOEFL and IELTS scores. Further, no significant relationship was found between this trait and the participants' GPAs.

Sumari, Ping & Mohammad (2009) conducted a research program to examine the psychological type differences among the counseling students. The researchers tended to figure out whether the students' choice of counseling orientation differed from one another regarding their personality or not. A total of 202 directive and non-directive counseling students participated in this study. The instrument of measuring their personality traits was Millon Index of Personality Styles (MIPS). The outcome of the study revealed that there were no significant differences among trainee counselors in terms of personality types.

One of the personality factors that may influence the students' language achievement is the locus of control referring to a person's belief about what causes the good or bad results in his/her life. In this regard, Bozorgi (2009) intended to figure out whether locus of control would affect the processes of language learning of the students majoring in translation, literature and TEFL. Having compared the grade point average (GPA) of the students over two terms, statistically, the researcher declared that locus of control did not have any impact on the students' performance rather it was their language proficiency which was the most important factor.

2.2.2. Personality and Translation Studies

As opposed to various studies done in other fields of study, some of which were reported in this chapter, few studies have been done on the relationship among translation quality and personality type. Among a number of scholars in the realm of Translation Studies, as Hubscher-Davidson (2009) declared, it is Reiss who is considered as the forerunner in the analysis of translators' personalities. In order to understand and measure translators' personality traits, she adopted the concept of characterology whose aim is to distinguish various types of human characters. On the basis of Spranger's typology representing six forms of personalities as the theoretical, economic, aesthetic, social, aggressive and religious, Reiss (2000, as cited in Daisy, 2009) asserted that the theoretical type would be good in translating technical and philosophical texts. On the contrary, such a person would feel frustrated in translating creative and literary works like poetry because his/her theoretical character prevents him/her to produce artistic works. She (as cited in Hubscher-Davidson, 2007) considered the aggressive type as a person who is not capable of being a translator. In contrast, she described the aesthetic type as the best translator. Generally, the valuable studies of Reiss (2000) shed new light on the interrelationship among translation, behavioral analysis and psychology.

Sheikhzade (2008) explored that whether or not personality traits have any significant effect on translation quality. In this study the researcher considered the personality traits on Extraversion/Introversion scale. For this end, 187 senior undergraduate translation trainees, male and female, were selected as participants. She used Jung model in order to evaluate the students' personality traits. Moreover, for evaluation of translation quality, the researcher applied Farahzad (1992) and Waddington's (2001) method. The results indicated that there was no significant difference between the translation quality of two groups of translators who were extrovert and introvert.

Karimnian and Mahjubi (2013) targeted at investigating the relationship among translation students' personality types on the one hand, and the quality of their English-to-Persian translations on the other. This study was conducted with respect to different text types. To this aim, 35 undergraduate

senior students of translation were randomly sampled. To obtain some demographic information about the participants, the researchers used a background questionnaire. The participants were given three different text types for the translation task. An advertisement, a scientific text and a narrative text were chosen to serve Reiss' text typology (1971) including operative, informative and expressive texts, respectively. The students were also provided with retrospective questionnaires to shed light on their performance in the act of translating. Subsequently, once the participants' personality types were determined via the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) anchored in Jung's psychological theory, their dominant mental functions involving intuition, sensation, feeling and thinking were identified. To analyze the data, the One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) procedure and post-hoc analysis were employed. The results of the study indicated that the only dichotomy showing a significant difference was that of intuition versus sensation. Simply put, the intuitors outperformed their sensor counterparts in the translation of the expressive text.

Another study carried out by Pourgharib and Dehbandi (2013). In this study the researchers distinguished the extent to which translator's personality affected translation quality of narrative texts. To reach this goal, 60 BA senior students were selected. Two texts were employed for a translation task from English to Persian. The researchers used Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) for assessing the types of personality. The data analysis revealed that translator's personality had no impact on translation quality and there are no concerns for the managers of organizations to be sensitive for the effect of translator's personality on its translation.

Literary translation recreates the writer's intention, belief, point of view and experience as an aesthetic work, by means of a literary language that is close to the style of source language (Marabout, 2010, as cited in Mojahedi, 2010). Many of the books written on translation, mostly deal with literary translation, and particularly with the difficulty of translating well, conserving the quality, and also of being faithful. According to BahramiChaleshtori (2009) the frequent use and combination of literary and translation is representative of the casual way in which the notions of literature and of translation have so far been taken for granted. Because their concepts aren't simple and well defined in most cultures, defining literary translation is the first obstacle facing researchers. For these reasons, the researcher was persuaded to show the effect of personality traits on translation of literary texts.

All in all, current research on personality and Translation Studies is rather limited compared with other trends and concerns in this field (Daisy, 2009). Likewise, the existing literature on this issue does not provide the audience with significant and consistent results. Therefore, the present work aimed at investigating the probable effect of the personality of a translator on his/her quality of translation.

3. Methodology

3.1. Participants

The participants in this study were 41 M.A students in English Translation studying at Fars science and research Branch, Iran. The selection was based on availability sampling. Concerning the gender of participants, both Males and females were included. The age of the learners ranged between 22 and 30.

3.2. Instruments

To collect the data, three instruments were used. These instruments are listed as followings:

- 1) The first instrument was a background questionnaire in order to obtain some general information on students' translating knowledge. For this purpose, the researcher applied Orozco and Albir's (2002) questionnaire which is called Translation Notions Instrument (TNI). It is a test made up of 14 items of multiple choice, true/false and open items. This method deals with the notions about translation, translation competence, translation problems, translation equivalence, strategies to solve comprehension problems and etc.
- 2) The second instrument was a literary text in English to be translated into Persian. A short paragraph was extracted from *The Invisible Man* by Herbert George Wells (1866-1946).
- 3) The third instrument used in this study was the Big Five Factor Personality Test which is a paper and pencil questionnaire containing 60 items that measures the five factors domains of Neuroticism (N), Extraversion (E), Openness (O), Agreeableness (A), and Conscientiousness (C). Each item includes five choices. These choices are: 1)

strongly disagree, 2) disagree, 3) neither disagree nor agree, 4) agree and 5) strongly agree. NEO-Five Factor Inventory (NEO-FFI) is a version of the larger revised NEO Personality Inventory with 240 items (NEO PI-FFI: Costa & McCrae, 1992). This personality test was purchased from the website www.azmonyar.com. The reliability of the large questionnaire (NEO PI-FFI) has been evaluated in several countries such as Iran. In Iran the reliability of this questionnaire was performed by Garussi, Mahriar and Tabatabaee (2001) and the results were so similar to the original one. Meanwhile, the results of the studies done by MacCrae & Costa (1992) showed that the correlation of five factors in short and long questionnaires is ranging from 0.77 to 0.92. Moreover, the internal consistency of the five factors was estimated with alpha coefficients ranging from 0.68 to 0.86. Other studies have shown acceptable test-retest reliability. In the present study, the reliability of NEO-FFI was calculated by Cronbach's Alpha. It turns up to be 0.74 that showed satisfactory reliability. (See Appendix 6).

3.3. Procedure

First, the participants were asked to fill in the background questionnaire in order to obtain some general translating knowledge about them. (see Appendix 1). Then a text was given to the participants in which they were encouraged to produce a translation from English to Persian (see Appendix 2). The source text was in literary genre. The students were allowed to use dictionaries. There wasn't a time limitation for the participants to do their translations. After collecting students' target texts, the personality test (NEO-FFI) was administered to the participants of the study (see Appendix 3). Since the participants' mother tongue was Persian, Persian translation of the inventory was used in order to save time, get more reliable results and make it easier for the students to answer. Then the personality test answer sheets were rated. In order to score the personality answer sheets, five-choices Likert Scale (1) strongly disagree 2) disagree 3) neither disagree nor agree 4) agree 5) strongly agree) was carried out. Meanwhile, some questions were rated in reverse. (see Appendix 4). Based on the learners' scores in the NEO-FFI, the researcher divided the participants into five groups of neurotic, extravert, open, conscientious, and agreeable (see Table 4.1). In order to avoid any bias that could affect the outcome of the study, two independent translation instructors (a male and a female) were selected to evaluate and score the participants' translations. For this purpose, the researcher asked the raters to use Waddington's A Method (2001), which is based on error analysis, wherein possible mistakes are grouped under the following headings:

- A) Inappropriate renderings which affect the understanding of the source text; these are divided into eight categories: contresens, faux sense, nonsense, addition, omission, unresolved extralinguistic references, loss of meaning and inappropriate linguistic variations (register, style, dialect, etc.).
- B) Inappropriate renderings which affect expression in the target language; these are divided into five categories: spelling, grammar, lexical items, text and style.
- C) Inadequate renderings which affect the transmission of either the main function or secondary functions of the source text.

In each of the categories a distinction is made between serious errors (-2 points) and minor errors (-1 point). There is a fourth category which describes the plus points to be awarded for good (+1 point) or exceptionally good solutions (+2 points) to translation problems. In the case of translation exam where this method was used, the sum of the negative points was subtracted from a total of 110 and then divided by 11 to reach a mark from 0 to 10 (which is a normal Spanish system). For example, if a student gets a total of -66 points, his result would be calculated as follows: $110 - 66 = 44 / 11 = 4$ (which fails to pass; the lowest pass mark is 5). The inter-rater reliability of the raters in this study was calculated by Pearson-Correlation. It was significant at the 0.05 level that showed the consistency of two raters (see Appendix 6). The raters assigned scores on the basis of this method separately. The final score was the mean of two independent ratings. Meanwhile, all participants in this study passed the translation task. (Appendix 3).

3.4. Data analysis

The scores obtained from translating the text were analyzed in relation to the data obtained from the Personality Test. To this end, the association between translators' personality traits and their

translation quality were estimated using Pearson's product correlation coefficient. Furthermore, in order to examine which personality type was more predictive of success during the process of translation, a multiple regression analysis was performed.

4. Results and Discussions

General knowledge of translation or notions of translation, determine the students' whole process of translation, since, depending on the students' ideas about translation, they will have a particular purpose for a particular translation task, and this will determine their solution of translation problems throughout the process of translation. (Orozco & Albir, 2002). In the present study a background questionnaire was used in order to elicit some useful information. The following points were extracted on the bases of students' answer:

1. The majority of participants had a satisfactory definition about translation. They declared that a good translator should know a) the meaning of the source text (ST) in order to convey to the target text and b) the culture of both languages.
2. All participants agreed that a bilingual dictionary is the main instrument to find an adequate equivalent in the target language.
3. Most of the participants (p=80.49%) believed that when a translator reads a text before translating it, the process is different for any other reader of the text.
4. A few of them (p=43.90%) accepted that the main problems encountered when translating are vocabulary problems.
5. The majority of students approved that a professional translator should be able to translate a literary text as well as non-literary one.

Table 4.1. Personality Type Distribution of the Participants in the Study

Group	N	%
Agreeableness	17	41.46%
Conscientiousness	10	24.39%
Openness	7	17.07%
Neuroticism	4	9.76%
Extraversion	3	7.32%
Total	41	100.00%

First of all, Table 4.1. represents the type distribution of the participants. (Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Openness, Extraversion, Neuroticism categories: N=41). The greatest number is allocated to Agreeableness which constitutes approximately 42 percent of the total, and the smallest one is allocated to Extraversion with about 7 percent of the total.

Table 4.2. shows the Pearson correlations among the personality types on the one hand, and the mean of the translation scores obtained on the other:

Table 4.2. Pearson Correlations Among the Personality Types of the Participants and Their Qualities of Translations

		Neuroticism	Extraversion	Openness	Agreeableness	Conscientiousness	Translation Task
Neuroticism	Pearson Correlation	1	-.362*	-.089	-.197	-.519**	-.175
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.020	.582	.218	.001	.273
	N	41	41	41	41	41	41
Extraversion	Pearson Correlation		1	.141	.362*	.344*	-.012
	Sig. (2-tailed)			.378	.020	.028	.943
	N		41	41	41	41	41
Openness	Pearson Correlation			1	-.095	.402**	-.060
	Sig. (2-tailed)				.554	.009	.711
	N			41	41	41	41
Agreeableness	Pearson Correlation				1	.416**	.149
	Sig. (2-tailed)					.007	.353
	N				41	41	41
Conscientiousness	Pearson Correlation					1	.035
	Sig. (2-tailed)						.829
	N					41	41
Translation Task	Pearson Correlation						1
	Sig. (2-tailed)						
	N						41

As shown in table 4.2., the correlations of all five personality types are observed to be more than 0.05. Therefore, all correlations between the five factors on the one hand and participants translation quality were not statistically significant.

4.2.2. Regression Analysis

In order to examine if learners personality could predict the translation skill, the researcher conducted a multiple regression test. Table 4.3. shows the results of this test, as follows:

Table 4.3. The Results of the Multiple Regression Test

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted Square	R	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.267 ^a	.071	-.061		.43819

As Table 4.3. indicates, only .267 of the variance related to the participants' translation scores could be predicted by the personality characteristics. Based on the findings of Table 4.3., there were not any significant relationships among the personality types of the students with their translation qualities.

Table 4.4. shows some basic information related to the coefficients obtained from the related regression test:

Table 4.4. Basic Descriptive Information about the Coefficients of the Regression Test

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	.517	5	.103	.539	.745 ^a
	Residual	6.721	35	.192		
	Total	7.238	40			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Openness, Agreeableness, Neuroticism

b. Dependent Variable: Translation Task

As table 4.4 illustrates, the five factor investigated in the study could not predict translation quality in general.

Finally, Table 4.5. signals the Beta Coefficients along with t-values for each of the personality characteristics. As the results on Table 4.5. show, the absence of significant relationships among the variables of the study was supported, as all five coefficients were observed to be more than 0.5:

Table 4.5. The Coefficients among the Variables of the Study

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	7.915	.782		10.119	.000
	Neuroticism	-.169	.133	-.256	-1.278	.210
	Extraversion	-.093	.131	-.132	-.704	.486
	Openness	.017	.227	.014	.074	.941
	Agreeableness	.210	.201	.208	1.047	.302
	Conscientiousness	-.107	.175	-.145	-.611	.545

a. Dependent Variable: Translation Task

To sum up, the results indicated the impact of translators' personality traits on translation quality of a literary text, and hence both null hypotheses of the study were accepted.

4.3. Discussion

As the results of the study revealed, no significant relationship among personality types and the quality of translation was observed by the researcher. However, there was still a slight relationship among these two factors. This is to support the findings of Hubscher-Davidson's (2007) study who noticed a relationship between the translation process on the one hand, and self-confidence on the other. He believes that translators' confidence as their personality characteristic also makes translators creative.

This study dealt with two questions. The first research question was whether there was any significant relationship between each of the five factor personality traits and the quality of their translation. To answer this question Pearson-correlation was conducted for each component of Five Factor personality traits and there was no statistically significant difference between these traits and translation quality of the participants. The second research question was that among various translators' personality traits which one is predictive of their success in translation. Regarding this question, the results of multiple regression test showed that only .267 of the variance related to the participants' translation scores could be predicted by the personality characteristics. Therefore, the five factors in this study couldn't predict translation quality in general.

The results of the study supported the findings of the study carried out by Pourgharib and Dehbandi (2013). The researchers investigated the impact of translators' personality (thinking vs. feeling) on the translation quality of narrative texts. The data analysis showed that translators' personality had no impact on translation quality of narrative texts.

The results of the study supported the findings of Sheikhzade (2008) the researcher examined the effect of personality traits (introversion / extraversion) on the translation quality. The results

indicated that there was no significant difference between the translation quality of two groups of translators who were extrovert and introvert.

The findings of the study were not in line with Hubscher-Davidson (2009). According to Hubscher-Davidson (2009), translating literary texts requires a certain amount of imagination, creativity and inventiveness which are the attributes of intuitive types. That is why in the study conducted by Hubscher-Davidson (2009), the intuitors outperformed their counterparts in the translation of the literary text as well.

However, within the present work, no specific groups of translators with a certain type of significant personality traits were observed to outperform the other groups with other types of significant personality traits. Moreover, some general knowledge of translation is needed in translating a text. With respect to the influence of personality traits on translation quality of M.A students, the absence of significant relationship between these two factors might be explained by the fact that most of the researchers applied other personality tests for translation quality assessment such as MBTI rather than NEO_FFI. Although, NEO_FFI was a reliable questionnaire in the present work and other studies, there was just one case observed in which the researcher has recently used NEO_FFI for assessing translation quality. So, we can consider this research as the first study which applied NEO_FFI to demonstrate the impact of personality types on the quality of students' translation. Consequently, NEO_FFI questionnaire might be better oriented towards a higher educational system of a larger population plus two or three texts for a translation task than a single one.

5. Conclusion

As the findings of the present study revealed, no significant relationships were observed among the personality traits on the one hand, and the quality of one's translation on the other. Likewise, as discussed in previous chapters, people are different in many ways. This is true while dealing with the art of translation, too. In fact, there are a series of characteristics and issues having impacts on the output of a translation process. This, as argued before, could be partly related to the personality of the translator. Meanwhile, it has been admitted that linguistic competence, experience, time spent on the task and etc can all affect the quality of a produced translation(Toury, 1995; Fraser, 1996).Furthermore, the background questionnaire provided useful complementary information, but all possible impressive factors couldn't be inspected in this study. To date, several scholars have tried to work on cognitive psychology to investigate specific translating and interpreting mental processes (e.g., Piaget, 1967, Seleskovitch & Lederer). On the other hand, argumentations have revealed a possible link between personality and Translation Studies. For instance, Reiss (2000) tended to measure the translator's personality by the term 'characterology'. It is a model of distinguishing the various kinds of human character by using Spranger's typology (1920). This typology with six forms of personality (theoretical, economic, esthetic, social, aggressive and religious) reveals the translator's behavior. As the results of the study carried out by Reiss (2000) showed, translators use a variety of personalities rather than a single type. However, based on the findings of the present work, it could be concluded that there are not any statistically significant relationships between an individual's personality type and one's quality of literary translation. It is important to mention that these differences would exist for each and every participant of the study more or less, while they were not significant enough in order to be "generalized to a higher population" (Cohen et al., 2007, p.11).

Unlike the Revelle's (2007) study, which declared that personality psychology has to do with the issues of shared human nature, dimensions of individual difference, as well as the unique features of people, in addition of Buss & Craik's (1980) statement which believed that the central point in the personality research is known to be the concept of disposition that is the tendency of individuals to behave in certain ways, the findings of the present study proved that personality hasn't always had a leading role on the way of individual translators' work. Since, none of the personality types could predict learners' translation skill.

5.1. Implications

Translation scholars carry out several different research programs in order to elevate the scope of knowledge in the field of Translation Studies. Additionally, it is obvious that the value of research would not be realized unless its own results are applied to the real world of [educational system] (Aski, 2008). Taking into account the findings of the current study, the researcher suggests translators and translation trainees to know general knowledge of translation (notions of translations) very well

in order to solve problems while translating a text. Otherwise, errors (unsolved problems) can be caused by this “lack of knowledge” of general translation concepts (Orozco & Albir, 2002). Moreover, translation educators must be aware of this issue. They should encourage and remind students that one of the influential and useful factors in translating a text is to know general knowledge of translation perfectly which would lead to their success by recognizing their own strengths and weaknesses. Meanwhile, in order to get more accurate results and announce some more Pedagogical Implications in domain of personality traits and translation quality for the translators, translation trainees and translation educators, the researcher recommends further research.

5.2. Limitations of the Study

Concerning a research program, there are usually some limitations observed by the researcher. These issues might be related to different aspects and stages of the study. Some of the limitations of the present work are listed as follows:

- The researcher faced a great deal of difficulty in finding the appropriate subjects. Although there are many students studying at different higher education centers, the researcher found only a few who were willing to participate in this study.
- Some difficulties were also observed in finding appropriate raters, concerning the translation tasks.
- There were some cases in which the respondents either did not answer the questions of the personality test or marked two boxes simultaneously. Those answer sheets were omitted by the researcher. This, in turn, reduced the number of subjects of the study.

5.3. Suggestions for Further Studies

The following suggestions were also made as to be investigated in future:

- The present work examined the relationship between the translators' personality types on the one hand, and the qualities of their English-Persian translations on the other. Changing a small variable of the study could lead the future research programs into conducting similar projects. For instance, the quality of Persian-English translations could be investigated.
- The effect of personality types on the translation quality of the students studying in other levels of education could be another choice which might be of interest in near future. In other words, the B.A or Ph.D. levels could also be investigated in order to expand the generalization of the findings.
- The English text (the source text) of the present work was selected within the literary genre. Likewise, other text-types and text genres could be investigated in future similar studies.
- The present study focused on NEO-FFI test in order to determine the personality types of the participants. However, there are several other personality indicating tests which are available and reliable to be used by other researchers who are interested in finding out the relationship among different psychological traits on the one hand, and the quality of translation on the other.
- It would be possible for further research to use NEO-PI-R Inventory itself to get more reliable results. NEO-FFI questionnaire in this study is a revised form of Costa & McCrae's NEO personality inventory revised (NEO-PI-R). NEO-PI-R consists of 240 items in the five factors with 6 subscales.

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Appendices

Appendix 1:

Translation Notions Instrument

Questionnaire about translation

Name and surnames:

Date of birth:

Please do the following exercises keeping to the order given here. Your answer will not be taken in to account for the grades that you are given for this course, as the evaluators of this test will not be given your name. Therefore, please give spontaneous, honest answers to all the questions.

It is important that you answer the questions in order and that you do not go back to a question you have already answered.

1. General Notions About Translation Questionnaire

1. What is translation? Define it in one sentence.
2. What should a good translator know? List the most important points.
3. Which instruments can help a translator to translate? List all the ones you know.
4. List all the different kinds of translations a professional translator may be asked to do.
5. If you find an English expression that you do not understand in a text, what do you do first? Order the following options.

Consult a bilingual dictionary

Try to understand the meaning of the word from the text

Consult a monolingual English dictionary

6. If, when you are translating, you find an English expression that you understand, but that your translation doesn't express the meaning clearly or exactly enough, what do you do first to find a good equivalent?

Consult a bilingual dictionary

try to express the same idea in as many ways as possible in Persian

consult a monolingual Persian dictionary

7. When you are translating, what do you think is the basic unit you are translating?

- a. the word
- b. the sentence
- c. something else

8. The main problems encountered when translating are vocabulary problems.

True False

9. All translators should be able to translate as efficiently into the foreign language as into their mother tongue.

True False

10. A good translator should be able to translate all types of texts with the same degree of efficiency.

True False

11. When a translator reads a text before translating it, the process is the same as for any other reader of the text.

True False

12. A bilingual dictionary is the main instrument used to find an adequate equivalent in the target language.

True False

13. Underline the elements you think intervene in a translation.

- a. client original author socio-cultural environment of the original text.
- b. date of the original text socio-cultural environment of the translated text.
- c. date of the translation, original reader, final reader.
- d. function of the original text, function of the translation.

14. Your translation of the sales contract for the British company, "WHL Inc.," will be different if you are translating it for a lawyer who wants to use it as proof in a trial, or for

a Spanish subsidiary company, attached to "WHL Inc." that needs the translation to sign contracts with other Spanish companies.

True

False

Appendix 2:

Translation of a text from English to Persian

The Strange Man's Arrival

The stranger came early one wintry day in February, through a biting wind and driving snow, the last snowfall of the year. He walked over the hill from Bramlehurst Station, and carried a little black bag in his thickly gloved hand. He was wrapped up from head to foot, and the edge of his soft grey hat hid every inch of his face except the shiny point of his nose; the snow had piled itself against his shoulders and chest. He almost fell into the Coach and Horses more dead than alive, and throw his bag down. "A fire," he cried, "in the name of human kindness! A room and a fire!" He stamped his feet and shook the snow from his coat and followed Mrs. Hall, the innkeeper's wife, into her parlour. There he arranged to take a room in the inn, and gave her two pounds.

Appendix 3:

NEO-FFI questionnaire

لطفا پس از خواندن هر عبارت نگرشی کلی خود را نسبت به آن ، با انتخاب یکی از گزینه های کاملاً مخالفم ، مخالفم ، نظری ندارم ، موافقم در پاسخنامه ، نشان دهید .

1. من آدم نگرانی هستم
2. من دوست دارم همیشه آدم های زیادی دور و برم باشند
3. من دوست ندارم وقتم را با خیالبافی هدر بدهم
4. من سعی می کنم با دیگران خوش رفتار و مودب باشم
5. من چیزهای خودم را مرتب و پاکیزه نگه می دارم
6. من اغلب خودم را کمتر از دیگران حس می کنم
7. من لبخند زدن به دیگران و بیرون رفتن با آنها را کار آسانی می دانم
8. من وقتی روش درست انجام یک کار را پیدا کنم به همان می چسبم و ادامه می دهم
9. من اغلب با اعضای خانواده بگو نگو دارم
10. من به خوبی می توانم طوری برنامه ریزی کنم که کارهایم به موقع انجام شوند
11. وقتی من زیر بار یک استرس بزرگ هستم بعضی مواقع احساس می کنم دارم از هم می پاشم
12. من خودم را لزوماً آدم امیدواری نمی دانم
13. نگاه کردن به نظم حاکم بر طبیعت و زیبایی هنرها برای من بسیار جالب است
14. بعضی از مردم من را آدم خودخواهی می دانند
15. من در کارهایم خیلی با برنامه نیستم
16. من به ندرت احساس تنهایی و دل افسردگی می کنم
17. من واقعا از صحبت کردن با دیگران لذت می برم
18. من معتقدم که اگر به دانشجویان اجازه بدهند که به سخنرانی های بحث بر انگیز و متناقض گوش دهند، آن ها سردرگم و گمراه می شوند.
19. من بیشتر ترجیح می دهم که با دیگران همکاری کنم تا با آن ها رقابت کنم
20. من سعی می کنم وظایفی که بر عهده ام هست را با وجدان کار انجام دهم
21. حس می کنم اغلب اوقات دچار تنش و وحشت زدگی هستم
22. من ترجیح می دهم در جایی باشم که فعالیت وجود داشته باشد
23. خواندن یک شعر تاثیر ناچیزی بر من دارد یا این که اصلا تاثیری ندارد
24. معمولا من در مورد مقاصد دیگران بدگمان و عیبجو هستم
25. من دارای اهداف مشخصی هستم و برای این اهداف برنامه دارم
26. من بعضی وقت ها کاملاً احساس بی ارزشی می کنم
27. من معمولا ترجیح می دهم کارها را به تنهایی انجام دهم
28. من معمولا غذاهای جدید و نا آشنا را امتحان می کنم
29. من عقیده دارم که اکثر مردم اگر به آن ها اجازه داده شود می خواهند از آدم امتیاز به دست آورند
30. من قبل از شروع هر کاری وقت زیادی را تلف می کنم
31. من به ندرت خودم را ترسو یا مضطرب می دانم
32. من اغلب احساس می کنم که پر از نیرو و انرژی هستم
33. من به ندرت متوجه می شوم که احساساتم در محیط های مختلف فرق می کند
34. بیشتر مردمانی را که می شناسم مرا دوست دارند
35. من برای دستیابی به اهداف خودم سخت تلاش می کنم

36. اغلب از نحوه برخورد دیگران با من عصبانی می شوم.
 37. من آدم بشاش و دارای روحیه بالایی هستم.
 38. من معتقدم که برای اخذ تصمیم درباره موضوعات اخلاقی باید به مقامات دینی خودمان اقتدا کنیم.
 39. بعضی از افراد فکر می کنند من آدم سرد و حسابگری هستم.
 40. وقتی به انجام کاری را متعهد می شوم مردم می توانند همیشه مطمئن باشند که کار را پیگیری می کنم.
 41. اغلب وقتی کارها طبق نقشه پیش نمی رود یا اشتباه از آب در می آید احساس دلسردی می کنم و می خواهم آن را نیمه تمام رها کنم.
 42. من آدم خوش بینی نیستم.
 43. گاهی وقتی که شعری می خوانم یا به یک اثر هنری نگاه می کنم یک حالت یاس یا موجی از برافروختگی را در خودم تجربه می کنم.
 44. من در رفتار و نظر خود آدم سخت و بی انعطافی هستم.
 45. گاهی آن قدری که خودم می خواهم، قابل اعتماد نیستم.
 46. من به ندرت افسرده یا غمگین می شوم.
 47. همه زندگی و کارهای من با سرعت طی میشوند.
 48. من علاقه ای به تأمل و تفکر در مورد ماهیت جهان یا وضعیت انسان ندارم.
 49. اغلب سعی می کنم با فکر و با ملاحظه باشم.
 50. من آدم سازنده و مولدی هستم که همیشه کارها را به ثمر می رساند.
 51. من اغلب احساس درماندگی می کنم و میل دارم شخص دیگری را مسائل را حل کند.
 52. من شخص بسیار فعالی هستم.
 53. من خیلی کنجکاویم.
 54. من اگر اشخاصی را دوست نداشته باشم از آن ها پنهان نمی کنم.
 55. به نظر نمی رسد هرگز بتوانم کارهای خود را نظم و ترتیب بدهم.
 56. بعضی وقت ها من طوری احساس خجالت می کنم که دلم می خواهد خودم را از دیگران پنهان کنم.
 57. من ترجیح می دهم دنبال کارهای خود را بگیرم، تا اینکه رهبر دیگران باشم.
 58. من اغلب از بازی کردن با نظریه ها و افکار انتزاعی لذت می برم.
 59. اگر نیاز باشد، من حاضر از افراد دیگر برای رسیدن به مقاصد خود سوء استفاده کنم.
 60. من سعی می کنم همه کارهای خود را به بهترین نحو انجام دهم.

Appendix 4: Results of the Study Related to the Students' Personality Types and Their Translation Scores

Partici pant	Neuroti cism	Extraver sion	Openn ess	Agreeab leness	Conscientio usness	Transla tion Task 1	Transla tion Task 2	Mean of Transla tion Tasks
1	0.83	3	2.41	3	3.75	8.54	8.40	8.47
2	1.33	2.41	2.41	1.83	2.16	7.30	7.20	7.25
3	2.8	3	2.75	3.08	1.83	6.25	6.09	6.17
4	2.33	1.66	2.91	3.08	3.25	7.18	7.8	7.13
5	2.25	2.41	3.16	2.5	2.83	7.72	7.52	7.62
6	1.58	2.5	1.66	3.25	3	8.45	8.22	8.34
7	1.83	1.66	2.75	2.16	2.66	8	7.55	7.78
8	2	2.83	2.66	2.16	3.25	8.18	7.72	7.95
9	2.08	2.5	2.25	3.16	2.14	8.18	7.72	7.95
10	1.41	2.41	1.91	3.33	2.83	8.72	8.18	8.45
11	2	1.33	2	2.58	2.16	8	7.69	7.85
12	2.58	2.66	2.58	2.5	2	7.75	7.5	7.63
13	0.41	3.5	2.91	3.5	4	8.36	8.25	8.31
14	1.58	1.75	2.91	2.66	2.58	8.36	8.09	8.23
15	2.16	2	1.91	2.75	2.25	8.54	7.3	7.92
16	2.16	2.41	2.33	3	3	8.36	7.80	8.08
17	1.33	2.08	2.33	1.91	1.91	9	8.40	8.7
18	2.75	1.75	2.16	2.41	2.58	7.27	6.5	6.89
19	1.5	2.91	2.08	3.16	2.66	6.45	8.43	7.44

20	2.91	1.5	2.33	2.5	2.25	8.87	7.3	8.09
21	1.75	2.84	2.16	2.58	2.33	9.54	8	8.77
22	0.91	1.08	2.33	2.58	3.33	8.27	6.9	7.59
23	1.83	2	2.97	2.25	2.91	8.4	7.81	8.11
24	2.5	1.33	2.66	2.91	2.66	8.63	8.18	8.41
25	3	2	2.5	2.5	1.75	8.63	6.9	7.77
26	1.83	2.41	2.25	2.58	2	9.09	7.9	8.49
27	2.41	1.58	2.41	3.08	2.58	8	7.27	7.63
28	0.5	2.25	2.83	2.83	3.25	7.87	7.81	7.84
29	1.58	2.5	3	2.33	2.91	7.91	7.36	7.63
30	1.83	2	2.08	2.83	2.33	8.36	7.54	7.95
31	0.58	2.58	3	3	2.91	8.54	8.5	8.52
32	1.83	2.75	2.83	3.08	3.5	8.41	6.63	7.52
33	1.41	2.16	2.75	2.58	3.25	8.41	7.54	7.97
34	1.75	2.66	3	2.75	3.83	8.54	7.6	8.07
35	1.75	3	2.33	3.16	3.16	8.45	7.72	8.08
36	1.66	2.75	2.4	1.83	2.33	8.09	6.63	7.36
37	2.5	1.75	2.58	2.16	2.83	8	7.36	7.68
38	2.16	0.58	2.16	2.08	1.75	8.45	7.18	7.81
39	2.25	2	2.33	2.5	2.08	8.45	6.45	7.45
40	1.75	2.58	2.5	2.91	3.08	8	6.8	7.4
41	0.83	2.75	2.16	2.91	2.66	7	8	7.5

Appendix 5:**60- Question key of NEO_FFI**

Sub-scales	Number of sentences (negative statements score in reverse)											
1)Neuroticism	-1	6	11	-16	21	26	-31	36	41	-46	51	56
2)Extraversion	2	7	-12	17	22	-27	32	37	-42	47	52	-57
3)Openness	-3	-8	13	-18	-23	28	-33	-38	43	-48	53	58
4)Agreeableness	4	-9	-14	19	-24	-29	34	-39	-44	49	-54	-59
5)Conscientiousness	5	10	-15	20	25	-30	35	40	-45	50	-55	60

❖ The statements with negative sign are rated in reverse.

Appendix 6:**Reliability Test****Correlation among graders**

	grader1	grader2
Pearson Correlation	1	.321*
grader1 Sig. (2-tailed)		.041
N	41	41
Pearson Correlation	.321*	1
grader2 Sig. (2-tailed)	.041	
N	41	41

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

Reliability Statistics for NEO-FFI

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.742	60

INVESTIGATING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN IRANIAN ESP TEACHERS' SELF-EFFICACY AND THEIR EXPERTISE

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ABSTRACT

This study aimed at investigating the relationship between Iranian ESP teachers' self-efficacy and their expertise in order to understand who is more qualified for teaching English for specific purpose (ESP) from teacher's view. The data of this study were collected by using one basic instrument: Teacher's Sense of Efficacy Scale (long form). The participants of the study were 183 both female and male Iranian ESP teachers randomly selected from among the state, Azad and Payamenoor universities of Iran. The data was analyzed using two way ANOVA and *t*-test to determine the effect of experience and expertise on self-efficacy and the effect of degree and expertise on self-efficacy. The results of this study indicated that there was no significant difference between high experienced English and content teachers. It means that if teachers are not experienced enough, it would be better to use English teachers. Similarly, in teachers with higher educational degrees, there was no significant difference. Again in choosing between teachers of lower degrees we vote for English teachers. The study concluded that by considering the experience variable, both content and English teachers with high experience are good for teaching ESP, and by considering the university degree variable, there was no significant difference between content and English teachers. Finally, there was positive relationship between Iranian ESP Teachers' Self-efficacy and their Expertise.

Key words: ESP teachers, Self-efficacy, Expertise, experience, university degree.

1. Introduction

There are over one billion people learning English in the world for different reasons (Beare, 2006). English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is language instruction for learners who generally need immediate language competency to successfully perform in real-life tasks or jobs in the diversity in order to obtain specific or professional purposes. ESP learners usually have acquaintance with English, but need more concentration on language grammar and English structure. ESP integrates the subject areas into the real world for the learners (Fiorito, 2005).

1.0.1 Teacher Characteristics

Several teacher characteristics have been associated with measurements of teacher efficacy. They include English background, English education background, grade level taught, gender, multiple intelligences, and teaching experience.

It has been found repeatedly that beginning teachers who have strong science content knowledge, as evidenced by having taken a large number of science courses, by possessing a science degree, by being able to answer commonly misunderstood science questions accurately, or by exhibiting low levels of anxiety toward the teaching of science have higher teacher self-efficacy toward the teaching of science. Likewise, many beginning teachers who took the minimum required number of science courses feel that their content knowledge is lacking. As a result, they tend to avoid teaching topics that they do not know well for fear that their students will ask questions that they cannot answer, and they lack confidence in the subjects that they do choose to teach. The relationship between content knowledge and self-efficacy beliefs has been generally explained through the "success breeds success" adage. In short, teachers who know a lot about science typically feel comfortable with their understanding of science. As a result, they are comfortable sharing that understanding of science with

students and have a high expectancy that students will be able to learn from them as teachers (Desouza, Boone & Yilmaz, 2004).

1.0.2 Student Characteristics

Some characteristics of students have been associated with teacher efficacy beliefs. Most notably, teachers of high ability or honors students have a more positive sense of teacher efficacy. This is generally explained through student engagement rather than innate intelligence – honors students are perceived by teachers as more engaged, and therefore easier to teach and influence than students in lower track classes. Student socioeconomic status appears to have a mixed impact on teacher efficacy beliefs (Ross, 1998).

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Increasing number of scientific publications in English necessitates the development of English language in non-English speaking countries including Iran. Nearly all universities have both general and specific courses to develop such knowledge. However, there is no agreement on the satisfactory outcome of the allotted courses. One reason for inadequacy of ESP classes seems to be the teachers. Most researchers interested in assessing “the progress of ESP as a component of ELT”, agree that one of the most constraining factors to this progress is the lack of appropriate Language teachers (Shim, 2006; Swales, 1985). Two types of teachers are usually recruited to teach ESP courses in Iranian Universities. The first group includes those teachers whose majors are English teaching, English literature or English translation. The second group, on the other hand, consists of subject matter specialists. The latter group teachers usually include those who are, to some extent, confident with their own English. There is a controversy on the efficiency of these two groups. Therefore, the present study intends to investigate the relationship between self-efficacy of these two groups to understand which group may be a better option for teaching ESP classes.

1.3 Purpose of the study

The primary and major objective of this study will be to understand who is more qualified for teaching English for specific purpose (ESP) from teacher's view. From this main objective, other factors like teacher's age, gender, education level, and years of experience in teaching which may have role in choosing the best teacher will be investigated. The findings of this study will help university administrators make informed decisions about the issue of choosing the best option for teaching ESP courses.

1.4 Research Questions

The followings are the research questions of the study:

1. Is there any relationship between ESP teachers' self-efficacy and their expertise?
2. Is there any significant difference between English teachers' self-efficacy and content teachers' self-efficacy in teaching ESP classes?
3. Is experience an effective variable to define ESP teachers' success?

2. Literature Review

Rajabi, Kiany and Maftoon (2011) in a study intended to compare and contrast Iranian English major ESP instructors with their subject-matter counterparts in terms of their beliefs and classroom practices in ESP classes. A total of 423 Iranian English major (ELT) and subject-matter ESP teachers participated in the study. The results revealed that theoretically a large and wide gap exists between English major and subject-matter ESP teachers while practically this difference was very slight.

Maleki (2008) conducted an experiment to find out who is better qualified for the job: the EFL teacher or the specialist in the field? Forty out of sixty second-year medical students studying at an Iranian medical sciences university were randomly selected. Then they were divided into two equal classes of twenty members each. Later, the classes were assigned to two teachers: a TEFL teacher and a GP. Everything being equal, including the textbook, the course started. The two classes were taught for an entire semester. At the end of the course, two types of measures were used: an achievement test and a five-point Likert Scale. Analysis of the results showed that the EFL teacher's class scored higher in every aspect of the final achievement test, and that they expressed greater satisfaction with his class than the competing class on the Likert Scale. Therefore, Maleki strongly recommended that ESP

courses be taught by EFL teachers rather than specialists in the field and those specialists interested in teaching English should attain the necessary qualifications.

Ahmadi (2008) conducted a research about who should teach ESP. This research was conducted to study the views of the heads of language department (LDs) and the heads of discipline-specific departments (DSDs) as well as those of students in some ESP classes in six medical universities during the academic year 2006-2007. Three questionnaires were used as the tool of data collecting. According to the data gathered, though most vice-deans and almost all heads of language departments (LDs) tended to assign ESP classes to the teachers of LDs, about 50% of the heads of discipline- specialist departments (DSDs) believed that these courses should be taught by subject specialist teachers. The students of ESP classes, in all, believed that in teaching ESP courses, LD teachers are more qualified than discipline-specialist teachers. From the six questions posed to 176 students about the different capabilities of ESP teachers, LD teachers gained 1515 positive points while the points gained by discipline-specialist teachers was just 1331 (Ahmadi, 2008, p.1).

According to Yarmohammadi (2005), "language teaching in Iran does not follow any specific purposes - i.e. it can be characterized as language for no specific purposes" in most of ESP contexts at Iranian Universities. ESP is nowadays increasingly taught to large classes of demotivated learners by inappropriate teachers with very limited resources. There is little collaboration between language teachers and content teachers concerning issues such as the objectives, content as well as the methodology of the course. Many Iranian scholars have argued that English should be taught by language teachers and not content, subject-specific, teachers if we believe that our profession demands special training (e.g. Farhady, 2006; Yarmohammadi, 2005).

3. Methodology

3.1 Participants

The participants of the study were two group of Iranian ESP teachers randomly selected from among the university teachers of Iran. They were selected from the available different state, Azad and Payamenoor universities. The participants were both female and male teachers who teach ESP courses. The first group of ESP teachers consisted of English teachers majoring in teaching English, English literature and translation. These teachers were called language teachers in this study. The second group consists of ESP teachers majoring in their own specific fields, called content teachers in this study. To select the participants, all Iranian faculty members of the available universities were located based on the available data form the university websites. The questionnaire of the study were sent to randomly selected teachers from their list by email to fill out, and finally total of 183 teachers, 94 language teachers and 89 content teachers answered the questionnaire.

3.2 Instruments

This study was of survey type in terms of its data collection procedure. To collect the necessary data for this study one instrument was utilized. That was a self-efficacy scale as the main tool and had a major role in this study. It is called Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (long form), which was adopted from the Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy including 24-items on self-efficacy and ranging from *Nothing*, *Very little*, *Some influence*, *Quite a bit* and *A great deal*. The participants were asked to rank their opinions on a five-point Likert scale. The scale were graded through numerical values of one, two, three, four and five respectively. Then the scores were calculated to gain a total grade for each teacher's self-efficacy. All of the questionnaire items were written in English first and then translated into Farsi in order to minimize the respondents' misunderstandings due to their field of study. The validity and the reliability of the questionnaire were originally confirmed by Tschannen- Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001). In addition, two university professors confirmed the content validity of the questionnaire for the purpose of the present study. Reliability was also checked in this study using coefficient alpha ($r=.72$).

3.3 Procedure

At first, a questionnaire was designed, although the reliability had already been reported, the researcher calculated the Cronbach's Alpha as the index of internal consistency ($r= .72$) in this study. Then the questionnaire was translated into Persian in order to get more accurate information from the teachers. The same questionnaire was adopted for both groups of ESP teachers including language teachers and content teachers. The first group of ESP teachers consisted of English teachers majoring in teaching English, English literature and translation. These teachers were called language teachers

in this study. The second group consisted of ESP teachers majoring in their own specific fields; for example, agriculture, business management, government management, industry management, electronic engineering, gas engineering, and computer science and so on. The latter group was called content teachers in this study. Both male and female ESP teachers with different university degrees, PhD, MA and BA were included in this study. Before sending questionnaires to the groups, the researcher added the goal and objective of the study at the top of questionnaire in order to make the instructions clear thoroughly. For the first group, Language teachers, the questionnaires were given to the 800 ESP teachers majoring in teaching English, English literature and translation in different state, Azad and Payamenoor universities in Iran by email. Only 94 filled questionnaires were received. For the second group, Content teachers, the questionnaires were sent to the 600 ESP teachers majoring in their own specific fields, in different state, Azad and Payamenoor universities in Iran by email. From this group, 89 completed questionnaires were received. Having received all the questionnaires, the next stage, data analysis process was started.

3.4 Data analysis

The data was entered and analyzed using the SPSS version 22 as the statistical analysis software. First, the researcher entered the data as she obtained in completed questionnaires. During the data entry phase, the researcher consulted data coding to some variables. In entering data, non-numerical data were given the code one or two. For example, for group variable, one was assigned for language teachers who taught ESP courses, and two for content teachers who taught ESP courses. For the experience variable, one was assigned for low experienced teachers, two was assigned for mid experienced teachers and three was assigned for high experienced teachers. For university degree variable, one was assigned for Ph.D., two was assigned for MA and three was assigned for BA. Next, an internal consistency was calculated as the measure of the reliability of the instrument (the scale), using Cronbach Alpha. It was .72. Then descriptive statistics including frequencies, mean and standard deviation were estimated. Finally, an independent t-test was run to compare the performance of two groups of ESP teachers concerning their performance in the self-efficacy questionnaire.

4. Results

As mentioned before, self-efficacy scale developed by Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001) was used to gather the data related to the participants' sense of efficacy. Table 1 presents the mean scores and standard deviation of the items. The mean scores indicated that the teachers did not rate their confidence high. Rather, the mean scores on 16 out of the 24 items which was the maximum score, indicating that their self-efficacy in teaching English was at a moderate level. In general, by considering the mean table, we can conclude both content teachers and English teachers were less confident concerning the tasks related to English use than others.

Table 1 Mean and Standard Deviation of the Items

Items	Mean	SD
1. How much can you do to get through to the most difficult students?	3.41	1.301
2. How much can you do to help your students think critically?	3.13	1.059
3. How much can you do to control disruptive behavior in the classroom?	3.85	1.229
4. How much can you do to motivate students who show low interest in school work?	3.74	1.045
5. To what extent can you make your expectations clear about student behavior?	3.42	1.106
6. How much can you do to get students to believe they can do well in school work?	3.80	1.042
7. How well can you respond to difficult questions from your students?	3.48	1.099
8. How well can you establish routines to keep activities running smoothly?	3.45	1.057
9. How much can you do to help your student's value learning?	3.52	1.099
10. How much can you gauge student comprehension of what you have taught?	3.54	1.078
11. To what extent can you craft good questions for your students?	3.43	1.102
12. How much can you do to foster student creativity?	3.30	1.050
13. How much can you do to get children to follow classroom rules?	3.50	1.099
14. How much can you do to improve the understanding of a student who is failing?	3.27	1.115
15. How much can you do to calm a student who is disruptive or noisy?	3.33	1.049

16. How well can you establish a classroom management system with each group of students?	3.55	1.062
17. How much can you do to adjust your lessons to the proper level for individual students?	3.56	1.137
18. How much can you use a variety of assessment strategies?	3.54	1.113
19. How well can you keep a few problem students from ruining an entire lesson?	3.44	1.019
20. To what extent can you provide an alternative explanation or example when students are confused?	3.60	1.109
21. How well can you respond to defiant students?	3.67	1.080
22. How much can you assist families in helping their children do well in school?	3.31	1.183
23. How well can you implement alternative strategies in your classroom?	3.46	1.108
24. How well can you provide appropriate challenges for very capable students?	3.61	1.252

4.1.1 Results pertaining to Experience and Expertise

Now, the effect of experience and expertise on self-efficacy, the effect of degree and expertise on self-efficacy were calculated and the related descriptive statistics are presented in the following tables. To answer the research questions, two sets of two-way ANOVAs were conducted. In one of them, teachers' experience was considered as the independent variable which had three levels; teachers were divided into English and content groups based on their expertise and also into low, mid and high experienced categories based on their teaching experience. In another set of two-way ANOVA, teachers' degrees were considered as the independent variable, which had three levels; again teachers were divided into English and content groups based on their expertise and also into BA, MA and Ph.D. categories based on their university degree.

Now, in the first two-way ANOVA, teachers' self-efficacy was considered as the dependent variable. As it is observed in table 3, it revealed a significant difference between the English teachers and content teachers in general as far as the role of experience on self-efficacy is concerned, where the obtained F value was 3.39 and P value was .036. Regarding the mean of two groups, mean scores of English teachers (Mean= 90.18; SD=10.274) were found to higher than those of content teachers (Mean= 77.26; SD= 12.183). With respect to these results, by considering the experience of teachers in general, English teachers had a higher level of self-efficacy, in comparison to the content teachers.

Table 2 Descriptive statistics for self-efficacy and experience

Group	Experience	N	Mean	SD
English Teachers	Low experience	69	89.54	8.197
	Mid experience	14	91.14	13.705
	High experience	11	93.00	16.358
	Total	94	90.18	10.274
Content Teachers	Low experience	70	75.06	11.468
	Mid experience	15	83.13	11.445
	High experience	4	93.75	8.342
	Total	89	77.26	12.183
Total	Low experience	139	82.25	12.315
	Mid experience	29	87.00	13.011
	High experience	15	93.20	14.359
	Total	183	83.90	12.948

The following table shows the results of two-way ANOVA for the results of experience and expertise on the teachers' self-efficacy.

Table 3 Results of two-way ANOVA for experience and expertise

Source	Type II sum of squares	Df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Intercept	544082.882	1	544082.882	4629.240	.000
Group	930.648	1	930.648	7.918	.005
Experience	1712.595	2	856.298	7.286	.001

Group*experience	796.951	2	398.475	3.390	.036
Error	20803.128	177	117.432		
Total	1318569	183			

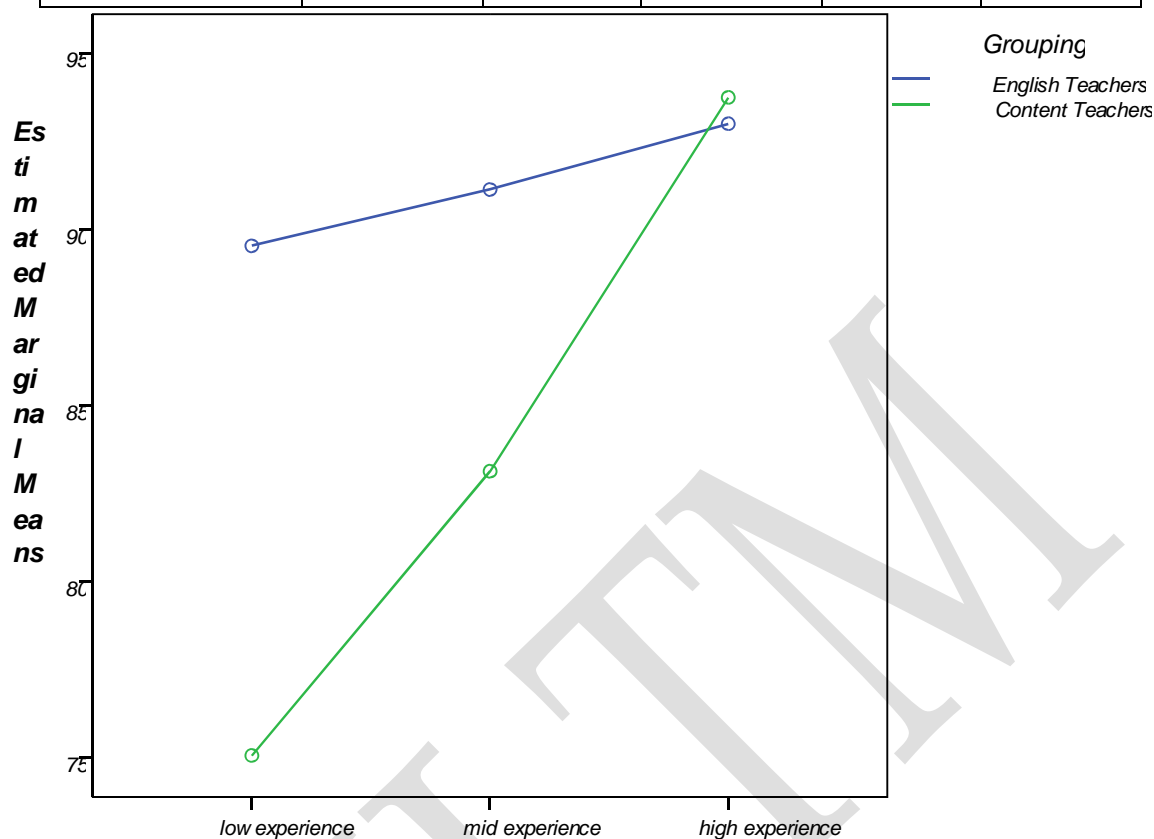


Figure1 Means plot for experience and expertise

Now, in order to see the effect of experience in details, as it was divided into three groups including low, mid, and high, data of both groups were analyzed by using independent sample t-tests for three levels of experience separately. As it is clear from table 5, there is a significant difference between the content and English teachers with low experience as the t value of 8.553 is significant at .001 ($p < .001$). By looking at table 4.4, we can see that the mean of English teachers ($M=89.54$; $SD= 8.197$) is more than content teachers' mean ($M=75.06$; $SD= 11.468$).

Table 4 Descriptive statistics for the low experience teachers

Self-efficacy	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Content Teacher low	70	75.06	11.468	1.371
English Teacher low	69	89.54	8.197	.987

As mentioned before and indicated in tables 4 and 5, the mean of low experience English teachers was significantly higher than that of content teachers.

Table 5 Independent sample t-test for low experience teachers

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
	F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference

						ce	
	Equal variances assumed	2.757	.099	-8.553	137	.000	-14.479 1.693

The same procedure was followed for mid experience teachers. Table 6 summarizes the descriptive statistics.

Table 6 Descriptive statistics for mid experience teachers

Self-efficacy	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Content Teacher mid	14	82.21	11.288	3.017
English Teacher mid	15	90.60	13.373	3.453

Regarding the difference between the content and English teachers of mid experience group and by looking at table 6, we can see that the mean of English teacher with middle experience ($M=90.60$; $SD=13.373$) is more than content teachers' mean ($M=82.21$; $SD=11.288$) although this difference is not significant. In other words, both English and content teachers of mid experience levels were almost equal with reference to their level of self-efficacy.

Table 7 Independent samples t-test for mid experience teachers

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
	Equal variances assumed	.675	.419	-1.818	27	.08	-8.386	4.613

Accordingly, the same procedure was followed for high experience groups. The following table depicts the descriptive statistics.

Table 8 Descriptive statistics for high experience teachers

Self-efficacy	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Content Teacher high	4	93.75	8.342	4.171
English Teacher high	11	93.00	16.358	4.932

As far as the difference between the content and English teachers with high experience is concerned, as it can be observed from table 9, there is no significant difference between the content and English teachers with high experience as the t value of .086 is not significant at .001 ($p > .001$). Furthermore, by looking at table 4.8, we can see that the mean of English teacher with high experience ($M=93.00$; $SD=16.356$) is almost the same as the content teachers' mean ($M=93.75$; $SD=8.342$). In other words, both English and content teachers with high experience were almost equal with reference to their level of self-efficacy.

Table 9 Independent samples t-test for high experience teachers

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	t-test for Equality of Means
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		F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
	Equal variances assumed	2.756	.121	.086	13	.933	.75	8.698

4.1.2 Results pertaining to Degree and Expertise

The second two-way ANOVA was intended to find the effect of teachers' degrees and expertise. Descriptive statistics for them on this subcomponent are presented in Table 10.

Table 10 Descriptive statistics for educational degrees

Group	Degree	Mean	SD	N
English Teacher	BA	88.70	8.193	10
	MA	90.24	10.060	70
	PHD	90.93	13.006	14
	Total	90.18	10.274	94
Content Teacher	BA	72.90	12.849	21
	MA	77.23	10.602	48
	PHD	81.90	13.856	20
	Total	77.26	12.183	89
Total	BA	78.00	13.658	31
	MA	84.95	12.085	118
	PHD	85.62	14.054	34
	Total	83.90	12.948	183

Again, in order to answer the second research question, first, a two-way ANOVA was used. As it is evident from table 11, there is no significant difference between the English teachers and content teachers in general as far as the role of educational degree on self-efficacy is concerned, where the obtained F value was .718 and P value was .489 ($P > .001$) although, by considering the mean of two groups, mean scores of English teachers (Mean= 90.18; SD= 10.274) were found to be higher than those of content teachers (Mean= 77.26; SD= 12.183).

Table 11 Two-way ANOVA for educational degree and expertise

Source	Type II sum of squares	Df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Intercept	828193.932	1	828193.932	6657.753	.000
Group	4706.881	1	4706.881	37.838	.000
Degree	469.053	2	234.527	1.885	.155
Group*degree	178.706	2	89.353	.718	.489
Error	22017.989	177	124.395		
Total	1318569.000	182			

As evident in the table, the interaction of group and degree has an insignificant role on the teachers' sense of self-efficacy.

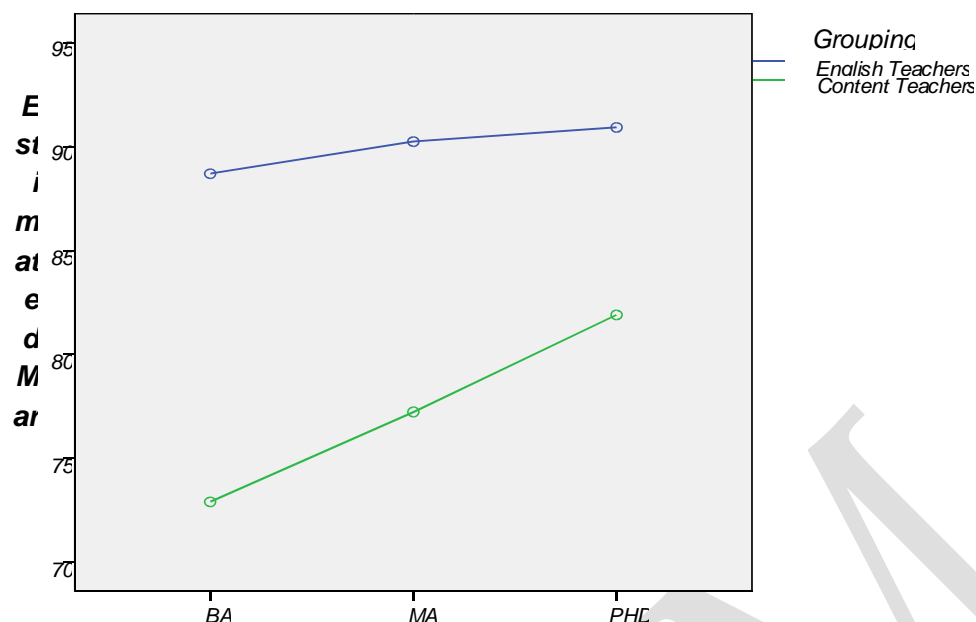


Figure 2 Means plot for degree and expertise

Now, in order to see the effect of three levels of educational degree including BA, MA, and PhD in details, data of both groups were analyzed by using an independent sample t-test for three levels of educational degree separately.

Table 12 Descriptive statistics for PhD participants

Self-efficacy	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Content Teacher PHD	20	81.90	13.856	3.098
English Teacher PHD	14	90.93	13.006	3.476

As it is clear from table 13, there is no significant difference between the content and English teachers having PhD degree as the t value of 1.917 is not significant at .001 (.064 > .001). However, by looking at table 4.12, we can see that the mean of English teacher (M=90.93; SD= 13.006) is more than content teachers' mean (M=81.90; SD= 13.856). Therefore, we can come to this conclusion that English and content teachers having PhD degree were almost at the same level of success with regard to their level of self-efficacy.

Table 13 Independent samples t-test for teachers' having Ph.D. degree

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
	Equal variances assumed	.288	.595	-1.917	32	.064	-9.029	4.710

Regarding the difference between the content and English teachers having MA degree, as it is evident from table 15, a significant difference was found between the content and English teachers having MA degree as the t value of -6.868 is significant at .001 ($p < .001$). Further, by looking at table 4.14, we can see that the mean of English teachers having MA degree (M=90.24; SD= 10.060) is more than content teachers' mean (M=76.96; SD= 10.546). In other words, English teachers having MA degree had significantly higher levels of self-efficacy.

Table 14 Descriptive statistics for teachers' having MA degree

Self-efficacy	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Content Teacher MA	47	76.96	10.546	1.538
English Teacher MA	70	90.24	10.060	1.202

In other words and as shown in the following table, English teachers having MA degree had higher levels of self-efficacy.

Table 15 Independent samples t-test for teachers' having MA degree

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
	Equal variances assumed	.068	.794	-6.868	115	.000	-13.285	1.934

Finally, as far as the difference between the content and English teachers having BA degree was concerned, as it is evident from table 4.17, a significant difference was found between the content and English teachers having BA degree as the t value of -4.377 is significant at .001 ($p < .001$). In addition, by looking at table 4.16, we can see that the mean of English teacher having BA degree ($M=88.70$; $SD=8.193$) is more than content teachers' mean ($M=75.15$; $SD=7.896$). In other words and as shown in the following table, English teachers having BA degree had significantly higher levels of self-efficacy.

Table 16 Descriptive statistics for teachers' having BA degree

Self-efficacy	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Content Teacher BA	20	75.15	7.896	1.766
English Teacher BA	10	88.70	8.193	2.591

In other words and as shown in the following table, English teachers having BA degree had significantly higher levels of self-efficacy.

Table 17 Independent samples t-test for teachers' having BA degree

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
	Equal variances assumed	.621	.437	-4.377	28	.000	-13.55	3.095

Conclusion

Regarding the role of teachers experience in this study, There is a significant difference between the English teachers and content teachers in general as far as the role of experience on self-efficacy is concerned, With respect to these results, by considering the experience of teachers in general, English

teachers had a higher level of self-efficacy, in comparison to the content teachers. Regarding the role of educational degree in enhancing content and English teachers' self-efficacy as the second purpose of the study, there was no significant difference between the English teachers and content teachers in general as far as the role of educational degree on self-efficacy was concerned. In other words, English teachers had almost the same level of self-efficacy, with the content teachers. In relation to the teachers' efficacy levels among the teachers in the present study, it is important to note that the teachers' self-reported English teaching efficacy or confidence levels in the present study were found to be lower than those in the previous studies adopting the same scale. The present study also found that English proficiency levels, which is different between English and content teachers had a substantial relationship with all of the English teaching-specific efficacy dimensions. This result means the teachers who have higher English proficiency tended to believe more strongly in their capability for teaching English.

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USE OF METACOGNITIVE READING STRATEGIES BY IRANIAN EFL STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT

The results of many studies are indicative of the fact that proficient readers use one or more metacognitive strategies to comprehend texts. Accordingly, this metacognitive awareness has been found to be a part of an evolutionary continuum and use of such strategies develop over time as the reader learns which ones are best suited to aid in comprehension. The present study aimed to identify the kind of metacognitive reading strategies that are mostly used by Iranian Intermediate EFL students. The participants of this study were 92 Iranian Intermediate EFL students of grade one studying in Shahid Eslami high school in Shahrabak, Kerman. First, Nelson English Language Proficiency Test (NELT) was implemented to homogenize participants with regard to proficiency level. Afterwards, the standard Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategies Inventory (MARSI) was administered to the learners. The findings revealed that students use global strategies more than problem solving and support reading strategies. The results bear pedagogical implication regarding reading comprehension instruction, which are discussed.

Keywords: Reading Comprehension; Metacognitive Strategies; Foreign Language Teaching

1. Introduction

Long ago, reading comprehension used to be considered as a passive skill because the reader does not produce message in the same sense as a speaker or writer. Reading, however, requires active mental processing for communication to occur. Thus, referring to reading as a passive skill perpetuates a misconception that can only mislead students and harm their perception of what their role in the reading process is (Chastain, 1988).

According to Grabe (1991), reading is an essential skill and probably the most important skill for second language learners to master in academic contexts. Since reading comprehension has been distinctively important both in first and second/foreign languages, reading strategies are of great interest in the field of reading research. For these reasons, the ability to read and understand English effectively is regarded as the most important skill for ESL/EFL students at all levels.

Reading research has also shed light on metacognitive awareness of reading strategies, perception of strategies, and strategy training and use in reading comprehension. More recent researches have begun to focus on metacognition, i.e., cognition of cognition. These studies investigate the relationships among metacognitive awareness, strategy use, and reading comprehension (Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001; Bazerman, 1985; Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995; Fung, Wilkinson, and Moore, 2003).

Tierney (2005) stated learning to read is not only learning to recognize words; it is also learning to make sense of texts. It involves a great deal of cognitive capacity available for comprehension (Pressley, 2002). These comprehension strategies are metacognitive concepts in reading. If students are capable of comprehending what they are reading through a variety of strategies, they will create an interested and self-regulative attitude toward the path of language achievement. In addition, according to Anderson (2003), reading is the interaction of four things including the reader, the text, the fluent reading, and strategic reading. Discovering the best methods and techniques or processes the learners choose to access, is the goal of research in reading strategies.

Wallace (2005) has observed that in EFL reading classes students usually do not have the opportunity to perform higher order thinking tasks. Consequently, they do not learn to read critically, nor do they reach evaluative understanding of the text and develop their thinking ability. Oftentimes, students get frustrated and lose motivation for independent reading because they are used to listening to teachers' explanations. Again, as Wallace has stated, students have developed only one strong "reading strategy" over the years: that of listening to the teacher explaining the text word by word, sentence by sentence. Because reading classrooms lack class interaction, students are not actively engaged in the meaning-making process or, at best, the process involves readers' decoding of text. Therefore, the existing knowledge of students is not effectively drawn out for the benefit of the whole class. There is a lack of richness and diversity in classroom activity. Placing a strong emphasis on EFL students' metacognitive knowledge of oral strategies, Zhang and Goh (2006) found that while the students were generally aware of the usefulness of the strategies, they were not conscious and confident strategy users, indicating a need to increase their repertoire of strategies.

Based on the above-mentioned reasons, it was revealed that successful comprehension does not occur automatically. Rather, it depends on directed cognitive effort, referred to as metacognitive processing, which consists of knowledge about and regulation of cognitive processing. Despite the consensus on the significance of metacognitive awareness and reading comprehension, there are limited studies on these issues. Building on previous studies, this study aimed to explore whether metacognitive strategy instruction has any effect on reading comprehension of Iranian Intermediate EFL learners.

In recent years, a great deal of research in the fields of L1 and ESL has been conducted on reading strategy training. Strategy training comes from the assumption that success in learning mainly depends on appropriate strategy use and that unsuccessful learners can improve their reading by being trained to use effective strategies (Dansereau, 1985; Weinstein and Underwood, 1985). Many studies have shown that reading strategies can be taught to students, and when taught, strategies help improve student's performance in comprehension and recall tests. However, very little data about the suitability and the applicability of English reading skills with regard to training strategies in an EFL reading classroom context has been collected. In order to bridge this gap and present a new, practical and valid teaching method, the present study has attempted to recognize the role of strategy training in improving reading comprehension skills of EFL students.

The goal of this study was to find out which metacognitive reading strategies are frequently used by Iranian Intermediate EFL students. Accordingly, the following research question will lead the study: What metacognitive reading strategies do Iranian Intermediate EFL students mostly resort to?

2. Literature Review

Just like teaching methodology, reading theories have had their shifts and transitions. Starting from the traditional view which focused on the printed form of a text and moving to the cognitive view that enhanced the role of background knowledge in addition to what appeared on the printed page, they ultimately culminated in the metacognitive view which is now in vogue. It is based on the control and manipulation that a reader can have on the act of comprehending a text.

With respect to a definition of *reading strategies* there is no consensus among researchers. It is difficult to differentiate between reading strategies and other processes such as thinking, learning, or motivational strategies. Moreover, there are opposing viewpoints considering intentionality and consciousness of strategies (see Paris, Wasik, & Turner, 1991). Pearson, Roehler, Dole, and Duffy (1992), for example, defined strategies as conscious and flexible plans that readers apply and adapt to particular texts and tasks, and Wellman (1988) argued that a strategy has to be "employed deliberately, with some awareness" (p. 5). Conversely, Pressley, Forrest-Pressley, & Elliot-Faust (1988) stated that "it is now recognized that strategies function best without deliberation" (p.102). Paris et al.

(1991) defined reading strategies as "a wide range of tactics that readers use to engage and comprehend text" (p. 610). Paris et al. also made a distinction between reading skills and strategies. In their view, skills refer to automatic techniques, which are applied unconsciously. Strategies, in contrast, are deliberately selected actions to achieve certain goals. A strategy can become a skill and vice versa.

According to Alexander, Graham, and Harris (1998), general strategies can be classified as either *cognitive*, *metacognitive*, or *self-regulatory*. General cognitive strategies, for example, are rehearsal, summarization, predicting, elaboration, and patterning. In Alexander et al.'s view, metacognition or executive control can be seen as the ability to contemplate or monitor one's cognitive thoughts and actions. Successful learners must possess the ability to oversee, evaluate, and control their thinking. Self-regulation not only pertains to cognitive performance but also to the regulation of one's motivational state, behavior, and social environment.

There are a range of reading strategies in the research literature; however, the basic reading strategies the students covered in this project included recalling background information, making predictions about the text, performing frequent comprehension checks, re-reading the text, guessing words in context, confirming predictions, discriminating between important and unimportant ideas, and summarizing the text. From the research literature, it is clear that there is a specific interest in the area of metacognitive awareness of reading strategies (Iwai, 2009). One recent example is from Alsheikh and Mokhtari (2011) who studied how native Arabic-speaking college students used reading strategies when reading English. They concluded that raising the awareness of reading strategies through explicit teaching is useful. First accounts of metacognition were strongly linked to early cognitive learning theories. According to cognitive psychology, cognition is the mental ability to learn and acquire knowledge; it refers to the processing of information, applying knowledge, and changing preferences, whereas metacognition refers to what learners do to plan, monitor and evaluate the process. J.H. Flavell (232) first used the word "metacognition" which he described as the process of thinking about thinking and refers to one's knowledge concerning one's own cognitive processes or anything related to them. Flavell argued that metacognition explains why children of different ages deal with learning tasks in different ways, and why some are more successful than others. Metacognition is not only about planning for mental processing, it is also about planning for control of anxiety, timing, interaction, practice and evaluation of learning. It is the executive organizer of all the elements which intervene in the whole learning process.

Salataci and Akyel (2002) explored the effectiveness of instruction for metacognitive strategies in both Turkish and English among Turkish learners. They were interested in whether or not an explicit training for metacognitive strategies would make a difference in reading comprehension for EFL learners. Twenty EFL learners at a university in Turkey participated in the study. They took pre- and post-tests both in Turkish (their first language) and English (their foreign language). Observation and interviews were also included in the study, and eight of the subjects also employed think-aloud tasks. For four weeks, in a three-hour-per-week class, the participants were taught how to use metacognitive strategies, especially how to activate background knowledge and how to monitor their reading process. Differences of reading strategies before and after the training were found in the study: local strategies (such as using a dictionary and focusing on grammar or word meaning) for reading in both Turkish and English were used less often after the training than before, and after instruction, the use of global strategies (including predicting, skimming for main ideas, and summarizing) increased for reading in both languages. In other words, the explicit training positively influenced the use of the global strategies for the EFL students.

Fung, Wilkinson, and Moore (2003) studied whether or not learning metacognitive strategies in the first and second languages of ESL students would make a difference for their English reading comprehension. Twelve sixth- or seventh-grade Chinese ESL students in New Zealand participated in an intervention for metacognitive reading strategies in both Chinese and English. During this training, instructors explicitly taught how to monitor reading progress, summarize, question, clarify, and draw inferences. After the training, student performance in the think-aloud protocols indicated that their use of metacognitive strategies when reading expository passages in both languages tremendously increased. Specifically, their abilities to draw inferences from the text in both languages were developed through *reciprocal teaching support*. The authors concluded that ESL students benefited from the treatment of metacognitive reading strategies in their first and second languages, and developed appropriate usage of these strategies. Their study is distinctive in that all students

showed great improvement, whereas in other studies, only the high-level students improved the most.

Carrel, Pharis and Liberto (2012) investigated metacognitive awareness of reading strategies and the relationships among perception of strategies, strategy use, and reading comprehension in ESL. Strategy training was provided to experimental groups. Results showed that metacognitive strategy training is effective in enhancing second language reading, and that the effectiveness of one type of training versus another may depend upon the way reading is measured. Further, their results show that the effectiveness of the training is related to differences in the learning styles of the students.

Soleimani & Hajghani (2013) investigated the potential of implementing reading strategy instruction in raising learners' reading comprehension ability, extending the range of strategies they employed and enhancing their awareness. To conduct the study, 90 Iranian pre-university female students were selected based on a convenient sampling procedure. A group of 53 students (experimental) was taught to employ reading comprehension strategies in reading some English texts during a period of 15 sessions while the other group of 37 students (control) was taught reading comprehension traditionally. The findings of the study show that while strategy training appeared to raise students' awareness of reading strategies and could encourage strategy use by some students, the reading strategy instruction was not able to enhance the students' reading performance.

Mehrpour, Sadighi & Bagheri (2012) investigated the potential of implementing reading strategy instruction in raising learner readers' awareness of reading strategies, extending the range of strategies they employed and enhancing their reading comprehension ability. To conduct the study, 90 female preuniversity students majoring in Natural Sciences were selected based on a convenient sampling procedure. After the students' existing strategy awareness and use were determined, the researchers started to teach them reading comprehension strategies explicitly. The findings of the study pointed to the problematic nature of reading strategy instruction. While strategy training appeared to raise students' awareness of reading strategies and could encourage strategy use by some students, some strategies were found to be harder to be acquired. Moreover, the reading strategy instruction was not able to enhance the students' reading performance significantly based on the results of a reading comprehension test given to the participants at the end of the program.

Khonamri and Ahmadi (2014) investigated the effect of metacognitive and reading comprehension strategy training on reading ability of Iranian Elementary EFL learners. There were two experimental groups and one control group at elementary level. The first experimental group was taught reading comprehension strategies and the second one received metacognitive strategy training. The results indicated that the participants' reading ability in the two experimental groups has increased. Furthermore, the results of paired t-test illustrate that metacognitive strategy training had more significant effect on students' reading ability compared to reading comprehension strategy instruction. In short, the findings of this study suggest that strategy awareness significantly contributes to reading ability of students and the higher their knowledge of reading processes, the better their reading ability.

3. Methodology

3.1. Participants

The participants of this study were 92 Iranian Intermediate EFL students of grade one studying in Shahid Eslami high school in Shahrabak, Kerman. The reason for selecting this high school was its large population of students studying in grade one. They were all female and native speakers of Persian whose level of education were approximately the same because they passed the entrance exam to enter this school. The students were informed that they were selected to participate in a research, and they agreed to do so.

3.2. Instrument

3.2.1. Nelson English Language Proficiency Test

For the purpose of this study, 60 students were selected from among 92 intermediate EFL students of grade one through a 50-item Nelson English Language Proficiency Test (NELT) adopted from W S Fowler and Norman Coe (1978) with reasonable measures of validity and reliability. This version of Nelson English Language Test (section 150A) was administered to determine the subjects' language proficiency level. The test included 50 multiple-choice items testing grammatical points and

knowledge of vocabulary. Students had to choose the correct answer which best completed the sentence.

3.2.2. The Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategies Inventory (MARSİ) Questionnaire (Mokhtari & Reichard, 2002)

The students' metacognitive awareness of reading strategies was assessed through the use of the Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategies Inventory (MARSİ) Questionnaire designed to measure adolescent and adult students' awareness and use of reading strategies while reading academic or school-related materials. MARSİ is an improved questionnaire from a psychometric and theoretical perspective. The items on this inventory consist of statements reflecting thoughts, actions and strategies associated with comprehending text material. The subject is to respond to each item by circling a quantitative value that represents the following: 1, I never do this to 5, I always do this.

The MARSİ Questionnaire measures three broad categories of reading strategies including:

(1) *Global Reading Strategies* (GLOB), which contains 13 items, can be thought of as generalized or global reading strategies aimed at setting the stage for the reading act (e.g., setting a purpose for reading, previewing text content, predicting what the text is about, etc.)

(2) *Problem-Solving Strategies* (PROB), which contains 8 items, are localized, focused problem solving or repair strategies used when problems develop in understanding textual information (e.g., checking one's understanding upon encountering conflicting information, re-reading for better understanding, etc.)

(3) *Support Reading Strategies* (SUP), which contains 9 items, involves using the support mechanisms or tools aimed at sustaining responsiveness to reading (e.g., use of reference materials like dictionaries and other support systems).

The 30-item questionnaire was validated by Mokhtari and Reichard (2002) using large subject population representing students with equivalent reading abilities ranging from middle school to college. The internal consistency reliability coefficient for its three above subscales ranged from 0.89 to 0.93 and reliability for the total sample was 0.93, showing a reasonably dependable measure of metacognitive awareness of reading strategies. Following Mokhtari and Sheorey's (2002) analysis of the MARSİ, frequencies were counted and averaged to determine the types of strategies used by the students. The higher the averages the more frequently the student used the strategy concerned. To explain this further, individual scores from each student were added up to obtain a total score for each subscale and for the entire instrument. The scores were interpreted using the interpretation key provided by Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002).

4. Results and Discussion

After analyzing the questionnaires, the mean and the standard deviation of every question are calculated, which are shown in below and then, the substantial results are described.

Table 4.5. Reported reading strategy use

	Scale	Strategy	Mean	St.deviation
1	GLOB	I have a purpose in mind when I read.	3.93	1.10
2	SUB	I take notes while reading to help me understand what I read	3.07	1.35
3	GLOB	I think about what I know to help me understand what I read	3.77	1.06
4	GLOB	I preview the text to see what it's about before reading it.	3.63	1.09
5	SUP	When text becomes difficult, I read aloud to help me understand what I read.	3.90	1.31
6	SUP	I summarize what I read to reflect on important information in the text.	3.87	1.00
7	GLOB	I think about whether the content of the	3.66	1.00

		text fits my reading purpose.		
8	PROB	I read slowly but carefully to be sure I understand what I'm reading.	4.43	0.67
9	SUP	I discuss what I read with others to check my understanding.	3.47	1.07
10	GLOB	I skim the text first by noting characteristics like length and organization.	2.67	1.36
11	PROB	I try to get back on track when I lose concentration.	4.37	0.92
12	SUP	I underline or circle information in the text to help me remember it.	4.37	0.88
13	PROB	I adjust my reading speed according to what I'm reading	4.07	0.94
14	GLOB	. I decide what to read closely and what to ignore.	4.37	0.84
15	SUP	I use reference materials such as dictionaries to help me understand what I read.	3.77	1.09
16	PROB	When text becomes difficult, I pay closer attention to what I'm reading.	4.47	0.57
17	GLOB	I use tables, figures, and pictures in text to increase my understanding.	3.83	0.91
18	PROB	I stop from time to time and think about what I'm reading	3.23	1.18
19	GLOB	I use context clues to help me better understand what I'm reading	3.76	1.05
20	SUP	I paraphrase (restate ideas in my own words) to better understand what I read	4.53	0.77
21	PROB	I try to picture or visualize information to help remember what I read	3.73	1.13
22	GLOB	I use typographical aids like bold face and italics to identify key information.	3.03	1.36
23	GLOB	I critically analyze and evaluate the information presented in the text.	2.86	1.23
24	SUP	I go back and forth in the text to find relationships among ideas in it	3.52	1.26
25	GLOB	I check my understanding when I come across conflicting information.	3.83	1.03
26	GLOB	I try to guess what the material is about when I read.	3.41	1.08
27	PROB	When text becomes difficult, I re-read to increase my understanding.	4.47	0.77
28	SUP	I ask myself questions I like to have answered in the text.	3.97	0.99
29	GLOB	I check to see if my guesses about the text are right or wrong	4.03	1.14
30	PROB	I try to guess the meaning of unknown words or phrases.	3.67	1.10

Global Reading Strategies (GLOB):

In MARSQ Questionnaire, Global Reading Strategies are measured by questions 1,3,4,7,10,14,17,19,22,23,25,26,29. The mean scores of these questions are calculated in follow:

$$\text{mean} = \frac{q1 + q3 + q4 + q7 + q10 + q14 + q17 + q19 + q22 + q23 + q25 + q26 + q29}{13}$$

The mean of Global Reading Strategies is 3.60 that is more than 3.5 and is in the high category.

Problem-Solving Strategies (PROB):

In MARSQ Questionnaire, Problem-Solving Strategies are measured by questions 8,11,13,16,18,21,27,30. The mean scores of these questions are calculated in follow:

$$\text{mean} = \frac{q8 + q11 + q13 + q16 + q18 + q21 + q27 + q30}{8}$$

The mean of Problem-Solving Strategies is 4.05 which is more than 3.5 and is in the high category, too.

Support Reading Strategies (SUP):

In MARSQ Questionnaire, Support Reading Strategies are measured by questions 2,5,6,9,12,15,20,24,28. The mean scores of these questions are calculated in follow:

$$\text{mean} = \frac{q2 + q5 + q6 + q9 + q12 + q15 + q20 + q24 + q28}{9}$$

The mean of Support Reading Strategies is 3.83 which is more than 3.5 and is in the high category, too.

Comparing the GLOB, PROB and SUP

The means of each subscale of the inventory (GLOB, PROB and SUP) respectively are 3.60, 4.05 and 3.83 and they can be sorted as $PROB > SUP > GLOB$. Therefore, it is concluded that the students use GLOB strategies most and PROB more than SUB when reading. The mean and standard deviation of MRS according to participants' responses to MARSQ questionnaire are shown in table 4.6. below.

Table 4.6. Mean and Standard Deviation of Metacognitive Reading Strategies

Strategy	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
GLOB	60	1	5	3.60	
SUP	60	1	5	4.05	
PROB	60	1	5	3.83	1.03

To sum up, this study aimed to explore the kind of metacognitive reading strategies that are mostly used by Iranian Intermediate EFL students. The findings show that students use global strategies more than problem solving and support reading strategies. Taken together, the findings reported here underscore the importance of helping EFL readers alike develop their metacognitive awareness of specific reading strategies deemed necessary for proficient reading. As Pressley and Afflerbach (1995) have argued, teachers can play a part in enhancing students' awareness of such strategies, and in assisting them to become constructively responsive readers. It bears noting here that an awareness of strategic reading does indeed lead to actual use of these strategies while reading. Furthermore, the integration of metacognitive reading strategy instruction within reading curricula will no doubt play a vital role in enriching students' awareness of the mental processes involved in reading and the development of thoughtful and constructively responsive reading. Teaching students to become constructively responsive readers can promote skillful academic reading, which, in turn, can enhance academic achievement (Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001).

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ON THE CORRELATION BETWEEN IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS' ' SELF-REGULATION CAPACITY AND THEIR SELF EFFICACY

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ABSTRACT

This study aimed at investigating any probable correlation between Iranian EFL learners' Emotional intelligence and their self-regulation capacity. To do so, 100 male and female Iranian language learners from Islamic Azad university of Miyaneh, Iran were administered Emotional Intelligence (EI) and self-regulation questionnaires. Having run the correlations analysis, the results revealed that there was a significant correlation between participants' emotional intelligence and their self-regulation capacity. Conducting studies like the present one may contribute effectively on providing better teaching and learning environment to overcome learners' psychological and affective barriers in EFL situation.

Key Words: Emotional Intelligence, self-regulation, EFL

1. Introduction

English as a foreign language (EFL) classroom can be really different from any other classroom in schools and universities. Since, there are many obstacles and difficulties in learning how to speak a language, there have been a lot of research conducted in this area. It is just in the last few decades that the affective domain or the emotional side of human behavior was considered as important for success in language learning as cognitive processing. Considering the work of humanistic psychologists in 1960s, second-language scholars and teachers began to include different domains of the affective dimension of a learner in language teaching and learning. According to Arnold (1999) the personal characteristics, attitudes, frame of mind as well as the atmosphere of the classroom, or the quality of classroom interaction may result in promoting or impeding learning. Another factor which is considered an important one and even the most important one is EFL learners' self-regulation capacity. According to Zimmerman (2000), self-regulation refers to regular efforts to direct thoughts, actions, and feelings toward the achievement of one's goals. Self-regulation is a very important factor for language learners' success due to the fact that it is never possible for a language teacher to teach a foreign language fully due to some reasons, the most essential and obvious of which is the dynamic nature of language. Although some studies have examined the role of motivation and some personality factors of the EFL learners, there is still a lack of research on foreign language situation in which emotional intelligence of college language learners in Iranian EFL context and their self-regulation capacity were studied. The primary purpose of the present study is, therefore, to investigate the correlation between self-regulation and emotional intelligence among Iranian EFL college students.

2. Review of Literature

2.1. Emotional Intelligence and Language Learning

One factor which is considered an important one and even the most important factor is EFL learners' intelligence. According to Bar-On (2004), emotional intelligence can be defined as "an array of non-cognitive capabilities, competencies, and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in the coping with environmental demands and pressures" (p.111). Bar-On (1988) first coined the term emotional quotient (EQ) as a counterpart to Intelligence Quotient (IQ), that is, to cognitive ability. Bar-On thought that EQ represents a set of social, personal and emotional abilities that help individuals cope with the demands and needs of daily life. In addition, he believes that emotional Intelligence (EI) addresses the emotional, personal, social, and survival aspects of intelligence. Emotional intelligence and skills develop and increase over time, change throughout life, are process-oriented, and can be improved through training (Bar-On 2004). Study of EI in the educational setting is a relatively new endeavor and, as such, few studies have focused on the overall effects of EI on foreign or second language learning. These studies have been restricted to certain dimensions as management, anxiety, strategy use, or motivation only. In English as a foreign or second language context, different studies examined the relationship between EQ and second language success (e.g., Chao, 2003; Clement, Dornyei, & Noels, 1994; Nelson & Low, 1999). For instance, Aghasafari (2006) found a positive relationship between overall EQ and language learning strategies. Furthermore, Riemer (2003) argues that EQ skills contribute to the learning potential of foreign language acquisition, especially since it relates to accepting the legitimacy of other cultures as being equally valid. In a second/foreign language (SL/FL) context, Fahim and Pishghadam (2007) examined the relationship between EQ and second language success among 528 university students in Tehran, Iran. EI scores were positively correlated with the learners' Grade Point Average (GPA) and the scores that learners got at the end of second year at the university in listening, reading, speaking, and writing. The results showed that second language skills and GPA significantly correlated with stress management and intrapersonal skills in the emotional intelligence questionnaire. In addition, using Bar-On's Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-I) and a revised version of the Oxford's Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL), Aghasafari (2006) in a correlational design investigated the relationship between EQ and second language learning strategies among 100 sophomore participants at Islamic Azad University in Iran. The results indicated that there was a positive relationship between overall EQ and language learning strategies. In Iranian EFL context, there have been some studies on Emotional intelligence and linguistic intelligence; for example, Rouhani (2008) provided empirical evidence for the relation between verbal intelligence and self-regulatory competence, and Esfandiari and Ekradi (2014) have investigated the relationship between Iranian EFL Learners' emotional intelligence and their performance on cloze test. In another study, Pishghadam (2009) has predicted second language learning success from EFL learners' emotional intelligence variables. However, there has still been scarcity of empirical research that investigate the relationship between emotional intelligence, foreign language learners' affective factors and foreign language classroom anxiety. This reason encourages the researchers to conduct the present study to investigate the relationship between Iranian EFL learner's emotional intelligence and their self-regulation capacity.

2.2. Self-Regulation and Language Learning

Self-regulation in learning refers to the cognitive and behavioral processes learners apply when engaging with learning tasks or activities. These choices and actions finally can determine the success of learning attempts and serve to sustain learner motivation in the classroom and beyond. In the last three decades, self-regulation has emerged as a central concept in psychology, as scholars tried to include cognitive, affective, motivational and behavioral aspects into theories that explain how individuals adjust their actions and goals to achieve desired ends under variable conditions (Zeidner, Boekaerts, & Pintrich, 2000). The field is now represented by a large literature comprising many models.

Zimmerman (1989, p. 22) states that "theories of self-regulation place their focus on *how* students activate, alter, and sustain specific learning practices in solitary as well as social settings, in informal as well as formal instructional contexts ". He adds that "these theorists believe that learning is not something that happens *to* students; it is something that happens *by* students. In recent years, the field of language teaching and learning seems to be heading away from a focus on the teacher to that of the

learner and their language learning processes (Dörnyei, 2005). Parallel to this, the focus of language learning research in the last two decades has similarly shifted from investigating the 'what' or product to the 'how' or process of language learning. Dörnyei and Skehan (2003) suggest that researchers have shifted the emphasis from the product to the process of language learning when they investigated language learners' self-regulation. In another study, to assess strategic learning, Tseng, Dörnyei and Schmitt (2006) have emphasized the inadequacy of psychometric instruments in measuring the capacity of strategic learning. They presented a new approach and introduced a new instrument to measure language learner self-regulation in a situated manner.

Drawing on work done in educational psychology, Tseng, et al. (2006) proposed a new approach to generating a psychometrically-based measure of second language learners' strategic learning. Language learners' strategic learning was defined as their self-regulatory capacity. The self-regulation instrument was developed as an alternative to the scales conventionally employed to measure language learning strategy use. The results demonstrate that the proposed tool has satisfactory psychometric characteristics and that the hypothesized theoretical model had a good fit with the data. They stress that the results give support for the soundness of transferring the theoretical construct of self-regulation from educational psychology to the area of second language acquisition.

A number of studies on self-regulation in language learning have been carried out in Western contexts (Mezei, 2008). Drawing upon the social cognitive and sociocultural perspectives of self-regulation, Wang, Quach, and Rolston (2009) investigated the development of four male Chinese English language learners' use of self-regulated learning strategies. Their case study participants were students at an elementary school in the United States. The focus of this qualitative study was on how SRL strategies were learned and used across home-based and school-based contexts by the learners. Findings from multiple sources of data showed that these young English language learners employed more strategies in reading activities compared to writing activities. The most commonly reported and observed strategies employed by the four young participants were seeking social assistance, seeking information, and environmental structuring. Although this study looked at young learners, the findings supported other studies of students' use of language-learning strategies that effective learners are more flexible with their repertoire of strategies and are more successful at monitoring and adapting their strategies. The data from the study also indicated that the incorporation of SRL strategies into the teaching of English helped in students' construction of their own strategies. Using a qualitative approach, Bown (2009) investigated adult learners' self-regulatory strategies and agency when learning Russian in the context of individualized instruction at a Midwestern U.S. university. The findings showed that contextual factors such as learners' self-beliefs and social support had an influence on the self-regulatory strategies they used. Bown highlighted that in the context of individualized instruction, the most important self-regulatory strategy the learners must employ is structuring the learning environment to meet their language learning needs. Due to the isolation felt by the learners in this self-instructed language learning context, they needed to deal with negative emotions like avoidance with positive self-talk. Self-regulation and motivation of adult language learners of different proficiency levels in English language learning was investigated in Mezei's (2008) classroom-based study. The case study findings showed that a learner within the upper intermediate level is more conscious of her language learning processes and more competent in regulating her language learning than the pre-intermediate learner. She self-initiated her learning process by using effective learning strategies to achieve her intrinsic language learning goal. The learner with a higher proficiency level practiced self-reflection, and thus was more aware of her language strengths and specific areas to improve. However, this qualitative case study had only one learner from each proficiency level (upper and pre intermediate). Nevertheless, this study provided insight into understanding how language learners regulate their language learning in a company English language course in Hungary. Hirata (2010) examined the motivational factors affecting self-regulated learning (SRL) in the context of second language acquisition. The focus was on a particular task, the learning of kanji (adopted Chinese characters which are used in modern Japanese writing system) in Japanese, to provide a clearer picture of the complex relationship between motivation and SRL. Through quantitative methods, the fundamental structure of motivation and SRL was explored and the relationships among the extracted factors were studied. The participants were 381 tertiary students studying Japanese at different tertiary level institutions in New Zealand. Analysis of principal components identified three motivational orientations (intrinsic, instrumental mastery, and performance orientation), four sources of motivation (self-concept, self-efficacy, intrinsic value, and

extrinsic value), and four categories of self-regulation (behavioral, environmental, cognitive, and metacognitive regulation) each played a role in kanji learning. The results of correlational analyses showed a number of important relationships signifying the interdependence of the recognized constructs. Nonetheless, performance orientation, instrumental mastery, and extrinsic value did not predict learners' use of SRL. Further examination of individual and situational factors showed that learning opportunities outside the classroom probably confounded the substantial relationships between these non-predictors and SRL. Students who had chances to use kanji outside the Japanese class reported intrinsic and instrumental mastery orientations, higher self-efficacy beliefs and intrinsic and extrinsic values, and showed more positive self-concepts. Self-efficacy intrinsic orientation, intrinsic value and self-concept were considered as important predictors of SRL in general. These significant predictors showed a distinctive contribution to diverse types of SRL. The findings indicated that intrinsic interest in learning is essential for cognitive and metacognitive regulation, while a sense of positive self-concept, influenced environmental regulation and self-efficacy beliefs enabled behavioral regulation. There are consistencies in the findings of previous studies in the Western contexts that self-regulated learning (SRL) skills contribute to success in language learning (Bown, 2009; Mezei, 2008; Wang, Quach, Rolston, 2009). The literature seems to suggest that much of what is understood about the relationships between self-regulation, academic achievement, and learning is grounded in Western contexts that may possibly be inconsistent with the internalization process that is developed in non-Western contexts. Investigating how learners in different cultural and educational contexts regulate their own learning processes will provide a better understanding of different aspects of learning processes. In an Asian context, Gan, et al. (2004) looked at how university students go about their out-of-class (self-directed) English learning and sought to explore and understand the variables in their English language learning process and outcomes. This study was a follow up of a previous study by Gan, et al (2004) which investigated the relationships between self-directedness for language learning and English language learning success among undergraduates in China and Hong Kong. The findings from the subsequent qualitative study suggest that different levels of success need to be explained by "a complex and dynamic interplay of internal cognition and emotion, external incentives and social context" (p. 229).

In the Iranian context also, the linkage between self-regulation and other cognitive factors have been greatly investigated. In one study, Ghanizadeh (2012) has studied the relationship between EFL learners' self-regulation, and she has found a significant correlation between critical thinking and self-regulation ($r = 0.61$, $p < 0.05$). Their data supported the theoretical expectation of a linkage between self-regulation and cognitive factors such as critical thinking.

In another study by Bajgiran (2013) in Iranian EFL context, the effect of learners' self-regulation capacity on reading comprehension skill was investigated. He showed that there was a positive relationship between self-regulated and reading comprehension of language learners. Zarei and Hatami (2012) conducted a research on 250 university students majoring in different branches of English field. They investigated the relationship between self-regulated learning components and second language vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension. They came to the result that there is no significant relationship between self-regulated components and vocabulary knowledge, but the relationships between the same variables and reading comprehension knowledge of Iranian EFL students were mixed. Recent research conducted by Monshitousi and Boori (2011) explored the role of EFL teachers self-regulation in effective teaching. For this investigation 76 EFL teachers were participated. They discovered that there is a significance interface between EFL teachers' self-regulation and their teaching effectiveness. Their data analyses showed the existence of high correlation among the components of intrinsic interest, self-regulation, mastery goal orientation as well as emotional control. More specifically, the present study focused on four research question:

Is there any relationship between the Iranian EFL learner's self-regulation capacity and their Emotional Intelligence?

Therefore the following null hypothesis was formulated:

There is no relationship between Iranian EFL learner's self-regulation capacity and their emotional intelligence

3. Methodology

Formal instruction of EFL in Iranian educational system starts from the first year of junior high school. Jahangard (2007) states that dominant method of EFL teaching in Iran is Audiolingualism and Grammar Translation Method in which the emphasis is on learning new lists of vocabulary, explicit

teaching of grammar, and reading and translating the texts followed by doing some drills and exercises. The design of this research was non-experimental and in correlation type. Considering the nature of hypothesis and aims of this study, it was of correlation type since it dealt with the relations among the variables, and the researcher could not manipulate or alter the given variables and the level of these relations would be evaluated according to their effects and results.

3.1. Participants

The participants were chosen from Miyaneh Islamic Azad University, Iran. They were 100 university students (50 females and 50 males) studying different fields of studies. Their ages varied from 19 to 34 years old ($M = 23.21$, $SD = 2.61$); 13 learners did not specify their age. They were senior college students who were studying English as a general course at Islamic Azad universities of Miyaneh, Iran.

3.2. Instruments

3.2.1. Emotional Intelligence (EI) Questionnaire

One instrument employed in this study was, the 'Bar-On EI questionnaire, also called as the emotional quotient inventory (EQ-I). Designed by Bar-On in 1980, the Bar-On EI test is a self-report measure of emotionally and socially intelligent behavior that provides an estimate of emotional-social intelligence (Bar-On, 1997). It includes 133 items in the form of short sentences which measure five broad areas of skills and 15 factorial components. The questionnaire employs a five-point response scale with a format ranging from Strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree. Each item has the value of five ranging to one. In the present study, to avoid cross-cultural differences and probable misunderstanding regarding the content of the questionnaire, the translated Persian version of this questionnaire was employed. This resulted in an adapted final form which was reduced into 90 items. The Cronbach's Alpha reliability index was reported as 0.80 (Samouei, 2002). In another study, Dehshiri (2003) reported that the Persian version has generally acceptable construct validity, internal consistency and test-retest reliability. As he states, Cronbach's Alpha coefficient was found to be 0.76, and the results of the factor analysis provided convincing support for the inventory hypothesized structure.

3.2.2. Self-Regulation Trait (SRT) Questionnaire

To measure self-regulation, the *self-regulation trait* (SRT) questionnaire was utilized. This questionnaire includes 14 items which was designed by Bouffard and Coworkers (1995), and standardized by Kadivar (2001). It consists of 14 Likert-scale questions ranging from *almost never*, to *sometimes*, *often*, and *almost always*. Total reliability coefficient of the questionnaire which obtained by the Cronbach Alpha is 0.71. In a survey conducted by Gholami (2003) the reported reliability of mentioned test was 0.63 (as cited in Khalatbari et.al, 2013, p. 149). Besides, in a study, Nikdel (2006) and Arabzadeh (2008) (ibid .p.149) reported a reliability of 0.67 and 0.69 for this test, respectively. An inverse system of grading in questions number 5, 3 and 14 was used.

3.3. Data collection

Data was obtained by two questionnaires: the Persian versions of Emotional intelligence (EI) questionnaire by Bar-On (1980) and self-regulation trait (SRT) questionnaire by Bouffard and Coworkers (1995). The instruments were administered and the participants were asked to choose the case among Likert- scale items that were true for them. The time for answering the questionnaires were 60, and 10 minutes for self-regulation and emotional intelligence questionnaires, respectively.

3.4. Statistical analysis

Correlation analysis using SPSS statistical software (version17) was conducted to test the correlation between self-regulation, foreign language classroom anxiety and self-esteem.

4. Results

As can be understood from Table 4.3, the results of the Pearson correlational analysis indicated that EFL learners' emotional intelligence positively correlated with their self-regulation capacity ($p \geq 0.01$). We can see that the learners with lower self-regulation capacity have probably been less emotionally intelligent, and participants with higher self-regulation capacity are likely more

emotionally intelligent. Thus, the null hypothesis which states that no significant correlational relationships exist between participants' emotional intelligence and their self-regulation score was rejected. In addition, as can be understood from Table 4.4 all subscales of EQ also correlate positively with self-regulation: Intrapersonal Skills ($r = .395$, $p \geq .01$), Interpersonal Skills ($r = .245$, $p \geq .05$), Adaptability Scales ($r = .299$, $p \geq .01$), Stress Management ($r = .385$, $p \geq .01$), and General Mood ($r = .360$, $p \geq .01$).

We can observe that the learners with lower emotional intelligence have probably been less self-regulated, and participants with higher emotional intelligence are likely more self-regulated. Thus, the null hypothesis which states that no significant correlational relationships exist between participants' emotional intelligence and their self-regulation capacity was rejected.

Table 4.1.Descriptive Statistics for Self-Regulation

N	Valid	100
	Missing	0
Mean		87.5600
Std. Deviation		3.89530
Variance		15.173
Minimum		25.00
Maximum		44.00

Table 4.2.Descriptive Statistics for Self-Regulation

N	Valid	100
	Missing	0
Mean		77.5100
Std. Deviation		4.39530
Variance		10.170
Minimum		85.00
Maximum		35.00

4.3. The Relationship between Learners' Emotional Intelligence and Their Self-regulation capacity Score

		EL	Self-regulation
EL	Pearson Correlation	1	.636
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	100	100
Self-regulation	Pearson Correlation	.636	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	100	100

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

Table 4.4. The Relationship between Learners' Self-Regulation Capacity and their EI Sub-component Score

Intrapersonal	Interpersonal	Adaptability	Stress Management	General Mood	EQ
Self-regulation	0.395	0.245	0.299	0.385	0.360
	0.000	0.29	0.001	0.001	0.000

5. Discussions and Conclusions

This study was performed to seek to determine whether a correlation exists between Iranian EFL learners' self-regulation capacity and their emotional intelligence. In this sample of college students, the correlation between participants' self-regulation capacity and their emotional intelligence was positively significant; the more learners are self-regulated, the more they are emotionally intelligent. Furthermore, all subscales of emotional intelligence also correlated positively with self-regulation capacity. It can be claimed that learners having a higher degree of intrapersonal, interpersonal, adaptability, stress management, and general mood can decrease their self-regulation. Learners who have the ability to cope with and adapt to personal and interpersonal change as well as change in their immediate environment, the ability to put up with and manage stressful situations and conditions, the ability to define problems and generate effective solutions, and the ability to motivate themselves and improve their optimism are more self-regulated. These findings supported the studies of Marquez and et al. (2006) demonstrated that a person's emotional life has an effect on academic achievements, and Bar-On (2005) hypothesized that those individuals with higher EI are in general more successful in meeting environmental demands and pressures or Pishghadam (2009), in which he found that emotional intelligence was correlated with success in second language learning and also it is in line with finding of Fahim and Pishghadam (2007) that stated that there was a relationship between EQ/ IQ and verbal intelligences which in turn could account for academic achievement.

Among these subscales, Intrapersonal skills showed the highest correlation in the present research. To put it in other way, the ability to find out the psychological mechanisms and sociological dynamics that determine the emotions can reduce the anxiety experienced by EFL learners. When learners are aware of their emotions, and understand their weaknesses and strengths can express their feelings and emotions and reduce their anxiety. In addition, they can better understand the reasons behind their feelings when face with an anxious situation.

6. Implication

There are very few teacher preparation programs that offer a course or courses that educate teachers in how to affectively teach students to increase their self-regulation. A caring, nurturing atmosphere for ELL students will positively affect and help create opportunities for success in language learning. The findings of the present study also have pedagogical implications for language teachers and syllabus designers. Teachers should include activities and tasks that help learners' emotional growth in the EFL classroom, and they should try to make the classroom a calm and enjoyable environment. Syllabus designers are also advised to incorporate activities which enhance Emotional intelligence in the EFL book. Elias et al. (1997) state that emotional intelligence can be increased, trained, and schooled. Therefore, teachers should educate those who are low in emotional intelligence skills to improve their abilities to better recognize their feelings, express them, and control them. This can be done by including programs to raise the emotional intelligence of learners. Furthermore, teachers are expected to be familiar with the concept, try hard first to raise their own emotional intelligence and then try to improve the emotional intelligence of their learners. A useful technique which can be used to increase emotional intelligence is discussion groups in which the learners are asked to express their feelings freely and share it with others. It causes the learners to know themselves deeply, foster good relations with others, and reduces stress and anxiety (Pishghadam, 2009).

Learners, also can be taught to become more emotionally intelligent learners by acquiring specific strategies that are both successful for them and that enable them to increase their control over their own behavior and environment. Therefore, one of the teacher's responsibilities should be developing these skills in students. Most researchers agree that the best learning occurs when someone carefully observes and considers his/her own behavior. EFL learners who are emotionally

intelligent must learn to ask themselves "Does this strategy work for me in this situation?" As mentioned before, emotional intelligence is increased gradually, so it is essential that teachers hold developmentally appropriate expectations for learners' behavior. The classroom atmosphere can provide many opportunities for learners to practice emotional intelligence, and this is the teachers' responsibility to provide such an environment.

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MIND MAP SOFTWARE: A NOTE-TAKING STRATEGY FOR LEARNING COMMON MEDICAL PREFIXES

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ABSTRACT

Medical prefixes are an important part of the health care field to learn medical English. During these years, there have been a number of studies on learning strategies used in medical education, which can help students to learn and integrate information. The mind map, developed by Tony Buzan in the 1970s, is one of them. Mind maps are strategies that may help medical students store, process, organize, and integrate information graphically. To improve students' learning quality of medical prefixes, this study aims to see whether mind map software as a note-taking strategy assists medical students to learn common medical prefixes better. The study employed both quantitative and qualitative data analyses from test, and questionnaire. The population of this study included pre-medical students in University of Medical Sciences, Bojnurd, Iran. They were randomly divided into two groups of fifteen according to the rank obtained at the university entrance examination (Konkur). One group was standard note-taking and other was mind map group. As a subject, common medical prefixes were allocated for both groups. Mind map group was given training for mind mapping and asked them to study the subject with mind map software. A multiple-choice test with 30 items was tried out on the given subject for both groups. Marks scored in the test were compared. Lastly, a questionnaire was given to mind map group to reveal their view about mind map software as a learning strategy. According to the results of this study, students belonging to mind map group scored better than standard note-taking group. Besides, according to mind map group views, mind map software was a better learning strategy in learning medical prefixes. To conclude, mind map software helped pre-medical students in learning common medical prefixes. It should be promoted as a learning strategy along with standard note-taking to make learning meaningful to the students.

Key Words: Common medical prefixes, Learning strategy; Mind map; Note-taking; Pre-medical students.

1. Introduction

It is clear that a medical student should acquire a great deal of medical terms to understand medical record documentation, and communicate more effectively with other health care team members. It may seem puzzling and tedious task because as Cohen & DePetrus (2014, p. 4) states, "medical vocabulary is vast, and learning it may seem like learning the entire vocabulary of a foreign language".

Most medical terms are made of word parts combinations. These word parts are used to define specific information about anatomy, physiology, diagnoses, conditions, status, and treatments. Understanding word parts and their meanings; simplifies learning medical terminology. As Jones (2011) states:

"It is impossible to memorize thousands of words over the course of one or two quarters or semesters. It is possible, however, to memorize the word parts and the rules that will enable you to build the thousands of words you will need to function effectively as a health care professional" (p. 2).

Students can use different learning strategies to actively acquire information. We should create learning experiences that will enable them to think and develop ideas using a bottom up approach where rich experiences turn into meaningful learning. Teaching some effective strategies of organizing word parts is significant in learning medical terminology because effective strategies can help students learn the words and improve their vocabulary. According to D'Antoni et al. (2010),

although these learning strategies may differ in efficacy and applicability, they are all based on a conceptual framework called the constructivist theory of learning, which states that meaningful learning, or learning with understanding, occurs when adult learners assimilate new information within their existing frameworks.

In recent years, there have been many studies and publications on learning strategies used in medical education, which can help students to learn and integrate information (Pudelko et al. 2012; D'Antoni et al. 2010; D'Antoni, Zipp; Olson, 2009). One learning strategy that has recently come out to facilitate and enhance the learning process is mind mapping software. Mind map, created by Tony Buzan in the 1970s, is a graphic technique with words, ideas and pictures radiating out from a central word or idea. Buzan and Buzan (1993) argue that mind maps better harness the way the brain works. The radiant structure is consistent with the radiant nature of the brain. And the use of colors, graphics, and nonlinear branches stimulates the entire brain. Panatda, and Chonlada (2010, p. 1) define mind mapping as "a graphical method of taking-note by using words, pictures with color, and symbols which take a hierarchical or tree branch format with idea branching into their subsections". It has many applications in educational situations, including note-taking, brainstorming, organizing, summarizing, revising, and general clarifying of thoughts.

As a note-taking strategy, Tee et al. (2014, p. 28) state, the mind map allows individuals to organize facts and thoughts in a map format containing a central image, main themes radiating from the central image, branches with key images and key words, plus branches forming a connected nodal structure. Moreover, according to Keles (2012), the mind map helps students to assimilate new information, to think and to develop their conceptual schema.

To improve learning quality of medical prefixes, this study aims to see whether mind map software as a note-taking strategy assists medical students to learn medical prefixes better or not.

2. Review of literature

According to Davies (2010) and Farrand et al. (2002), the main use of mind mapping is to find creative associations between ideas. Thus, mind maps are mainly association maps. In other words, mind mapping allows students to imagine and explore associations between concepts. Mind mapping has been defined by Buzan (2002, p.4) as "the ultimate organizational tool with each of the branches emanating from the central image". As stated by Jensen (1998) mind mapping is a creative pattern with connected ideas. It has characteristics of visual representations with a central theme surrounded by images, pictures, thoughts, patterns, words, and ideas. Thus, mind mapping is a demonstration of both left and right brain utilization for whole brain processing, better recall, and enhanced memory (Buzan, 2002; Margulies, 1991).

According to D'Antoni & PintoZipp (2006) and McDermott &Clarke (1998), the mind map is multisensory tool that help medical students organize, integrate, and retain information. It can be used to generate ideas, take-notes, develop concepts and ideas, and improve memory (Buzan, 2000). McDermott & Clarke (1998) state that using mind mapping as a note-taking strategy facilitates critical thinking in medical education. Many studies indicate the effectiveness of using mind maps as a teaching and learning tool in Medicine. For example, Michelini (2000) provided an overview on how to construct mind maps and discussed potential uses of mind mapping in home health care nursing. This paper provided some background information on how to use mind maps.

Farrand, Hussain and Hennessey (2002) studied the effectiveness of using mind map study technique to improve factual recall from written information in medical students. The results of the study show that the mind map technique improved the long-term memory of factual information in medical students by 10%. They reported that mind maps provide an effective study technique when applied to written material and are likely to encourage a deeper level of processing for better memory formation. In other words, mind maps provide an effective study technique when applied to written material.

Wickramasinghe et al. (2007) investigated the effectiveness of mind maps as a learning tool for medical students. They found that there was no statistically noteworthy difference between the mind map group and the self-selected study technique group. They did, however, report that most of the participants in the mind map group comprehended that mind map is a useful technique for memorizing and summarizing information in an organized way compared to their previous self-study techniques.

D'Antoni et al. (2010) studied the relationship between mind mapping and critical thinking. The findings demonstrate that the mind map does not result in a significant gain in critical thinking compared to standard note-taking in medical students.

Goodnough and Woods (2002) also discovered that students perceived mind mapping as a fun, interesting and motivating approach to learning. Several students attributed the fun aspect to the opportunity to be creative when creating mind maps through lots of choice in color, symbols, key words and design.

According to above mentioned studies, it seems that mind mapping is a powerful tool that teachers can use to improve effective learning and teaching quality.

3. Objective

To improve learning quality of medical prefixes, this study aims to see whether mind mapping software as a note-taking strategy assists medical students to learn medical prefixes better.

4. Methodology

The study employed both quantitative and qualitative data analyses from test, and questionnaire. The population of this study included pre-medical students in University of Medical Sciences, Bojnurd, Iran. They were randomly divided into two groups of fifteen (15) according to the rank obtained at Konkur (national entrance examination). One group was standard note-taking and other was mind map group. Mind map group was given 45-minute training on the application of the mind mapping software. During this session, the group had the opportunity to ask questions about the mind mapping software.

As a subject, common medical prefixes were selected for both groups, and asked both groups to study them over a week. Prefix is a word part added before a root to change its meaning and usually, but not always, indicates number, location, time, or status. For the purpose of this study the prefixes have been divided into the following nine sets for convenience in study and to facilitate, improve and deepen their understanding.

Prefixes for numbers

Prefixes for colors

Negative prefixes

Prefixes for degree

Prefixes for size and comparison

Prefixes for time and position

Prefixes for position and direction

Prefixes for disease

Prefixes pertaining to drugs

A multiple-choice test with 30 items was tried out on the given subject for both groups. Scores obtained by students from two groups were compared. Lastly, a questionnaire was given to mind map group to reveal their view about mind map software as a learning strategy.

5. Results and Discussion

The results of this study are consistent with the results of McDermott & Clarke (1998), William (1999), West et al. (2000), Farrand et al. (2002), Goodnough & Woods (2002), Holland et al. (2003/2004), Chan (2004), Hsu (2004), Laight (2004), D'Antoni et al. (2006) and Wickramasnghe et al. (2007) on the use of mind mapping in different topic. It means that the use of the mind mapping software proved to be a powerful tool for summarizing and organizing information, note-taking, understanding and recalling information.

According to Table 1, the mean obtained by students in mind mapping group was 16.70. It was 15.20 in note-taking group. It shows that the mean score in mind mapping group is higher than note-taking group.

According to this study, the mind mapping group showed superiority over note-taking group, as the mean of students from mind mapping group was more. Therefore the mind mapping software has the potential for improvement of learning medical prefixes in medical courses. These findings were similar to those of West et al. (2000), Hsu (2004) and Laight (2004) which indicated the improvement of learning by applying mind mapping for students of nursing. It also shows that, most of the

students in the mind mapping group had learned to apply the software well after initial training session.

Table 1: Mean of Note-taking and Mind mapping Group

	Number of Students	Total Score	Mean
Note-taking Group	15	228	15.20
Mind mapping Group	15	250.5	16.70

According to Table 2, the frequency and percentage obtained by students in mind mapping group was 22 and 73% respectively. It was 18 and 60% in note-taking group respectively. This shows that the frequency and percentage of test in mind mapping group is higher than note-taking group. In other words, mind mapping software was helpful to increase percentage of mind mapping group's test. This support Farrand et al.'s study (2002) that mind mapping group performed better than note-taking group.

Table 2: Frequency and Percentage of Note-taking and Mind mapping Group' Test

	Note-taking Group	Mind mapping Group	Number of Tests
Frequency	18	22	30
Percentage	60%	73%	100%

To see if the students found mind mapping software helpful, a questionnaire was given to mind map group to reveal their view about mind map software as a learning strategy. The result is shown in Table 3.

Table 3: The Students' View on Mind mapping Software

Questions	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total
Helpful to learn and understand medical prefixes.	2	10	3	0	15
Helpful to relate them to what they already know.	5	5	5	0	15
Helpful to expand the knowledge of the medical terms.	7	7	1	0	15
Helpful to organize medical terms.	6	9	0	0	15
Helpful as mnemonic devices.	9	5	1	0	15
Helpful to apply mind mapping for other subjects.	7	8	0	0	15
Percentage	37.77%	48.88%	13.33%	0%	100%

As revealed in Table 3, the majority (86.65%) of the students were agreed that the mind mapping software was helpful to learn, understand, expand, organize, and recall medical prefixes.

As table 3 show, the mind mapping software was helpful in information recall. This support Toi's study (2009) that mind mapping can help children recall words more effectively than using lists, with improvements in memory of up to 32%.

Also most of the students in mind mapping group perceived it as a useful way of summarizing information. Similarly, Wickramasnghe et al. (2007) had studied effectiveness of mind map as a

learning tool for medical students and found it as a useful way of memorizing and summarizing information. According to this study, and as confirmed by Williams (1999) and Cynthia (2005), the mind mapping, "is helpful as a study aid and helps learners understand and recall information better".

Moreover, the students' view on mind mapping software revealed positive effects of mind mapping on students' attitudes towards the mind mapping medical prefixes activity. In fact, mind mapping software made the topic more tangible.

6. Conclusion

Based on the findings of this study, all of the students in mind mapping group find mind mapping software useful to organize medical terms and apply for other subject. Almost all of the students perceived this strategy to be useful for expanding the knowledge of the medical terms, and as a mnemonic device. A majority realized that it is a useful strategy to learn and understand medical prefixes and relate them to what they already know.

Furthermore, it can be concluded that mind mapping can be easily taught to pre-medical students who have no prior knowledge in mind mapping and doing so involves no costly equipment. Therefore, mind mapping as a learning strategy along with standard note-taking in medical education can be used by students and teachers for multiple purposes. It can also be used to facilitate and enhance the learning process. To be brief, students' view on mind mapping software shows the effectiveness of using mind map as a study aid.

Last but not least, the results of this study on mind mapping software as a learning strategy have been encouraging enough to merit further investigation in medical terminology, and usefulness of it in integrating and organizing information.

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LANGUAGE LEARNING AND CRITICAL THINKING OF EFL LEARNERS

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ABSTRACT

This study investigated the relationship between language learning and critical thinking of EFL learners. To achieve the purpose of the study, 68 female EFL learners were selected according to two different levels of study, beginner and intermediate to advanced groups in an institute in Kermanshah, a city in the west of Iran. They were requested to complete the "Watson-Glasers' Critical Thinking Appraisal". The data supported the theoretical expectation of a linkage between language learning and critical thinking of learners.

Key words: language learning, critical thinking

1. Introduction

Many years ago, it was believed that language learning can enhance intelligence of learners. The more it was exercised, the greater its abilities and the larger its assets. The way to increased mental power was to exercise the mind with complex and difficult tasks. Problem solving in mathematics, translation in foreign language classes, memorization, and so on were advocated learning activities (Chastain 1988).

According to Armstrong (1997) students scored considerably higher in math and language arts after one semester of foreign language study 90 minutes per week. As Hakuta (1986) said language learners show greater cognitive flexibility, better problem solving and higher order thinking skills. Numerous studies indicated that individuals who learn a second language are more creative and better at solving intricate problems than those who do not (Bamford and Mizokawa, 1991). Kiany (1988) explained personality as "one of the individual differences which is widely accepted as having an effect on learning in general and second language acquisition in particular". As mentioned, language learning can have positive impacts on personality traits. Critical thinking can be among those traits. One of the intellectual abilities which have been recognized as a determiner of learning is critical thinking. To succeed in language learning, critical thinking is one of the major competences for L2 learners (Connolly, 2000; Davidson, 1998; Davidson and Dunham, 1997). It's clear that critical thinking skills improve high order learning skills cause to higher level of language proficiency (Renner, 1996). The examination of distinction in human behavior is referred to as the study of individual dissimilarity. Kiany (1988) explained personality as "one of the individual differences which is widely accepted as having an effect on learning in general and second language acquisition in particular".

According to Ennis (2011) critical thinking is the ability to think clearly and rationally. It includes the ability to engage in reflective and independent thinking; the ability to decide what to do or what to believe. Halpern (1999) defines critical thinking as the use of cognitive skills or strategies that increase the probability of a desirable outcome. He argues that critical thinking is purposeful, reasoned, and goal-directed. It is the kind of thinking involved in solving problems, formulating inferences, calculating likelihoods, and making decisions.

2. Review of Litreture

As Brookfield (1991) says "Critical Thinking involves recognizing and researching assumptions that undergird thoughts and actions (p 17)". He suggested that critical thinking entail research skills, being able to scrutinize the source of our knowledge, and how we use it in making decision. Scriven and Paul (2004) describe critical thinking as, "that mode of thinking about any subject, content, or problem in which the thinker improves the quality of his or her thinking by skillfully taking charge of the structures inherent in thinking and imposing intellectual standards upon them". This description comprise an attitudinal aspect of preference, and self-efficacy, and the met cognitive skill of estimating one's own thinking processes. Lately, Paul (1988) looked at critical thinking as learning how to ask and answer questions of analysis, combination and appraisal and "the ability to reach sound conclusions based on observations and information" (p. 50).

As Zhang (2003) said "The ideal critical thinker is habitually inquisitive, well-informed, trustful of reason, open-minded, flexible, fair-minded in evaluation, honest in facing personal biases, prudent in making judgments, willing to reconsider, clear about issues, orderly in complex matters, diligent in seeking relevant information, reasonable in the selection of criteria, focused in inquiry, and persistent in seeking results which are as precise as the subject and the circumstances the inquiry permit." (p. 1). "We understand critical thinking to be purposeful, self-regulatory judgment which results in interpretation, analysis, evaluation, and inference, as well as explanation of the evidential, conceptual, methodological, criterio-logical, or contextual considerations upon which that judgment is based. Critical thinking is essential as a tool of inquiry. As such, critical thinking is a liberating force in education and a powerful resource in one's personal and civic life. While not synonymous with good thinking, critical thinking is a pervasive and a self-rectifying human phenomenon.

The ideal critical thinker is habitually inquisitive, well-informed, trustful of reason, open-minded, flexible, fair-minded in evaluation, honest in facing personal biases, prudent in making judgments, willing to reconsider, clear about issues, orderly in complex matters, diligent in seeking relevant information, reasonable in the selection of criteria, focused in inquiry, and persistent in seeking results which are as precise as the subject and the circumstances of inquiry permit. Thus, educating good critical thinkers means working toward this ideal. It combines developing critical thinking skills with nurturing those dispositions which consistently yield useful insights and which are the basis of a rational and democratic society" (Facione, 1990, p.2). Yeh (2004) studied the effect of a computer simulation program on developing student teachers' thoughtful thinking. The conclusion disclosed that computer simulation is an efficient instrument for teaching general critical thinking skills. Critical thinking described by Ivie (2001) in terms of thoughtful practice enabling learners to "establish clear and logical connections between beginning premises, relevant facts and warranted conclusions" (Ivie, 2001, p.10).

3. Research Question and Hypotheses

1) Is there any relationship between language learning and critical thinking of Iranian EFL learners?

Based on the research question mentioned above, the following hypotheses emerged: There is no relationship between language learning and critical thinking.

4. Methodology

The participants of the present study were 68 female Iranian EFL students between the ages of 18 to 23. All of them had the same state, that is, their age, sex and their experience of language learning. These participants were two groups of EFL learners who studied in beginner and advanced levels in Khane Zaban Institute in Kermanshah. They were selected based on hierarchy of institute. The first group included 33 participants who were studying in beginner level and the second group included 35 participants who studied in intermediate to advanced level and their age varied from 18 to 23 years old. All the participants were studying at different academic fields. And also a randomization has been done to select the participant for beginner and intermediate to advanced groups.

To evaluate students' critical thinking ability, the Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal (CTA) Form A was employed. Regarding validity, the Watson-Glaser test enjoys all areas of face, content, criterion and construction validity (Mirzai, 2012). In the present study, the Persian version of the

Watson-Glaser test, Form A (WGCTA-FA) was used to measure the participants' critical thinking. The test consists of five subsections, namely drawing inferences, recognizing assumptions, making deductions, interpreting evidence, and evaluating arguments, each comprising 16 items with two to five alternatives. The appraisal is not subject-specific and can be completed in 60 minutes. According to Mohammadyari (2002), this test and its subscales do have reliability and validity in Iranian culture. To analyze the reliability of the questionnaire, she utilized split-half reliability estimate. With the adapted version in Iran, the reliability was found to be 0.98 and the results of the factor analysis provided some support for the inventory hypothesized structure (Mohammadyari, 2002). The test-retest reliability of the original version of this critical thinking appraisal ($r = 0.81$) has been reported by (Glaser 1980), and the reliability coefficient of its Persian version has been estimated by Cronbach's Alpha to be ($\alpha = 0.85$) in (Faravani 2006). A composite scores for the five subscales of the test is obtained with values ranging from 0 to 80.

Table 4.1 summarizes the descriptive result of the Critical Thinking questionnaire.

Table 4.1. Descriptive statistics of EFL learners and their Critical Thinking

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
(B)CT	35	76.4286	8.4833
(A)CT	33	92.764	9.01020

As table 4.1 points, there is a significant difference between critical thinking of beginner and advanced learners. Therefore, the advanced group's Critical thinking ability ($m=76.4286$) was higher than that of the beginner group ($m=92.764$).

To answer the first research question, the critical thinking questionnaire was administered then Point-biserial correlation coefficient was used to analyze the data. The following table shows the correlation coefficient between EFL learning and critical thinking.

Table 4.2. Correlation coefficient between EFL learners and critical thinking

		CT (B)	CT (A)
(B) CT	Pearson Correlations	1	.650**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	68	68
(A) CT	Pearson Correlations	.650**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	68	68

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

As can be seen in table 4.2, there is a positive correlation between the two variables, $r = .65$, $n = 68$, sig (2-tailed) = 0.01, in a way that Learning English as a foreign language is associated with higher levels of critical thinking. This indicates that the null hypothesis can be rejected and there is a positive relationship between EFL learning and Critical Thinking of learners.

To examine the extent of correlation coefficient between the critical thinking of two groups, it is needed to ensure the existence of a linear correlation between the two variables. To this end, the following scatter plot was provided.

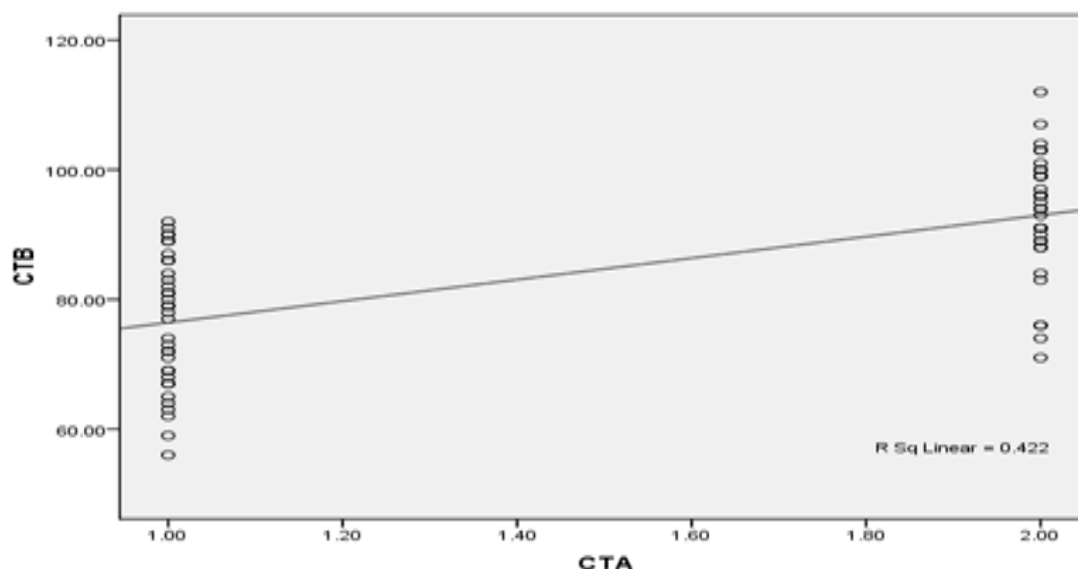


Figure 4.1 Critical Thinking of Advanced and Beginner Learners

According to Figure 4.1, there appears to be a positive linear correlation between the two variables, that is to say, learning a language is associated with higher levels of critical thinking.

5. Discussion and conclusion

The primary purpose of this study was to examine the possible relationship between EFL learning and critical thinking of learners. In a few words, as it showed the mean scores of the critical thinking questionnaire were higher in advanced group than beginner group. This confirms improvement in language learning has relation with critical thinking of learners. And also the results of the correlation analyses revealed that there is a positive relationship between language learning and critical thinking of learners. That is to say, the progression in EFL learning may have a positive influence on their critical thinking of learners.

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MJLTM

EXPLICIT TEACHING AND FORM-MEANING CONNECTIONS IN SLA: THE CASE OF ENGLISH PREPOSITIONS *IN* AND *INTO*

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ABSTRACT

Linguistic grammar and pedagogical grammar are different. Both, however, treat meaning and form separately, asserting that form is a system of its own thus leading to subfields of linguistics such as syntax and semantics. New approaches to language teaching such as Communicative Language Teaching emphasize meaning as one important component of grammar knowledge. Nevertheless, communicative approaches again demark a line between meaning and form. New perspectives on the nature of language such as Cognitive Grammar assume no difference between meaning and form, asserting that it is the meaning that drives the form into being. The present article examined the applicability of Cognitive Grammar assumptions to the teaching of English prepositions *In* and *Into*. Participants were 60 Iranian university students at Tarbiat Modares University. These participants were into two groups, one receiving the treatment, Cognitive Grammar, and the other was taught based on the principles of Communicative Language Teaching. Results showed that the group receiving the treatment outperformed the Communicative Language Teaching group ($p < 0.05$).

Key Words: Cognitive Grammar; Cognitive Linguistics; English Prepositions; Explicit Teaching; Form-Meaning Connections

1. Introduction

Teaching grammar

The grammar that linguists describe in different linguistic theories is different from what grammar teachers teach in the classroom or the pedagogical grammar. For one thing, the grammar that generative linguists describe has no application to language teaching. That is, we do not have a language teaching methodology or technique which applies the grammar that generative linguists describe for language to the practice of language teaching. The psychological views of different linguistic theories regarding language learning however have been applied to language teaching to some extent. Behaviorism for example was applied to language teaching during Audiolingual Method. The focus on repetition and manipulating the sentences in structural frames was the key to learning language (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). When behaviorism was rejected by generative linguists, there was somehow a confusion about teaching grammar. This time the psychological view of language learning maintained that first language acquisition is innate and that children learn their first language by receiving the input from their environment. Although the grammar described by generative paradigm in language was not applied to language pedagogy, this innateness notion of the theory had a significant role in language teaching. Scholars in the field of language teaching turned their attention from grammar to meaning because grammar was something innate and abstract. The

new approach to language teaching which took these ideas as primary for language learning was the communicative movement. Since meaning was important in communicative approach, the problem of grammar teaching was again unsolved.

One implication of the above statements is that language teachers take some of their ideas implicitly or explicitly from linguist theories. After all, as Achard (2008) says, everyone teaching grammar in the classroom has a view about how grammar is learned. However, Pedagogical grammar is different from the grammar that linguist provide. This can be seen even nowadays in language classrooms. They either focus mainly on grammar like traditional methods such as Audiolingual, or focus on meaning Like communicative approaches. It is obvious here that form and meaning are not treated the same. The communicative movement which focused primarily on meaning turned out to suffer from not paying enough attention to grammar as meaning.

Focus on form

Traditional approaches either focus on form or meaning. Communicative language teaching with its focus on meaning turned out to be insufficient. This was because of the immersion program studies in Canada. It was shown by Swain and Lapkin (1989) that students in immersion programs had frequency but lacked accuracy. This led language teaching scholars to incorporated focus on form into language teaching. However, again language and form are separated. It may seem that since form and meaning are incorporated, the grammar is taught as form-meaning mappings. To teach form-meaning mappings there should be a description of the grammar of language which takes both form and meaning into account and which can be applied to language pedagogy. The next section presents the principles of cognitive linguistics and also cognitive grammar which is claimed can have applications for language pedagogy.

Cognitive linguistics

Cognitive Linguistics began in the 1980s and 1990s with work of Lakoff (1987), Langacker (1987,1991). It is an approach to language which sees meaning as primary and believes that it is this meaning which brings form into being. It rejects the foundation of Objectivist semantics and philosophy in formal approaches to linguistics. Objectivist semantics was based on the idea that meaning in language was based on the exact correspondence between linguist form and external world and that words have distinct meanings. Therefore, the categories in our mind are the reflections of the external word and that the categories have distinct boundaries. However, research in cognitive science by Rosch (1978) showed that categories in our mind have not distinct boundaries, rather there are prototype effects in categories which means that one member of the category stands as the good example of the category. The same phenomenon was shown by Lakoff (1987) to be true about linguistic categories which means that words have multiple but related meanings.

Cognitive grammar

Cognitive grammar was developed by Ronald Langacker, (Langacker 1987,1991) to describe the grammar of language within the paradigm of cognitive linguistics. It is an approach to language description which does not see form and meaning separate, rather it states that grammar has a symbolic nature. By symbolic it is meant that form and meaning are connected together in a specific context conventionalized in the linguistic community (Langacker, 2008). In addition, There are only three levels of analysis: Symbolic, semantic and phonological (2008). The differences between the languages of the world according to cognitive grammar is because of the specific construal it speakers have. Construal is defined as:

“the way a language user chooses to ‘package’ and ‘present’ a conceptual representation as encoded in language, which in turn has consequences for the conceptual representation that the utterance evokes in the mind of the hearer. This is achieved by choosing a particular focal adjustment and thus linguistically ‘organizing’ a scene in a specific way. In so doing, the speaker imposes a unique construal upon that scene” (Evans, 2007; p.41)

This construal also leads to different but related meanings in words and also grammar (Langacker, 2008). Langacker states that the scene that we view has a *trajector* and a *landmark*. The landmark is the background of the scene and the trajector is the focus of our attention (Langacker, 2008). For example the preposition ‘on’ shows the relationship between the trajector and the landmark in a way that it

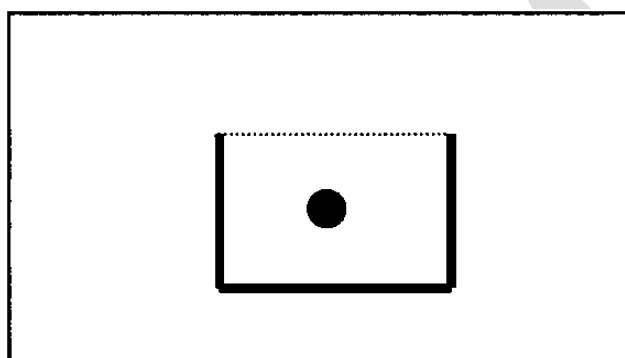
implies a sense of contact. For example when we say the book is on the table it means that the book and the table have physical contact. While preposition 'above' has the same meaning except the contact view. It means that the trajector 'book' is not in contact with the landmark 'table'.

The semantics of prepositions in and into

Within the frame of cognitive grammar it is stated that prepositions form semantic networks which have multiple meanings. However, these multiple meanings are related in ways which reflects the meaning conventionalized in the linguistic community. In this study the semantic of the English prepositions *in* and *into* is analyzed based on Tyler and Evans' work (Tyler and Evans, 2003). In English the preposition implies the sense that the trajector is surrounded by the landmark. For example in the sentence:

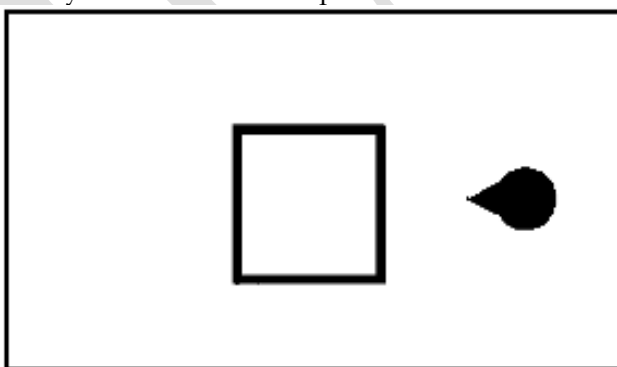
The book is in the bag.

The preposition 'in' implies that the trajector 'the boo' is surrounded by the landmark 'the bag'. The following picture taken from Tyler and Evans (2003) shows the semantic map of the preposition 'in'.



Preposition 'in'. Taken from Tyler and Evans (2003).

The preposition 'into' however has a different but related sense. It describes the relationship between the trajector and the landmark as one of direction in the sense that the trajector is going toward the landmark to be surrounded by it. The semantic map of 'into' is as the following



Preposition 'into'. Taken from Tyler and Evans (2003).

Explicit Teaching of prepositions as form-meaning mappings

Cognitive grammar claims that language is consisted of form-meaning mappings conventionalized in the language community. It was also stated that these form-meaning mappings have different but related meanings. These different but related meanings are because of the different ways the language users perceive a specific scene. Therefore second language instruction can benefit from teaching the form-meaning mappings according to the principles of cognitive grammar. This study tries to answer the following question.:

Is there any relationship between explicit teaching of cognitive grammar and correct using of the prepositions *in* and *into*?

Based on this question the following hypothesis is formed:

There is no relationship between explicit teaching of cognitive grammar and correct using of the prepositions *in* and *into*?

2. Methodology

Participants

In this research 60 Iranian university students at Tarbiat Modares University participated. Students were between the ages of 24 to 30 and were divided into two groups of thirty. Furthermore, all the participants were male students. The groups were selected among all the male students studying at the university. All the participants lacked sufficient knowledge of English since they had not taken part in any language class before.. The two groups were assigned randomly to one type of instruction. One group was taught prepositions based on communicative form-focused instruction and the other group was taught based on cognitive grammar.

Instruments

The instrument used in this study was a multiple-choice test consisting of 20 items all measuring English prepositions *in* and *into* in different contexts. The instrument consisted of 20 items. This instrument was used twice. One time as the pre-test and the other time at the end of the treatment as the post-test.

Procedure

At the first phase of the study the multiple-choice test was given to the students as the pre-test. The purpose of this pre-test was to ensure that there was not significance between the students regarding their knowledge of the appropriate use of the prepositions *in* and *into*. After the test was administered the results were analyzed it was shown that there was not a significant difference between the two groups regarding their knowledge of prepositions. The first group's mean was (Mean=13.1333) and the second group's mean was (Mean=13.0333). During the experiment, prepositions were taught to the students according to the pre-specified method. The first group was taught explicit cognitive grammar. That is, first the cognitive semantics of the prepositions *in* and *into* was taught to the students. Of course this had to be done in students mother tongue because they did not know much English. Then some examples were gives to the students to practice the prepositions. The second group on the other hand was taught based on communicative teaching with some focus on form. That is students attention was not turned to the form unless they had problem understanding them. This was done by the teacher asking the students about the objects in the class. If there were any problems then the teacher would intervene and would explain the prepositions. After two sessions of treatment, the same test which was done at the beginning of the experiment as the pre-test was given two the students this time as the post-test to investigate the effectiveness of the instruction.

3. Data analysis

The statistical analysis adopted for this study was t-test formula for comparing the means of the two groups. This formula was used twice, once before the treatment, and the other time at the end of the treatment. When the test was administered before the instruction, a t-test formula was used to compare the two groups' means. The purpose of this test, as mentioned in the previous sections, was to ensure that the two groups did not differ from each other regarding their knowledge of the prepositions. Once again, at the end of the treatment, the same test was given to the students, and again another t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups. The purpose of using the t-test formula was to know if there was a significant difference between the two groups regarding their knowledge the prepositions.

4. Results

This study was done to answer the following question:

Is there any relationship between explicit teaching of cognitive grammar and correct using of the prepositions *in* and *into*?

To answer the question, the researcher chose 60 male college students randomly. Then a multiple-choice test testing prepositions was given to the students as the pre-test. The purpose of this test was to check their knowledge of the prepositions they were going to study during the treatment.. To compare the differences between the two groups' means on the pre-test, a t-test was used. The researcher wanted to ensure that the difference between the two groups regarding their preposition knowledge was not significant. The results supported this, because the two groups' means were

equal. The first group's mean was ($M=13.1333$), and the standard deviation was ($SD=1.66056$). And the second group's mean was ($M=13.0333$) and the standard deviation was ($SD=1.93842$). The probability level in this test was greater than 0.05 ($p>.05$), significant level assumed by the researcher; therefore, the researcher concluded that there was not a significant difference between the two groups and the null hypothesis was confirmed. The mean score in this table supports this.

Table 4.1. shows the results.

T-Test

Group Statistics					
	GRUOP	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pre-test	1.00	30	13.1333	1.66056	.30318
	2.00	30	13.0333	1.93842	.35391

Independent Samples Test										
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Pre-test	Equal variances assumed	2.092	.153	.215	58	.831	.1000	.46601	-.83282	1.03282
	Equal variances not assumed			.215	56.665	.831	.1000	.46601	-.83329	1.03329

Two sessions after the pre-test, the same test was given to the students, this time as the post-test. To measure the effect of the instruction on their preposition knowledge, the mean and the standard deviation of the two sets of scores were then computed. After calculating the mean score of each group, another t-test was run to determine whether the difference was significant or not. The results supported this. Because the two groups' means were not equal, the first group's mean was ($M=15.9667$) and the standard deviation was ($SD=1.49674$), and the second group's mean was ($M=14.6500$) and the standard deviation was ($SD=1.80588$). Since probability level (sig.) in this test was less than 0.05, the researcher concluded that there was a significant difference between the two groups; therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. Table 4.2 shows the results.

Table 4.2.

T-Test

Group Statistics										
	GRUOP	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean					
post-test	1.00	30	15.9667	1.49674	.27327					
	2.00	30	14.6500	1.80588	.32971					

Independent Samples Test										
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
post-test	Equal variances assumed	.206	.652	3.075	58	.003	1.3167	.42823	.45947	2.17386
	Equal variances not assumed			3.075	56.069	.003	1.3167	.42823	.45884	2.17449

According to the mean scores shown in table 4.2., the researcher concluded that the students in the first group who were taught cognitive grammar scored higher in the test and had a better performance comparing those in the second group who were taught according to communicative methodology ($p < 0.05$).

5. Discussion

Based on the research question of the study, the following null hypothesis was formed:

There is no significant difference between the use of monolingual and bilingual dictionaries and vocabulary retrieval of Iranian EFL learners.

The result outlined above already indicated the rejection of the null hypothesis and it was found that the difference in mean scores was due to the treatment rather than error. And so the subjects, who used were instructed based on cognitive grammar, were better performers, that is to say, explicit cognitive grammar instruction had a stronger positive effect on students' preposition use than communicative approach. However, with regard to the effects of both types of instruction (cognitive grammar and communicative approach) both groups showed improvements in using prepositions which implies that explicit instruction has positive effect on SLA knowledge. In this study, students instructed based on cognitive grammar performed better though. This finding is in disagreement with the findings of the researchers who do not advocate focus on form. Krashen (1982) for example states that instruction has no effect on language acquisition, rather it leads to learned knowledge which is not automatic language use.

However, this finding concurs with those who concluded that explicit instruction has positive effects on learning (Ellis, 2001; Norris and Ortega, 2000; Spada, 1997). Regarding cognitive grammar teaching however, not much studies have been done in the literature. Nevertheless, the studies done thus far accord with the results of this study (Achard, 2008).

6. Conclusion

The results showed that explicit cognitive grammar instruction had better effects on using the prepositions in and into. Of course both groups showed improvements. However, the statistical analysis of t-test rejected the null hypothesis of the study. Results of the study indicated that explicit cognitive instruction helps the students use prepositions better. This is because of the form-meaning mappings taught in cognitive grammar approach. In communicative approach focus is on meaning

with some focus on form if needed. However, In the explicit teaching of cognitive grammar, the form and the meanings of the prepositions are taught together which leads to a match between form and meaning.

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TEACH-TO-TEST INSTRUCTION OF DYNAMIC ASSESSMENT: A CRITICAL MOVEMENT TO RAISE GRAMMAR

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ABSTRACT

Applying Vygotsky's sociocultural theory in assessment, it is noticed that 'Dynamic Assessment' (DA) in language learning might offer new insights to language classroom. DA has developed as an alternative to *static* types of assessment. This study intended to investigate whether Dynamic Assessment; Teach-to-Test would bear any significant role for Iranian elementary EFL learners' grammar consciousness-raising. The participants of this study were a sample of 60 male elementary EFL learners randomly assigned into two groups of control and experimental. They were exposed to a language proficiency screening, i.e. Key English Test (KET), a pre-test, and a post-test. As treatment phase, each session the experimental group received teach-to-test instruction via mediation on pre-test items including Articles, Prepositions, and Tenses, while the control group received conventional instruction. At-test was run to compare the performance of experimental and control groups after the treatment period. The results indicated that DA oriented instruction significantly improves the learning of L2 grammar and arouses the learners' consciousness.

Key words: Assessment; Dynamic Assessment; Washback effect; Grammar Consciousness -Raising ; Zone of Proximal Development

Introduction

It was about the late nineteenth century that assessment appeared as a domain of interest for researchers and educators, and the rife assessments were initiated only in the twentieth century (Gould, 1996).

According to Gould (1996) in the 1900s when the USA started using tests of general intelligence to evaluate immigrants and to evaluate the abilities of Army new members, standardized testing became amazingly widespread. Subsequently, standardized tests have been used in other contexts such as educational settings.

Traditional summative assessment attempts to summarize students' learning at some point in time, say the end of a course, but it cannot provide the immediate, contextualized feedback useful for helping teacher and students during the learning process (Garb, 2008). So, the dynamic and holistic feature of assessment cannot be fully exploited.

As a matter of fact, assessment is becoming a big challenge for those engaging in the field of teaching. Bailey described assessment as an information gathering activity. McNamara (2004, p.765) referred to

gaining insights into learners' level of knowledge or ability as the purpose of assessment. In this way, learnt information via assessment is of high importance and considered a vital dimension of proper instruction. It also equips us to get involved in the cornerstone terms of Dynamic Assessment, (henceforth, DA) "teaching to the test," "narrowing of the curriculum," and "assessment-driven instruction", which make this point clear that assessment and teaching are not separated from each other but they are, possibly, at odds with one another (Linn, 2000; Lynch, 2001; McNamara, 2001; Moss, 1996).

Teachers' lack of acquaintance with principles and theories of practical assessment can also highlight the distinction between assessment and instruction. Most of the time, teachers attend their classrooms unprepared to develop acceptable testing instruments to monitor testing term, and to analyze the outcomes (Torrance and Pryor, 1998), but they are supported with eclectic practical collection of testing types far from the deep understanding of underlying theories.

Teachers' mastery in assessing individuals is considered as the construct *diagnostic competence* (Edelenbosgt and Kubanek-German, 2004). Based on their findings, they claim that teachers are not equally proficient in realizing the level of the students. The bifurcation between assessment and instruction becomes clearer when considering the volume's title of Bachman and Cohen's (1998): *Interfaces between Second Language Acquisition and Language Testing Research*, focuses on the rising interaction between researchers in the concerning fields.

Nowadays, one of the major and common methods of testing in the world of second and foreign language learning is the product oriented one. Many language teachers around the world consider final assessment tests a framework of their assessment. The cornerstone rationale behind testing students after instructing them for a definite period of time is to observe how much of the instruction the students have received on the subject. It is also worth mentioning that we frequently hear that a teacher acknowledges the drawbacks of any special assessment method which leads some talented students to attend weakly at the final test, whereas, s/he performs well in the class. Applying Vygotsky's sociocultural theory in assessment, dynamic assessment in language learning might offer new insights to assessment in the language classroom.

Assessment takes place not in isolation from instruction but as an inseparable feature of it. Inseparably from each other, assessment and instruction are integrated as a single activity. This pedagogical approach, known as Dynamic Assessment (DA), seeks to manage an instruction-based assessment.

The concept of DA does not speak of any specific way of testing. Indeed, dynamic assessment is a whole different approach, or an umbrella term (Elliott, 2003), to the issue of testing in the language classroom and this approach can be devoted to any way of testing ranging from multiple choice to essay writing, and with a great variety of student backgrounds from monolingual environments to linguistic diversities (Haney and Evans, 1999; Laing and Kamhi, 2003). Accentuating this dimension of dynamic testing, Lantolf and Thorne (2006, p. 331) mention that "what makes a procedure dynamic or not is whether or not mediation is integrated into the assessment process. In other words, fill-in-the-blank, multiple-choice, open-ended essay, or even oral proficiency tests in themselves may or may not be dynamic".

DA assumes a different perspective about assessment traditionally done on the part of the classroom teachers and researchers. L. S. Vygotsky, the famous Russian psychologist, develops DA following an ontological prospect, developed more than 80 years ago, on human abilities. Considering development of cognitive functions, Vygotsky's study uncovered that this movement is not a matter of innate abilities developing into a mature state but the advent of new thought, manner, and outcome derived from one's encounter in activities where culturally fabricated aspects touch him or her and where he or she interacts with others. From this viewpoint, development is triggered due to the social environment and the social environment plays a critical role for it.

In spite of many theorists, such as Budoff, and the test-train-test assessment (Babad & Budoff, 1974; Budoff, 1987a), Carlson and Wiedl (1978) and the testing-the-limits approach, Campione and Brown and graduated prompting assessment (Campione, 1989; Campione and Brown, 1987; Campione, Brown, Ferrara, Jones, & Steinberg, 1985), Guthke and the learning ability test concept (Guthke, 1982; Guthke, 1993), the continuum of assessment services (Jitendra & Kameenui, 1993) and the curriculum based dynamic assessment approach (Haywood et al., 1992), that have worked and are contemporarily working in the field of dynamic assessment, only two of the basic theorists' work will be fleetingly elaborated i.e., the work of Vygotsky and Feuerstein. Largely, the work of these theorists

is quoted in dynamic assessment studies such as South African studies, as being the harbingers of the dynamic movement. Admitting that the work of Vygotsky was not praised at the time of its advent, in the 1960s, it has recently attracted wide attention for its gratuity to the fields of education and assessment.

The essential works of Vygotsky have been translated from the original Russian and supplied wisdom into his beliefs considering education and remediation. The pioneer of dynamic assessment has been attributed to Vygotsky. Contrasting the work preceding that of Feuerstein whose achievement extended from working with culturally handicapped immigrants, Minick (1987) designates that dynamic assessment studies have sought to generate quantitative outcomes. He continues that definitely ignoring a stable baseline measure by Feuerstein may block the development on the part of the learner if scores are low or tasks cannot be done sufficiently. To do so, a more sure connection between tester and testee is founded, enabling the learner to perform tasks that echo both strengths and weaknesses and also supplying more individual and special kinds of support (which is most often not the case with other dynamic assessment measures).

Vygotsky's perspectives are more qualitative than quantitative and Minick (1987) states that the work of Feuerstein is closer to that of Vygotsky, or at least more so than the work that is parallel with the quantification of learning capacity. Vygotsky accentuated the interaction between the child and the tester, as well as the nature of the interaction (Minick, 1987), resulting in a more strong unification than when either the pre-test or interaction is assessed alone (Day, Engelhardt, Maxwell, & Bolig, 1997). This is of high importance because a pre-test, mediation and post-test methodology is a process based on which much of the dynamic assessment study in South Africa is determined upon.

Considering the role ascribed to the examiner in the work of Feuerstein, the emphasis on scaffolding tasks in assessing cognitive processes is greater than that on quantifiable achievements. In Vygotsky's theory of proximal development, which considers the child developing within a socio-cultural setting, the communicative nature of achievement is clarified. Ripping functions are the outcome of interaction and computing these functions one requires to assess the child in interaction. Many pretest-posttest studies do not emphasize this noticeable issue at all.

Feuerstein's emphasis on revising imperfect cognitive structures within the learner as conflicting Vygotsky's emphasis on social partnership in the assessment is one of the major differences between Vygotsky's and Feuerstein's approaches. In Vygotsky's zone of proximal development (ZPD), identified by the autonomous performance of a child compared with his or her performance when supported by a more well-informed or mature peer the role of social collaboration is revealed. The difference in performance is thus ascribed to the achievement manifest in the child's zone of capability when assisted by a more adapted peer (Lidz, 1991; Nell, 2000).

Statement of the Problem

Traditional summative assessment attempts to summarize students' learning at some point in time, say the end of a course, but cannot provide the immediate, contextualized feedback useful for helping teachers and students during the learning process (Garb, 2008). Nowadays, a major preoccupation in assessment is not only to equip students with knowledge and skills, but also to teach them toward their goals, taking a test, by providing them meditation during the course of studies.

As far as the researcher knows, there has been little research done, especially in Iran, to examine the effect of dynamic assessment-based Instruction on learners' grammar consciousness-raising.

Significance and Justification of the Study

A number of limited researches exist studying the function of DA in teaching EFL grammar, and actually none was traceable in the Iranian context. This study tends to show how dynamic assessment-based instruction may pave the way for learners' grammar consciousness-raising by giving the students the opportunity of being in an active relationship with the teacher to move toward taking tests through teaching channel. The results of this study might help students who receive dynamic assessment-based instruction to promote their grammatical consciousness-raising.

Purpose of the Study

In the light of the problem statement, the present study aimed to determine whether dynamic assessment-based instruction is effective in learners' grammar consciousness-raising via moving from the test to the instruction, a model of DA.

Research Questions

Based on the above mentioned problem, the present research attempts to answer the following main question followed by two minor questions:

I. Does the use of dynamic assessment-based instruction have any effect on EFL learners' *grammar consciousness-raising*?

1. Does the use of dynamic assessment-based instruction have any effect on EFL learners' accurate use of the *propositions*?

2. Does the use of dynamic assessment-based instruction have any effect on EFL learners' accurate use of the *articles*?

Research Null Hypotheses

I. Dynamic assessment-based instruction has no effect on EFL learners' *grammar consciousness-raising*.

1. Dynamic assessment-based instruction has no effect on EFL learners' accurate use of the *propositions*.

2. Dynamic assessment-based instruction has no effect on EFL learners' accurate use of the *articles*.

Limitations and Delimitations

In order to enhance the degree of the validity of findings, the researcher narrowed down the scope of the study in some ways. Regarding different levels of proficiency, the present researcher preferred to work with elementary learners because participants at this level face those problematic areas, the accurate use of articles and prepositions, which are orbiting in the mind of the researcher. On the other hand, due to the regulation of the English institute, ILI, the researcher was not able to teach the female students. Therefore, the findings may not be generalizable to the female participants.

Methodology

In order to investigate the impact of dynamic assessment-based instruction on EFL learners' *grammar consciousness-raising*, the present researcher examined Iranian elementary learners. To do so, a total number of 60 EFL elementary male learners whose ages ranged between 15 and 35 at Iran Language Institute, Kermanshah Branch attended the study. Participants were randomly assigned into two groups of experimental and control, each consisting of 30 students.

Instruments

Some instruments were used in this study:

Standardized Key English Test (KET), Gray, E., O'Sullivan, N. (2000) *Practice Test for the KET*. To make sure that the participants are at the same level of proficiency, elementary level, the KET was administrated.

Teacher Made Pre-Test

A variety of different test forms as multiple choice and fill in the blanks were administrated in this phase.

To validate and make sure of the test reliability, the present researcher selected the test pool among some authentic grammar books which provide as many test items.

Textual Enhancement

There is a number of studies that have investigated the effects of textual enhancement on drawing the learner's attention to grammar, and the method has been described as the least explicit and the least intrusive method of focus on form (Doughty & Varela, 1998). It involves highlighting certain features of input that might go unnoticed under normal circumstances by typographically manipulating them through boldfacing, italicizing, underlining, or capitalizing. The assumption is that such manipulations enhance the perceptual saliency of the target structures, and this, hence, increases their chance of being noticed. A related technique is the provision of numerous instances of target linguistic forms in the input, called an *input flood* (Trahey & White, 1993). Again, the assumption is that frequent exposure to target items enhances their saliency and hence results in noticing the forms (Schmidt, 1990; Sharwood Smith, 1993). Studies by Doughty (1991) and Fotos (1994) reported positive results in terms of awareness of target structures and proficiency gains resulting from textually enhanced structures.

As already mentioned, the researcher focused on prepositions and articles. These issues were assessed through DA, but taught and presented with the help of Textual Enhancement. To make the way of materials presentation more tangible the following visual input enhancement technique was provided.

Different *color* markers or pieces of chalk can be used when presenting a new grammatical structure to the learners via visual enhancement.

Robert has a house. The house is on Pine Street.
He walks to work every day. Now, he is
monitoring a meeting about the company's
future plans.



Visual input enhancement may be a useful technique in that it helps the learner notice the gap between his competence and that of a native speaker; that is, they become aware that they lack a particular grammatical structure in their interlanguage. However, studies carried out by White (1998), Jourdenais (1998), and Izumi (2002, cited in Radwan 2005), show that this kind of implicit instruction is not sufficient to affect learners' performance. That is, learners become aware of the target structure at the level of noticing, but not at the level of understanding. Other studies conducted by Alanen (1995), and Rose and Neill (1999, cited in Radwan2005), indicated that "learners exposed to explicit learning conditions outperformed those exposed to implicit learning conditions."

Teacher Made Post-Test

This is the second administration of the pre test after the treatment.

Regarding the intrarater reliability, the scores of the 60 participants in the post-test in this study were calculated by the current researcher twice with one week interval. The result of the Pearson correlation for these two sets of scores proved very high: $r = .982$, $-1 < r < 1$

Design

Based on the nature and the purpose of the research, the design was quasi-experimental. The participants were randomly divided into two groups. The control group (N=30) received conventional assessment-based instruction; whereas, the experimental group (N=30) received dynamic assessment-based instruction type of treatment.

The major variable which the researcher hoped to manipulate in this study (independent variable) included dynamic-based instruction, but grammar consciousness- raising was the dependent variable that the researcher measured to determine the effect of treatment on it in elementary EFL learners.

The study included both a pilot study and a main study and used sampling procedure, so the design can be labeled quasi-experimental

Procedure

This study was conducted in four separate phases:

Sampling (based on KET). In this phase, the KET test, focusing on grammar, reading, and vocabulary, was administered to identify the students' true levels and if the grammatical points were new to the learners or not. There were 60 students who were divided into two groups of thirty students in each experimental and control group. The frequency distribution of the grades on the proficiency test, KET, for the control group appears in Table 1. As mentioned earlier, the scores were out of 60 for the KET. The frequency distribution of their grades on the proficiency test, KET, for the experimental group is in Table 1.

Pre-Test Administration. After the administration of the proficiency test, in the second phase, the Pre-Test, was taken by the participants.

Treatment. In this phase, the teacher involved the learners in the *new instruction (Treatment)* in which he covered the materials in the pre-test through teaching articles and propositions to follow 'the test-teach-test' paradigm.

Post-Test Administration. In the fifth phase, the same pre-test was administered as the Post-Test to both groups shortly after the treatment.

Results and Discussion

The collected data were fed into the SPSS software to be analyzed considering the scales of measurement of the variable of this study. The data analysis was first followed to examine the reliability of the instrument, and Cronbach's alpha values were obtained to compare the pilot study and actual data reliably. Statistical procedure in this study included the descriptive analysis and referential statistics of the scores obtained on the 3 tests of KET, pre-test, and post-test. In the main procedure of data analysis, the descriptive statistics of the scores were calculated. Then a series of *t*-tests were run to compare the results obtained from both groups.

Results and Discussion for the KET

Table 1 represents the descriptive statistics of the participants for KET.

Table 1 Group Statistics for KET

Treatment	N	Mean	Std.Deviation	Std. Error Mean
KET Experimental	30	33.30	8.272	1.510
Control	30	32.80	8.499	1.552

Table 2 Independent Samples Test for KET

KET	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
	F	Sig.	T difference	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean difference	Std. Error
Equal variances assumed	.073	.788	.231	58	.818	.500	2.165
Equal variances not Assumed			.231	57.957	.818	.500	2.165

As the Sig. level, in Levene's test is larger than .05, we go for the first line of t-test. In this case, the level of significance is .818 which is larger than .05 thus; there is no statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the two groups in KET at the .05 level; confirming the homogeneity of groups.

Results and Discussion for the Pre-Test

Table 3 illustrates the descriptive statistics of the participants for the Pre-Test, Articles.

Table 3 Group Statistics for Pre-Test, Articles

Treatment	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pre.Articles	30	44.10	10.581	1.932
Experimental	30	46.10	9.799	1.789
Control				

Considering the purpose of the study, the impact of dynamic assessment-based instruction on Iranian EFL elementary language learners' grammatical consciousness raising, the researcher compared the mean scores of the two groups on the articles.

Table 4 Independent Samples Test for Pre-Test, Articles

Pre.Articles	Levene's of Variances		Test for Equality of Means						Equality
	F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error		Difference
Equal variances assumed	.077	.782	-.760	58	.451	.451	-2.000	2.633	
Equal variances not Assumed					.451	.451	-2.000		2.633

It was found that the obtained p value was higher than 0.05 ($P=0.451$). As illustrated in Table 4, it can be concluded that there were no significant differences between the mean scores of the two groups on the articles pre-test. This is to say, both groups were homogenous in terms of their knowledge of the articles prior to the present study.

As mentioned earlier, the present researcher studied three dependant variables through dynamic assessment. After testing the articles, we tested the learners' knowledge of propositions. The results are demonstrated in table 5.

Table 5 illustrates the descriptive statistics of the participants for the Pre-Test, Prepositions

Table 5 Group Statistics for Pre-Test, Prepositions

Treatment	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pre.preposition	30	21.17	6.716	1.226
Experimental	30	18.27	6.612	1.207
Control				

Table 6 *t*-test of the Pre-Test, considering the dependant variable of propositions, of the Control and experimental group

Table 6 Independent Samples Test for Pre-Test, Prepositions

Pre-preposition	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
	F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig.(2-tailed)	Mean Difference Std.	Error Difference
Equal variances assumed	.173	.679	1.685	58	.097	2.900	1.721
Equal variances not assumed			1.685	57.986	.097	2.900	1.721

Then the present investigator compared the obtained sample scores from the experimental group with those of the control group on the pre-test of propositions.

The comparison was accomplished with an independent *t*-test. As demonstrated in table 6, the obtained *p* value was higher than 0.05 ($p=0.097$). Therefore, it could be concluded that the students' knowledge of propositions in both groups is the same and it accentuates the homogeneity between them prior to the present study.

Results and Discussion for the Post-Test

In the next phase, the teacher involved the learners in the new instruction (Treatment) in which he covered the materials in the pre-test through teaching articles, and propositions to follow 'the test-teach-test' paradigm of dynamic assessment.

Finally, the same pre-test was administered as the Post-Test to both groups shortly after the treatment. The mean scores and standard deviation of both groups in post-test are provided in following tables.

Table 7 illustrates the descriptive statistics of the participants for the Post-Test, Articles.

Table 7 Group Statistics for Post-Test, Articles

Treatment	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Post.articles	30	57.23	4.876	.890
Experimental	30	49.10	7.984	1.458
Control				

The table above presents the means and the standard deviations of the articles for both experimental and control groups. As shown in this table, the mean score for experimental group (57.23) is higher than that of control group (49.10). Then an independent *t*-test was run to establish whether or not the differences were significant.

Table 8 *t*-test of the Post-Test, concerning the dependant variable of articles, of the control and experimental groups.

Table 8 Independent Samples Test for Post-Test, Articles

Post articles	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
	F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Equal variances assumed	5.256	.026	4.762	58	.000	8.133	1.708
Equal variances not assumed			4.762	47.988	.000	8.133	1.708

As demonstrated in table 8 the *t*-test results show that there is a meaningful difference between the means of the two groups in the tests.

It also indicates that since *P* value is lower than the alpha level of 0.05 ($P=.000$). There was a significant difference between the experimental and control groups in their knowledge of using articles. This finding confirms that a part of the researcher's null hypothesis (dynamic assessment-based instruction has no effect on EFL learners' accurate use of the articles) was rejected in that Dynamic assessment-based instruction was effective in Iranian EFL elementary learners' accurate use of the articles.

To realize the impact of the dynamic assessment-based instruction on the second variable, i.e. propositions, the participants' mastery of using propositions after the treatment through the Post was tested and the researcher came up with the following findings:

Table 9 illustrates the descriptive statistics of the participants for the Post-Test, propositions.

Table 9 Group Statistics for Post-Test, propositions

Treatment		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Post. Experimental	Preposition	30	31.43	6.725	1.228
	Control	30	19.77	6.436	1.175

Checking the means of the two groups, the researcher realized that that the experimental group (mean=31.43) appeared much more successful in the post-test of the propositions than the control group did (mean=19.77).

To make sure if the differences were significant, a *t*-test was used and the results in Table 10 are revealed.

Table 10 *t*-test of the Post-Test, considering the dependant variable of propositions, of the control and experimental groups.

Table 10 Independent Samples Test for Post-Test, Propositions

Post.preposition	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
	F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Equal variances assumed	.019	.890	6.865	58	.000	11.667	1.699
Equal variances not assumed			6.865	57.889	.000	11.667	1.699

As illustrated in table 10 the *t*-test results indicate that since *P* value is lower than the alpha level of 0.05 ($P=.000$), there was a significant difference between the experimental and control groups in their master of Propositions. This finding confirms that another part of the researcher's null hypothesis (Dynamic assessment-based instruction has no effect on EFL learners' accurate use of the Propositions) was rejected. Therefore, it could be concluded that the dependant variable, i.e. learners' accurate use of the Propositions, was influenced by the independent variable, namely Dynamic assessment-based instruction they received.

As displayed in tables 8 and 10 the learners in the experimental group performed significantly better on the post-test. The researcher examined the impact of dynamic assessment based instruction, i.e., teach to test, on learners' grammatical consciousness raising, i.e. articles and propositions. As it was mentioned, both groups were at the same level of grammatical proficiency. Throughout the experiment, learners in the experimental group appeared much better than the learners in the control group in mastering the two dependant variables (articles and propositions).

A paired sample *t*-test designed at 0.05 level of statistic significance was also run to compare the groups' means on the pre-test and post-test for both groups. The differences between the pre-test and post-test scores were calculated and then analyzed.

Tables below display the obtained output for the control group.

Paired samples t-test for the control group at .05.

Table11 Paired Samples Statistics for Control Group

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Pre Articles	46.10	30	9.799	1.789
	Post Articles	49.10	30	7.984	1.458
Pair 2	Pre preposition	18.27	30	6.612	1.207
	Post preposition	19.77	30	6.436	1.175

Table 12 Paired Samples Correlations for Control Group

	N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1 Pre Articles & Post Articles	30	.843	.000
Pair 2 Pre preposition & Post preposition	30	.811	.000

Table 13 Paired Samples Test for Control Group

Sig.(2-tailed)	Paired Differences						T	Df	Difference
	Std.		Deviation	98.4% Confidence Interval of the					
	Mean			Error					
				Lower	Upper				
Pair 1 Pre Articles Post Articles	-3.000	5.278	.964	-5.466	-.534	-3.113	29	.004	
Pair 2 Pre preposition Post preposition	-1.500	4.015	.733	-3.375	.375	-2.046	29	.050	

As shown in table 13 the “Sig” value of the paired sample *t*-test for the control group is a little smaller than our alpha value in pair 1 (0.004). In this case, there is a slight difference between the mean scores of the control group in pair 1(Pre Articles, Post Articles). In the case of the pair 2 (0.050), the “Sig” value equals the alpha value (0.05), that is there is no significant difference in pre-test and post-test of prepositions .

Finally, a paired sample *t*-test designed at 0.05 level of statistic significance was also run to compare the means of the experimental group on the pre-test and post-test. The differences between the pre-test and post-test scores were calculated and then analyzed.

Tables below display the obtained output for the experimental group.

Paired samples t-test for the experimental at .05.

Table 14 Paired Samples Statistics for Experimental Group

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Pre Articles	44.10	30	10.581	1.932
	Post Articles	57.23	30	4.876	.890
Pair 2	Pre preposition	21.17	30	6.716	1.226
	Post preposition	31.43	30	6.725	1.228

Table 15 Paired Samples Correlations for Experimental Group

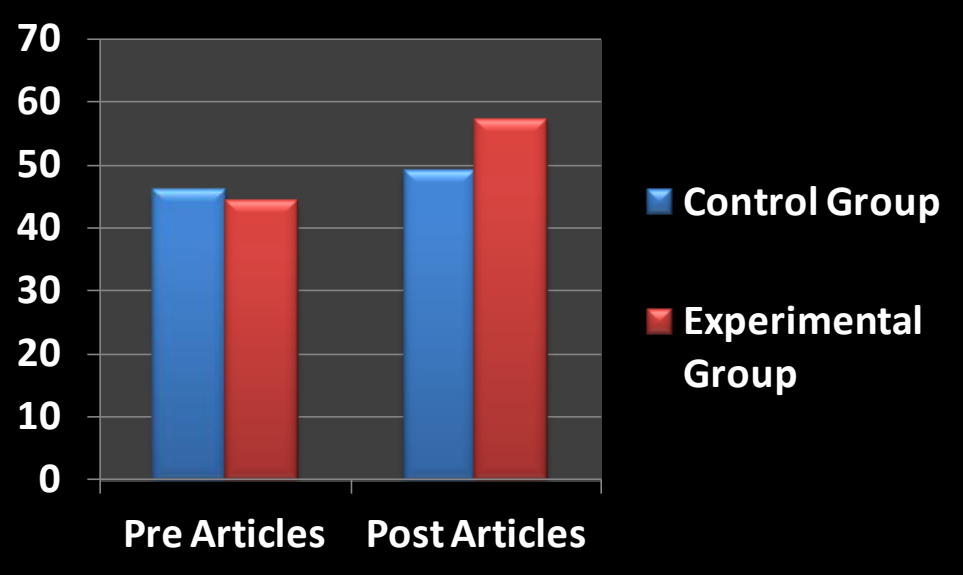
	N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1 Pre Articles & Post Articles	30	.616	.000
Pair 2 Pre preposition & Post preposition	30	.493	.000

Table16 Paired Samples Test for Experimental Group

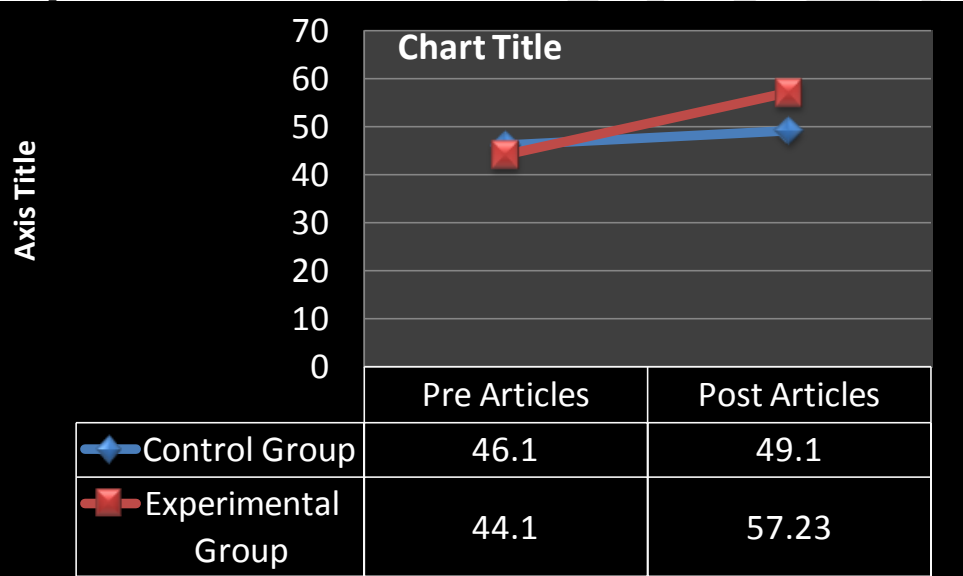
Sig.(2-	Paired Differences					T	Df	Difference tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	98.4% Confidence Interval of the Error					
			Lower	Upper				
Pair 1 Pre Articles Post Articles	-13.133	8.496	1.551	-17.102	-9.165	-8.466	29	.000
Pair 2 Pre preposition Post preposition	-10.267	6.767	1.235	-13.427	-7.106	-8.310	29	.000

As demonstrated in table 16 the “Sig” value of the paired sample *t*-test for the experimental group is smaller than our alpha value in pair 1and pair 2 in that the “Sig” value in all these pairs is 0.00 which is smaller than the alpha value (0.05), that is there is a significant difference in pre-test and post-test of articles and preposition

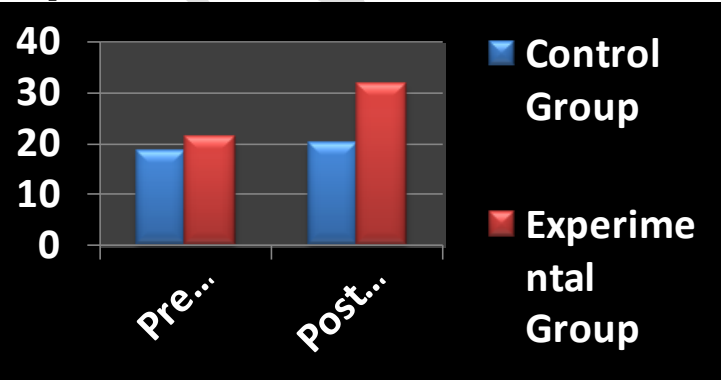
Graph 1



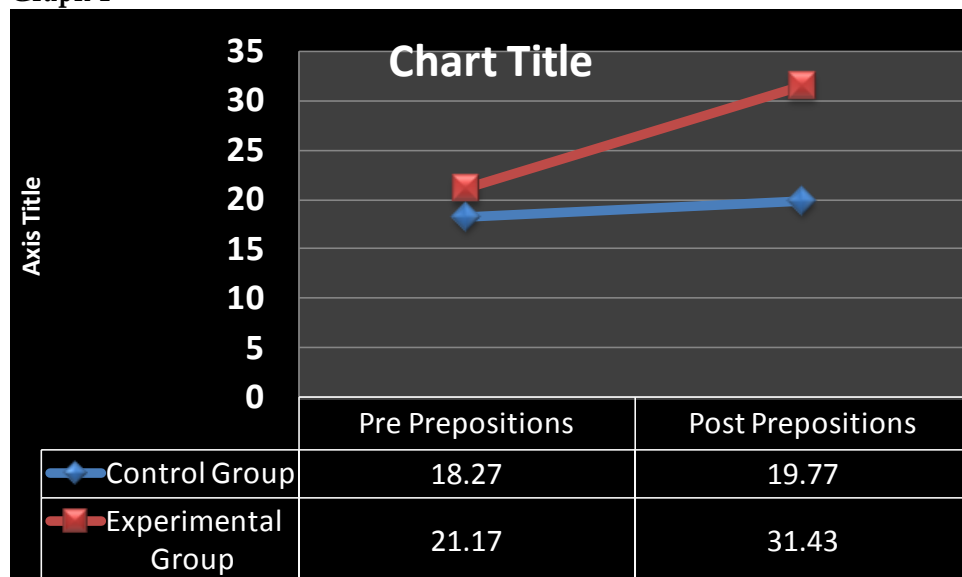
Graph 2



Graph 3



Graph 4



Restatement of the Problem

In this study, consciousness-raising, or drawing learners' attention to the formal properties of language facilitates language learning effectively and dynamic assessment was at the service of consciousness-raising to do so. The results are consistent with those of Schmidt (1993). In Schmidt's study, the results reveal that consciously attending to and noticing specific aspects of the target language is the first thing in learning.

Conclusion

The results revealed that the students need to consciously pay attention to what they are learning in order to notice the relationship between the target language and context.

On the effects of input, the results of this study together with those of VanPatten and Cadierno (1993), Doughty (1991), Fotos and Ellis (1991) and Fotos (1993), Crooks (1989), Foster and Skehan (1996), and VanPatten (1996) revealed that C-R instructions are very useful for language processing and learning. Dynamic Assessment framework proposed in the study attaches ultimate importance to the whole process of learning mentioned grammatical points.

Unlike other assessments which set their objective as evaluating the level of students or providing feedback for their study, the ultimate goal of Dynamic Assessment is promoting development. By interpreting the potential of learners (KET and pre-test), assistance is made via teach to test modal of dynamic assessment to raise the learners' grammar consciousness. Since consciousness raising is made in the Zone of Proximal Development of learners, remarkable progress is likely to occur.

The present study has really got some valuable results and surely can provide some enlightenment to EFL grammar learning in Iran. But there are still some uncertainties and limitations needing further research.

In order to answer the main question of the study, namely 'Does the use of Dynamic Assessment-Based Instruction have any effect on EFL learners' Grammar Consciousness -Raising?' we had to compare post-test mean scores of experimental and control groups. As previous tables showed, while the pre-test scores of both groups were very similar, there is a wide gap in their post-test scores, indicating the superiority of experimental group to control group in terms of their performance on a grammar test after the treatment period.

Implication

Results obtained in the present study thus reflect not only the students' learning potential but also the quality of mediation provided during the assessment. One may always suspect that another assessor with a different mediational style might reveal a somewhat different pattern of learning abilities in the same group of students. Thus, one of the possible directions for future research is a study of

reliability of learning potential scores obtained during assessment sessions conducted by different mediators.

The second limitation inherent in any curriculum-based assessment is the dependency on students' content knowledge. Students with better vocabulary and better knowledge of grammatical rules would always have a certain advantage. Students who have a very poor knowledge base cannot expect to reach the high achievement level even if their use of strategies is quite good. The instructional value of the dynamic EFL assessment lies in the fact that its results can be used for the development of individual learning plans for students with different learning needs.

The purpose of this paper was to take an in depth look at the issue of dynamic assessment in terms of its theoretical frame and its methodological applications.

The review of current literature revealed that dynamic assessment is a useful framework to be used in the language classrooms as it focuses on potential rather than final achievement. Then, as a general suggestion, we can say that language teachers should include more forms of dynamic assessment into their curricula if they want to assess the real development of their students. However, almost at the same breath we also have to admit that this is easier in theory than practice. First of all, dynamic assessment is a relatively new concept in the field of language learning, and research on dynamic assessment in the language classroom is limited to a couple of studies. This prevents language teachers from having practical guidelines about how to incorporate dynamic assessment into their curricula. Secondly, many countries around the world use standardized high-stakes language tests.

As a well-grounded and useful assessment approach which could supply maximized instruction across age groups dynamic assessment is suggested (Banks and Neisworth, 1995). When working with diverse populations, practitioners can utilize DA, which focuses on the learning process and utilizes mediational approaches that are more closely related to learning process in school and other life contexts (Haywood & Lidz, 2006). As a well-grounded and useful assessment approach which could supply maximized instruction across age groups dynamic assessment is suggested (Banks and Neisworth, 1995).

Also, to determine how specific the target stimuli and the level of difficulty need to be for students from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds research is needed (Hwa-Froelich & Matsuo, 2005).

Suggestion for Further Research

In order to progress within the field of dynamic assessment, a field which comparatively speaking, is quite young in Asia, especially Iran, when compared to Europe and the United States, the best choices as to test development can and should only be made on the basis of previous findings of similar tests in the field. Researchers and practitioners in this field are generally not aware of the large pool of data that is available on the topic. Early research in this field was often conducted in isolation and was somewhat fragmented. Consolidation of all dynamic assessment research results supports the case for dynamic assessment to be implemented and used on a wider scale. Research conducted without consultation or collaboration with other practitioners in the field may be detracting from the benefits of dynamic assessment research.

The current study was undertaken to find out the facilitative effect of dynamic-assessment-focused intervention on L2 grammar gain of Iranian EFL learners. The findings revealed that DA procedures had a significant and meaningful effect on the ease and feasibility of L2 grammar teaching and learning. The implication is that learners can benefit a lot from a DA-based mediation and that teacher intervention can be very instrumental in the process of L2 grammar instruction. Although our study firmly supported the positive role of dynamic assessment-based intervention in L2 grammar development, we see a need for further studies to be commissioned not only in the area of L2 grammar, but in all other language skills and sub skills, with learners of different ages, genders and proficiency levels to better reveal the relative share of DA-based mediation in the accomplishment of the most important concern in education, i.e. the learning.

It is highly recommended for those who are willing to do researches in the domain of Dynamic Assessment to study the effect of DA in other levels of language proficiency and scrutinize the role of DA in other skills as reading. Researches can also do some researches at other institutes apart from the Iran Language Institute and other cities rather than Kermanshah to zoom the effect of first language, here Kurdish, if any on the results of DA studies.

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EFL LEARNERS' WRITING ACCURACY: THE EFFECTS OF GUIDED VS. UNGUIDED PRESSURED PLANNING

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ABSTRACT

Planning is essential to language production. Even the most careless and speeded speech or writing comprises a degree of planning (Ellis, 2005). In the face of the wide range of research conducted on the effects of pre-task planning on second language (L2) production, relatively little attention has been paid to the impacts of pressured within-task planning. Hence, the current study sought to explore the effects of guided pressured within-task planning and unguided pressured within-task planning on the accuracy of EFL learners' written production. The participants of the study comprised of 30 upper-intermediate EFL learners within the age range of 18-22. During the two treatment sessions, participants were provided with two sample process-writings. In guided condition participants were given samples including underlined sequence markers, bolded passive verbs, and underlined simple present verbs plus a list of sequence markers to serve as guide during writing. However, no guidance was offered in the unguided condition. The results of the independent-samples *t*-test disclosed the fact that learners in unguided pressured planning condition performed better in terms of their writing accuracy. Regarding non-significant effects of guided pressured planning conditions, it can be discussed that explicit form-focused instruction may take some time to get internalized.

Key words: Planning, Guided pressured within-task planning, Unguided pressured within-task planning, Accuracy

1. Introduction

Second language (L2) learners often consider writing skill to be the hardest one to acquire. They usually embark upon the writing task alone and silently which demands lots of physical as well as mental effort. Writing, as opposed to listening, reading, and speaking skills, is more complex in that it involves constructing a wholly new text rather than dealing with an already created one. Also, L2 learners generally find it difficult to cope with the writing system of the new language and seem to be lagging behind the threshold of standard writing level.

In the process of writing in a foreign language making too many mistakes would make it difficult to understand. That is, any piece of written work striving for readability and efficiency should be as accurate as possible. Accurateness or accuracy refers to the degree of deviance from a particular norm which is usually termed 'errors'. It is possible to lessen L2 learners' problems in production if they are given time to plan before they produce an L2 utterance or composition. In other words, by giving learners the opportunity to plan the linguistic and propositional content of an upcoming task, they can make up for the drawbacks in their language production and as a result the quality of the linguistic output is improved.

With regard to planning research, the issue of whether planning has effects on learners' task performances has been hotly debated in the contemporary task-based research literature (e.g. Skehan 1996; Skehan and Foster, 1997; Ellis, 2000) and L2 writing literature. Meanwhile, L2 writing research has approached the issue of planning based on theoretical frameworks of writing processes. Research findings from both task-based research and L2 writing research can promote the implementation of a more efficient teaching method.

Additionally, whether the use of guided and unguided pressured within-task planning on written language has any effect on language production is an area which has not been investigated so far. Considering the importance of teaching writing and the main role that planning has in improving the writing ability, it has been decided to conduct this research. Therefore, the present investigation attempts to examine the effects of two subcategories of within task planning, namely guided pressured and unguided pressured planning on the accuracy of Iranian EFL written essays. It is hoped that the findings of the study help broaden the understanding of second language learners' cognitive writing process involving planning. In addition, the results will expectantly prove to have pedagogical implications benefitting the teachers and instructors in the field of *Teaching English as a Foreign Language* (TEFL) as well as theoretical implications in second language writing and relevance to second language writing assessment. In order to respond to above-mentioned query, the present study addresses the following research questions:

RQ: Is there any significant difference between guided pressured and unguided pressured planning in their possible effects on the accuracy of EFL learners' process writing essays?

2. Review of the Related Literature

How planning affects second language production, is one of the most important concerns of Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT). According to Ellis (2005), even the language that seems to be effortless and naturally occurring, involves planning. Planning, as one of several processes involved in the written production, has been considered an important process in second language acquisition (SLA); therefore, the role that it plays in writing should be taken into account in relation to the other composing processes such as monitoring, revising, and evaluating.

The effects of planning on language performance and language acquisition have been of growing interest to researchers since 1980s (Foster and Skehan, 1996; Wendel, 1997; Wigglesworth, 1997; Mehnert, 1998; Yuan and Ellis, 2003; Kawauchi, 2005, to name but a few). These researchers have sought to explore the issue of task planning from different viewpoints; however, most of them have examined oral production of learners and focused on investigating the effects of planning on accuracy, complexity, and fluency of language production. Regarding learners' performance accuracy, some of the studies have supported positive effects of planning (e.g., Kawauchi, 2005; Mehnert, 1998) but it was not supported in a few studies, for instance, Foster and Skehan (1996) as well as Yuan and Ellis (2003). In the following, some of the studies conducted on planning time with regards to learners' production accuracy are presented.

In a study conducted by Foster and Skehan (1996) on the effects of detailed and undetailed planning conditions on complexity, accuracy, and fluency of EFL learners' speech, thirty two participants were divided into three groups. Each group was required to perform three tasks, namely personal information exchange, oral narrative, and decision making under the three planning conditions of minimal strategic task planning with no official strategic planning time, undetailed strategic task planning with 10-minute strategic planning time without guidance, and detailed strategic task planning with 10-minute strategic planning with guidance. Results revealed that speech which was produced under 10-minute strategic planning was more accurate in the information exchange and decision making tasks.

Similarly, Wigglesworth (1997) examined the effects of strategic planning along with proficiency level on speech production in a testing situation. One hundred and twenty high and low proficiency ESL candidates participated in this study. Findings of the study reported that planning time has positively affected complexity, accuracy, and fluency of the speech of high proficiency level students, but this effect was not found with low proficiency level participants.

In the same vein, Mehnert (1998) aimed at exploring the effects of different lengths of planning time on the speech performance of L2 speakers. Thirty one participants studying German as a second language at a British university were divided into four groups. Each group was required to perform two tasks, namely an instruction task and an exposition task under four planning conditions. The

planning conditions consisted of no planning condition, 1-minute planning condition, 5-minute planning condition, and 10-minute planning condition. Findings of the study reported that accuracy increased under the 1-minute condition.

Ortega (1999) carried out a study to see whether planning opportunity results in increased focus on form and improves quality of speech. Sixty four American native speakers who were advanced learners of Spanish as a second language were divided into eight groups. Participants were required to perform two comparable storytelling tasks based on an eight picture strip for each. The study was performed under two planning conditions, that is, minimal and 10-minute strategic planning. Results reported that the speech produced under the planning condition was more accurate compared to the speech produced under unplanned condition.

In a study on Thai EFL learners, Sangarun (2001) examined the effects of strategic task planning and task demands on strategic task planning processes, application of strategic task planning plans, and complexity, accuracy and fluency of language production. Four strategic task planning conditions and two task types were utilized in the study. Three of the four strategic task conditions were recognized based on their special foci (i.e. content-focused, language-focused and content and language-focused) while the fourth strategic task planning condition was minimal strategic planning, which was a control condition. The two task types had a low and a high level of cognitive and linguistic demands. Considering task conditions, she observed that accuracy was greater in all three conditions (i.e. content-focused, language-focused and content and language-focused). With respect to the task demand, it was divulged that tasks with a low level of cognitive and linguistic demands gave promotion to accuracy.

Likewise, Yuan (2001) scrutinized the effects of strategic and unpressured within-task planning on oral and written language regarding complexity, accuracy, and fluency. Forty two Chinese learners of intermediate English proficiency level were required to perform an oral and written narrative task based on a series of pictures under three planning conditions. The conditions comprised no planning condition, unpressured within-task planning, and the strategic task planning condition. He reported that accuracy was more enhanced under the unpressured within-task planning condition. Additionally, it was disclosed that the unpressured within-task planning condition has greater effects on oral than written language.

Yuan and Ellis (2003) also carried out a study on the effects of strategic and unpressured within-task planning on oral production. Forty two undergraduate students majoring in English narrated a story based on a picture composition. In their study, planning condition was operationalized at three levels: no planning condition, in which participants were required to perform the task immediately after studying the pictures, the strategic/pre-task planning condition, in which they were given ten minutes to plan for the task, and finally the unpressured within-task/online planning condition, in which participants were required to perform the task immediately after studying the pictures for a very short time, but were given unlimited time to plan for their speech while performing the tasks. They reported that unpressured within-task planning positively influences accuracy.

In much the same way, Kawauchi (2005) studied the effects of strategic planning on production in oral narrative tasks and whether or not proficiency level plays a role in the effect and type of planning. Thirty nine Japanese learners of English with varying levels of proficiency participated in the study. Two planning conditions were employed in the study, that is, no planning and strategic planning. All participants completed both the unplanned and planned tasks. In the first stage, under the unplanned condition, participants were asked to describe the set of pictures given to them without preparation, and two minutes were provided to narrate the story. In the second stage, they were told to do the same task again, but before that, and after being divided into three groups, each group was asked to do one of the three strategic planning activities that were used in the study – writing, rehearsal and reading. Kawauchi (2005) found that strategic planning had positive effects on accuracy of oral narratives. It was also discovered that the low intermediate EFL group benefited notably in terms of their accuracy from the opportunity to plan. In short, planning enhanced the accuracy of the low intermediate EFL group.

Reviewing nineteen planning studies that have investigated the effects of three types of planning (rehearsal, pre-task planning, and within-task planning) on the fluency, complexity, and accuracy of L2 performance, Ellis (2009) concluded that all three types of planning have a beneficial effect on fluency but the results for complexity and accuracy were more mixed, reflecting both the type of

planning and also the mediating role of various factors, including task design and implementation variables and individual difference factors.

With regards to Iranian EFL learners' oral production accuracy, complexity, and fluency, Ahmadian and Tavakoli (2011) explored the effects of simultaneous use of careful online planning and task repetition. The results obtained from one-way ANOVAs revealed that the opportunity to engage simultaneously in careful online planning and task repetition enhances accuracy, complexity, and fluency significantly.

Khomeijani, Farahani and Meraji (2011), examining the effects of two task design features, namely pre-task planning time and immediacy on writing narrative performance of Iranian EFL learners, demonstrated that only pre-task planning time significantly promoted grammatical accuracy ability with a small effect size. Similarly, Nariman-Jahan and Rahimpour (2011) investigated the effects of planning and proficiency on the writing task performance of 72 high and low proficiency Iranian EFL learners. They completed two monologic production tasks under two planning conditions- with and without time for planning. The results revealed that high proficiency learners were advantaged by planning without time concerning concept load, fluency, complexity, and accuracy.

In another study, Mohammadzadeh Mohammadabadi, Dabaghi, and Tavakoli (2012) investigated the effects of simultaneous use of pre-planning along +/-Here-and-Now dimension on fluency, complexity, and accuracy of Iranian EFL learners' written performance. The results obtained from one-way ANOVAs reported the fact that with respect to accuracy, planning in both +/-Here-and-Now factors was more enhanced than unplanned here-and-now and there-and-then.

Regarding the accuracy of the written narrations, Haghverdi, Biria, and Khalaji (2013) sought to explore the effects of planning in writing tasks on 90 EFL male and female students. Each group was required to complete a written task which was based on six pictures. In this research, planning was operationalized at three levels, that is, no planning, strategic planning, and within-task planning. The results of the two-way ANOVA procedure showed that both strategic and within-task planning affect the accuracy of the written tasks. Additionally, it was reported that the strategic planning group outperformed the other groups.

3. Methodology

The methodology of the present study which comprises the design of the study as well as instrumentation, data collection, and data analysis is outlined below.

3.1. Participants

A total of 30 upper-intermediate Iranian EFL learners, both male and female, participated in the present study. They were learning English as a foreign language at Atlas English Language Institute in Urmia, Iran. Their native language was Turkish, and their age ranged from 18 to 22. The participants took a Quick Placement Test (QPT) (2001) so that the researchers ensure their homogeneity. According to the level chart of the QPT, those students whose scores ranged between 31 and 40 were considered to be upper-intermediate in terms of their language performance.

3.2. Instruments

Two instruments were utilized in this study: a Quick Placement Test (version 2) and two process essays.

3.2.1. Quick Placement Test

The Quick Placement Test (QPT) was administered at the beginning of the study to assess the participants' proficiency level. It is considered a valid and reliable measure of English proficiency which consists of 60 multiple-choice items. The questions measure the test takers' English language knowledge regarding usage, prepositions, and vocabulary in the form of close passages as well as filling in the blank questions. The small number of the QPT's items together with the short time, i.e. thirty minutes, contribute to its efficiency as a practical test.

3.2.2. Process Essays

Process essays based on chronological order comprised the main tasks used in the present study. As stated by Oshima and Hogue (2006), chronological order is a way of organizing ideas in the order of their happening over time. Chronological order essays are alternatively called 'how to' or 'process' essays. They are used to tell stories, to relate historical events, to write biographies, and

autobiographies, and it was used to explain processes and procedures. For example, we would use chronological order to explain how to take a photograph, or how to set up an accounting system. To meet the objectives of the study, two process pictures were randomly selected from *Cambridge Practice Tests for IELTS* (1996-2011) for the main task of the study. Also, four other process essays were selected to serve as samples in the study.

3.3. Procedure

A pilot study was carried out three weeks before the main study. There were eight upper-intermediate EFL learners in the pilot study under two planning conditions. However, they were not involved in the main study to avoid 'practice effects'. The pilot study aimed at detecting the problems that may occur in the main study, and to examine the participants' response and understanding of the task. It was revealed that there were some potential problems regarding understanding of the tasks. As a result, it was decided that more explanation was needed on how the tasks were required to be performed.

In the next stage, 30 EFL learners of upper-intermediate English proficiency level were opted for. In order to be assured of their homogeneity, a QPT was administered. The researcher explained the goals of the study in Persian to the participants and reminded them that the experiment was not part of their course material and all details would be remained confidential. As mentioned above, two process pictures for the main task of the study and four other process writings to be served as samples in the study were selected from *Cambridge Practice Tests for IELTS* (1996-2011). The main study was held in the participants' classroom, and the researcher explained to them what they exactly had to do prior to completion of the task.

Planning was operationalized at two levels: (a) unguided pressured within task planning, and (b) guided pressured within task planning. It was decided to carry out the unguided part of the experiment in one session and the guided part in the second session. In the first session, the participants were given two sample process writings and a process picture, and they were asked to study sample writings and write their own process writings based on the picture given to them. In the second session, that was, the guided pressured within task planning session, the participants were given two sample process writings with underlined discourse markers, bolded passive verbs and underlined simple present verbs, plus a list of sequence markers, as a guide and were asked to write their own writings based on the process picture given to them.

In both guided and unguided conditions, learners were given 30 minutes to finish their writings. They were supposed to write the answers on IELTS answer. It should be noted that for both tasks the participants were instructed to write at least 150 words. Time and word length were based on the framework adopted in IELTS, Academic Module, Writing Task 1.

3.4. Data Analysis

As Skehan (1996) asserted, the general aim for language teaching is to enrich fluency, complexity, and accuracy in learners' production. These three aspects of language performance have also been applied consequently to measure the quality of language production in different studies. In order to find out whether there were any identifiable differences in the essays written by the learners under the guided pressured condition and unguided pressured condition, with regard to accuracy which is dependent variables in this study, learners' writings on process writing tasks, were analyzed to calculate the percentage of error free T-units to the total number of T-units. T-unit is defined as "one main clause plus whatever subordinate clauses happen to be attached to or embedded within it" (Hunt, 1966, p.735). T-units without grammatical, lexical or spelling errors were considered as error-free T-units. Moreover, all the written narratives were coded based on the measures chosen for assessing fluency. In order to ensure the reliability of scoring, 30% of the data were coded and scored by an independent expert colleague. The inter-rater reliability of the raters' evaluation of the participants' writings with regard to the fluency was computed using Cohen's Kappa test. The resulting Kappa of .73 for accuracy indicates that both raters had "substantial agreement" for the accuracy aspect. The statistical analysis of data was completed by means of an *Independent-Samples t-test*.

4. Results

In order to investigate the differences between guided pressured and unguided pressured planning and their possible effects on the accuracy of participants' writings, the following statistical procedures

have been carried out using *Statistical Package for Social Sciences* (SPSS) version 18. First, descriptive statistics were used to show the spread of scores with regard to mean and standard deviation. Then, to have a better understanding of the exact differences among the participants with regard to their writing performances, an *Independent-Samples t-test* was conducted.

Also, in order to check the normality of distribution, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic was conducted. In table 1, the results of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic are given. This assesses the normality of the distribution of scores. A non-significant result ($p > 0.05$) as is observed here indicates normality.

Table 1. One-sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov test

		writing
N		180
Normal Parameters ^a	Mean	17.2011
	Std. Deviation	5.35696
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.074
	Positive	.061
	Negative	-.074
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		1.008
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.261
a. Test distribution is Normal.		

The research question of the present study aimed at exploring the differing effects of guided pressured and unguided pressured planning on the accuracy of Iranian EFL learners' writings. Table 2 shows that there is a considerable difference between the means of both types of planning. In other words, the unguided pressured planning results exceed those of guided pressured planning. Hence, it can be inferred that unguided pressured planning has been more effective in improving learners' written production accuracy. The descriptive results are given below.

Table 2. Descriptive results of guided pressured vs. unguided pressured planning

Group Statistics					
	Planning	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	
Writing Accuracy	Guided	30	28.167	17.6168	
	Unguided	30	44.967	5.1761	

In order to address the research question statistically, the results of independent-samples *t-test* are given below (Table 3). As can be seen in Table, there is a significant difference between the means of guided pressured and unguided pressured planning, $t(33.970) = -5.011, p = .000$ (two-tailed).

Table 3. Results of independent-samples t-test of guided pressured vs. unguided pressured planning

Independent Samples Test						
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Writing Accuracy	Equal variances assumed	46.635	.000	-5.011	58	.000
	Equal variances not assumed			-5.011	33.970	.000

As can be seen in Table 3, Iranian EFL learners' accuracy was not affected by guided pressured planning. Hence, it can be concluded that providing unguided pressured planning is beneficial with regards to the learners' written production accuracy.

5. Discussion

The findings of the present study are partially in line with the findings of similar studies in the literature (e.g. Crookes, 1989; Foster and Skehan, 1996; Wigglesworth, 1997). For instance, Crookes (1989) gave intermediate/advanced Japanese ESL learners 10 minutes of planning time to plan for content, organization, and language before performing oral, monologic tasks. With regards to accuracy, Crookes found no support for the hypothesized beneficial effect of the planning condition. Likewise, Foster and Skehan (1996) investigated the effects of detailed and undetailed planning conditions on EFL learners' oral production. The participants were provided with guidance in detailed planning condition. On the contrary, they did not have access to guidance in undetailed planning condition. They found that speech which was produced under undetailed condition was more accurate. Similarly, Wigglesworth (1997) found that a one-minute unguided strategic planning time has positively affected accuracy of the speech of high proficiency level students in the case of cognitively demanding tasks.

The finding of the present study with regards to the learners' written accuracy is dissimilar to the study carried out by Mehnert (1998). In his study, participants were guided to plan both the meaning and the form of their speech. Mehnert indicated that the meaning/form-focused planning condition enhanced the accuracy of produced speech significantly. Also, exploring the effectiveness of providing planned preemptive focus on form on learners' oral production in Iranian EFL context, Gholami and Panahzade (2013) found that providing upper-intermediate female learners with planned preemptive focus on form have beneficial impact on their oral production accuracy.

Considering the insignificant effects of guided pressured planning conditions, it could be contended that providing learners with explicit form-focused instruction may take some time to get internalized. In other words, guided planning may not yield immediate effectiveness as far as learners' accuracy is concerned. Also, regarding the cognitive constraints and limited processing capacities of learners in L2, VanPatten (1990) argued that they cannot easily attend to both meaning and form at the same time. According to Vanpatten's input processing principles (2002), learners opt for processing content words as well as lexical items in the input to grammatical items for semantic information. Therefore, learners may 'skip' the less communicatively valuable forms in the input. Thus, they failed to give enough attention to syntactic aspects of their essays and performed poorly in terms of accuracy following guided planning compared with the unguided planning condition.

6. Conclusion

The current study sought to explore the effects of two subcategories of within task planning, that is, guided pressured and unguided pressured planning, on the accuracy of Iranian EFL learners' written essays. The results of the independent-samples *t*-test revealed that unguided pressured planning condition resulted in greater accuracy than guided pressured planning condition. In other words, it was found that guided pressured planning condition was not helpful in improving learners' written accuracy in short term. The novelty of the present study lies in its attempt to analyze the differences between guided and unguided time-bound tasks and to explore their impacts on EFL learners' process writing ability, which is an under-researched writing type among other genres of writing. The current research has some limitations, though. The first limitation concerns small sample size which was only thirty students and restricted to Iranian EFL learners with Turkish as their L1. Therefore, this limits the scopes for the generalizability of research findings. Secondly, the study investigated only one level of proficiency, i.e. the upper-intermediate level, and does not allow generalizability across a broader range of proficiency. In other words, these kinds of studies require to be conducted in other levels of proficiency in order to observe whether the same results will be accomplished. Therefore, it is suggested that future studies take into account the numbers of participants, individual learner differences, and other important factors such as motivation, learner style, and proficiency level which may establish important indicators of task performance.

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