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Abstracting/Indexing

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Linguistics Abstract



EBSCO Publication



EXPLORING THE EFFECTS OF FIRST LANGUAGE INFLUENCE ON SECOND LANGUAGE IN IRANIAN EFL CONTEXT

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Abstract

Second language use in the foreign language classroom needs to be maximized wherever possible, by encouraging its use and by using it for classroom management. Research shows that the first language has a small but important role to play in communicating meaning and content. This role is important across all four strands of a course. Thus, this study aims to explore the role of first language in Iranian context second language learning, particularly in terms of their learning opinion and learning strategies about using first language to learn second language. Research has shown that the first language of learners can play a useful role in some of these strands and the aim of this article is to look at some of this research and to clearly identify those parts of a language course where there is value in using the L1. A total of 30 learners from Andisheh Sabz institution in Salmas were selected to participate in this study for the survey. They were at intermediate level. The data from survey questionnaires will address the following research questions: (1) what are learners' opinions about using their first language to learn second language? (2) What are Iranian EFL learners' first language strategies to learn second language L1? Percentage values were used in order to analyze the collected data. The final result of this study shows that L2 and the L1 are in competition with each other and the use of English increases at the expense of the L1. Teachers need to show respect for the learners' L1 and need to avoid doing things that make the L1 seem inferior to English. At the same time, it is the English teacher's job to help learners develop their proficiency in

English. Thus, a balanced approach is needed which sees a role for the L1 but also recognizes the importance of maximizing L2 use in the classroom.

Keywords:

Learners' first language, second language, Percentage Value

Introduction

There is, today, a great deal of emphasis on the study of foreign languages. The ability to speak a foreign language is no longer merely an advantage - it is becoming a necessity. As a result, linguists and methodologists are looking for more effective approaches to language teaching. One of the suggested methods is translation. Until recently, translation was out of favor with the language teaching community. It was labeled "boring", "uncommunicative", "difficult", "pointless" and the like, and suffered from too close an association with grammar (Duff, 1994). Today, thanks to the new communicative approach to language teaching, translation is gradually becoming recognized as a valid activity for language practice. Translation was a significant part of ELT for a long time, and then a significant missing part for a long time also. With the arrival and then total dominance of communicative methodologies, translation was quickly consigned to the past, along with other 'traditional' tools such as dictation, reading aloud and drills. However, it and these other abandoned activities are now a feature of many communicative classrooms and successful aids to learning, although the approach to using them has changed. As Duff (1990) says, teachers and students

now use translation to learn, rather than learning translation. Modern translation activities usually move from L1 to L2, (although the opposite direction can also be seen in lessons with more specific aims), have clear communicative aims and real cognitive depth, show high motivation levels and can produce impressive communicative results.

Thus, this study aims to explore the role of translation in Iranian context English learning, particularly in terms of their learning opinion and learning strategies about using translation to learn English. This article looks at the role of translation as an activity for learners in the ELT classroom. It does not consider the role of the L1 as a teaching tool, for example for classroom management, setting up activities, or for explaining new vocabulary.

Significance and Justification of the Study

Recent years have seen a growing interest in translation. The present research aims to explore the Iranian EFL learners' opinions and strategies about use of translation in English learning. It is believed that this study would be beneficial for more effective teaching and learning foreign language.

Research Questions

The present research addresses the following question:

- (1) What are learners' opinions about using translation to learn English?
- (2) What are Iranian learners' translation strategies to learn English?

Background

There are numerous ways of conveying the meaning of an unknown word. These include a definition in the second language, a demonstration, a picture or a diagram, a real object, L2 context clues, or an L1 translation. In terms of the accuracy of conveying meaning, none of these ways is intrinsically better than any of the others. It all depends on the particular word concerned. However, studies comparing the effectiveness of various methods for learning always come up with the result that an L1 translation is the most effective (Lado, Baldwin and Lobo 1967; Mishima

1967; Laufer and Shmueli 1997). This is probably because L1 translations are usually clear, short and familiar, qualities which are very important in effective definitions (McKeown 1993). When the use of an L1 translation is combined with the use of word cards for the initial learning of vocabulary, then learners have a very effective strategy for speeding up vocabulary growth (Nation 2001: 296-316). Although there are frequent criticisms raised of learning L1-L2 word pairs, these criticisms are not supported by research. The research shows the opposite, the direct learning of L2 vocabulary using word cards with their L1 translations is a very effective method of learning.

This finding also receives some support from studies of dictionary use. Learners' dictionaries can be classified into two major types - those that only use the L2 (monolingual dictionaries like the *Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary*, the *COBUILD Dictionary*, the *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* and the *Cambridge Learners Dictionary*), and those that make use of the L1 (bilingual or bilingualised dictionaries). A bilingualised dictionary is a monolingual dictionary with L1 translations included. Monolingual dictionaries usually contain a wealth of useful information and in an attempt to make them accessible for lower proficiency learners, the definitions are often within a controlled vocabulary. The definition vocabulary usually consists of around 2000 words. Thus to use a monolingual dictionary effectively learners need to have a effective receptive vocabulary of 2000 words. Most learners of English as a foreign language do not achieve this until they have been studying English for five to six years. It is not surprising then that surveys of dictionary preference (Laufer and Kimmel 1997; Atkins and Varantola 1997) and learner use (Baxter 1980) show that learners strongly favour bilingual or bilingualised dictionaries. To effectively use a monolingual dictionary, learners need to have a large enough vocabulary (at least 2000 words) and need to be able to interpret definitions, which are much more difficult than L1 synonyms.

Increasingly, languages borrow a lot of words from English. Daulton (1998) for example estimates that about half of the most common 3000 words of English have some borrowed form in Japanese. Sometimes the borrowing has resulted in so many formal and semantic changes that the relationship to English is hard to see (wan-piisu - a one piece dress), but most often the relationship is clear (waasuto - worst). Encouraging learners to notice this borrowing and to use the loan words to help the learning of English is a very effective vocabulary expansion strategy. This involves deliberately exploring L1 and L2 relationships. Even greater help is available where the L1 has a family relationship with English as is the case with languages like Spanish and Swedish (Ringbom 1987). The L1 clearly has a very important role to play in the deliberate learning of vocabulary. Translation was the basis of language teaching for a very long time, and then rejected as new methodologies started to appear. It was a key element of the Grammar Translation Method, which was derived from the classical method of teaching Greek and Latin. This was not a positive learning experience for many: as well as learners memorizing huge lists of rules and vocabulary, this method involved them translating whole literary or historic texts word for word. Unsurprisingly, new methodologies tried to improve on this. The Direct or Natural Method established in Germany and France around 1900 was a response to the obvious problems associated with the Grammar Translation Method. In the Direct Method the teacher and learners avoid using the learners' native language and just use the target language. Like the Direct Method, the later Audio-Lingual Method tried to teach the language directly, without using the L1 to explain new items. Subsequent 'humanistic' methodologies such as the Silent Way and Total Physical Response and communicative approaches moved even further away from the L1, and from these arise many of the objections to translation. Translation teaches learners about language, but not how to use it. Translation does not help learners develop their

communication skills. Translation is a difficult activity to set up and can go badly wrong, producing some of the objections described above. There are many aspects to designing and running tasks. Firstly, it is necessary to plan carefully and fully, and to identify the right kinds of aims. Ensure that your source material really does focus on these, and has not been introduced just because you like it. Try to integrate translation with other skills/systems practice where possible. Make sure you have dictionaries and usage sources available. It is important to recognise the problems associated with traditional approaches to translation (a solitary, difficult and time-consuming activity using literary texts) and find solutions to these, such as ensuring these tasks are short (not easy), always working in groups, and maintaining the element of a communication gap where possible. As the objections above showed, learner perception of this activity is key. It is useful to explain your aims and discuss any concerns that your learners have; many activities use materials that can be generated by learners, which can have positive impact on motivation and dynamics. Avoid activities which require your learners to use their L1 a lot if you don't have a consensus in your class. Think about the possibilities and pitfalls of this kind of work in a multi-lingual group - discussion and comparison of L1 idioms may be very rewarding, for example, but working on a text not. Think about the different benefits of translation and more specifically L1 - L2 or L2 - L1 work in the context of aims and also of the class profile. Krings (1986:18) defines translation strategy as "translator's potentially conscious plans for solving concrete translation problems in the framework of a concrete translation task," and Duff (1994) believes that there are at least three global strategies employed by the translators: (i) translating without interruption for as long as possible; (ii) correcting surface errors immediately; (iii) leaving the monitoring for qualitative or stylistic errors in the text to the revision stage. Moreover, Loescher (1991:8) defines translation strategy as "a potentially conscious procedure for solving a problem

faced in translating a text, or any segment of it." As it is stated in this definition, the notion of consciousness is significant in distinguishing strategies which are used by the learners or translators. In this regard, Cohen (1998:4) asserts that "the element of consciousness is what distinguishes strategies from these processes that are not strategic."

Furthermore, Bell (1998:188) differentiates between global (those dealing with whole texts) and local (those dealing with text segments) strategies and confirms that this distinction results from various kinds of translation problems.

Venuti (1998:240) indicates that translation strategies "involve the basic tasks of choosing the foreign text to be translated and developing a method to translate it." He employs the concepts of domesticating and foreignizing to refer to translation strategies. Jaaskelainen (1999:71) considers strategy as, "a series of competencies, a set of steps or processes that favor the acquisition, storage, and/or utilization of information." He maintains that strategies are "heuristic and flexible in nature, and their adoption implies a decision influenced by amendments in the translator's objectives." Taking into account the process and product of translation, Jaaskelainen (2005) divides strategies into two major categories: some strategies relate to what happens to texts, while other strategies relate to what happens in the process. Product-related strategies, as Jaaskelainen (2005:15) writes, involves the basic tasks of choosing the SL text and developing a method to translate it. However, she maintains that process-related strategies "are a set of (loosely formulated) rules or principles which a translator uses to reach the goals determined by the translating situation" (p.16). Moreover, Jaaskelainen (2005:16) divides this into two types, namely global strategies and local strategies: "global strategies refer to general principles and modes of action and local strategies refer to specific activities in relation to the translator's problem-solving and decision-making."

In most of the roles of the L1 that we have looked at, there is the common theme that the L1 provides a familiar and effective way of quickly getting to grips with the meaning and content of what needs to be used in the L2. It is foolish to arbitrarily exclude this proven and efficient means of communicating meaning. To do so would be directly parallel to saying that pictures or real objects should not be used in the L2 class (Nation 1978). All the arguments against L1 use similarly apply to the use of pictures, real objects, and demonstration. The L1 needs to be seen as a useful tool that like other tools should be used where needed but should not be over-used.

Method

This study primarily involved a survey, comprised of one set of questionnaires concerning beliefs, strategy use, moreover, in order to probe more deeply the relationships and among learners' beliefs about L1.

Participants

A total of 30 learners from Andisheyeh Sabz institution in Salmas were selected to participate in this study for the survey. Their ages ranged from (15-18). They were at intermediate level. The data from survey questionnaires will address the following research questions: (1) what are learners' opinions about using their first language to learn second language? (2) What are Iranian EFL learners' first language strategies to learn second language L1?

Instrumentation

The instruments used in this study included two questionnaires which were taken from (Posen Liao) article. For beliefs measurement, the role of translation in Iranian Context English learning, particularly in terms of their learning opinion and learning strategies about using translation to learn ..The researcher went to class to administer the survey at a pre-arranged time. She first briefly explained to the participants the nature and the purpose of this study and provided instructions about how to answer the questionnaires.

Procedure

Students completed the questionnaire during class time .The questionnaire did not ask for any information that could be used to identify individual students. The students were informed that the survey would have no effect on their grade.

Data Analysis

Percentage values were used in order to analyze the collected data.

Results

Table 1: Iranian learners' opinion about using translation to learn English

	Mean
1. Translation helps me understand textbook readings.	87.32%
2. Translation helps me understand spoken English.	80.23%
3. Translation helps me speak English.	70.54%
4. Translation helps me understand English grammar rules.	68.52%
5. Translation helps me learn English idioms and phrases.	70.32%
6*. Translation does not help me make progress in learning English.	59.24%
7. Translation helps me understand my teacher's English instructions.	65.74%
8. Translation helps me interact with my classmates in English class to complete assignments.	79.32%
9. The more difficult the English assignments are, the more I depend on English translation.	67.50%
10. Using Persian translation helps me finish my English.	68.32%
11. using Persian translation while studying helps me better recall the content of a lesson later.	69.54%
12. I like use Persian translation to learn English.	70.32%
13*.The use of Persian translation may interfere with my ability to learn English well.	68.42%
14*. Persian translation diminishes the amount of English input I receive.	52.24%
15. At this stage of learning, I cannot learn English without	63.54%

Persian translation.	
16. I will produce Persian style English if I translate from Persian to English.	68.30%
17*. I prefer my English teachers always use English to teach me.	41.08%
18. I feel pressure when I am asked to think directory in English.	60.37%
19. I tend get frustrated when I try to think in English.	60.28%
20*.When using English, it is best to keep my Persian out of my mind.	40.34%

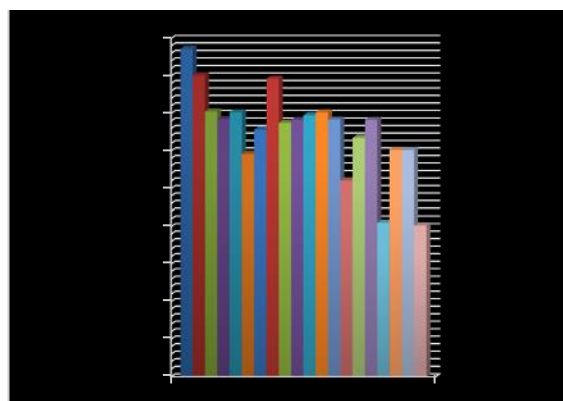


Fig 1: Learners opinion about using translation to learn English

Figure 1 shows that, on the whole, the participants overwhelmingly believe that translating helps them acquire English language skills such as reading, writing, speaking, specially grammar and idiom. Translation can help them to communicate with each other and reduce learning anxiety. In sum, translation plays an important role in learners' English learning progress.

Table 2: The Iranian learners' translation strategies to learn English

	Mean
1. When reading an English text, I first translate it into Persian in my mind to help me understand its meaning.	68.32%
2. After I read English articles, I use an available Persian translation to check if my comprehension is correct.	63.25%

3. To write in English, I first brainstorm about the topic in Persian.	60.38%
4. When I write in English, I first think in Persian and then translate my ideas into English.	61.23%
5. When I listen to English, I first translate the English utterances into Persian to help me understand the meanings.	65.32%
6. When I watch English TV or movies, I use Persian subtitles to check my comprehension.	65.23%
7. When speaking English, I first think of what I want to say in Persian and then translate it into English.	62.75%
8. I memorize the meaning of new English vocabulary words by remembering their Persian translation.	72.54%
9. I learn English grammar through Persian explanations of the English grammatical rules.	59.32%
10. I use Persian translation of grammatical terms such as parts of speech, tenses, and agreements to help me clarify the roles of the grammatical parts of English sentences.	60.72%
11. I learn English idioms and phrases by reading their Persian translation.	64.35%
12. I use English- Persian dictionaries to help myself learn English.	65.52%
13. I use Persian-English dictionaries to help myself learn English.	50.25%
14. I use an electronic translation machine to help myself learn English.	59.24%
15. I ask questions about how a Persian expression can be translated into English.	50.23%

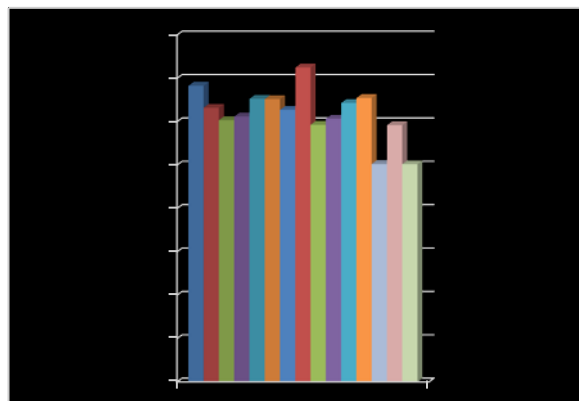


Fig. 2: the Iranian learners' translation strategies to learn English

Conclusions

The final results of this study shows that, L1 could be valuable tool that can contribute to the development of varies language skills and the strategies of L1 would be helpful in developing language skills. As for our final considerations, we can say that the roles of L1 in the L2 classrooms are many: First, it helps students to see the link between language usage and use. Second, it encourages students to see the similarities and differences between L1 and L2. Third, through a comparison of the target language and the students' native language, most language learning difficulties are revealed. Finally, by allowing or even inviting students to give different translations to a word, teachers can check comprehension and introduce new vocabulary, not to mention the development of learning strategies which give learners autonomy and language and learning awareness. L1 as a method of language teaching is still a subject under research and continues to be one of the most frequently discussed topics among teachers of English. In our opinion, this activity should be considered in a wider range of situations than is currently the case. It can be used for language practice and improvement in a similar manner to role play, project work and conversation. We have attempted to show that translation can be introduced purposefully and imaginatively into the language learning programme.

Implications

Without careful and thoughtful application of the students' L1 in the class, excessive dependence on translation will permeate the language classroom, with no language goal being attained. However, the language teacher should make available whatever resources exist if what language is used to negotiate meaning is important for what students learn. If translation aids the student in relating the L2 with the L1, then it is good. If it helps students realize where their mistakes are developing or how others may interpret what they are saying in the L2, then it is something to consider (Edge: 1984).

As far as research is concerned, we aimed to find out about the place of translation in the current curriculum of English language as a school subject. The results suggest that translation, particularly of texts, is used neither sufficiently nor effectively enough. If translation as a classroom technique is to help student achieve competence in the foreign language, it must be used sensibly, systematically and on a regular basis. We consider this purposeful approach very important. There is no point in merely handing out texts to the learners with the instruction "Translate". Students should not be required to translate without having been given practice in the skill. Furthermore, it is essential that the teacher always explains what the purpose of each activity is the students need to know why the activity is being done. Another important issue is the selection of material. The material must be interesting and varied, covering the full range of styles and registers. Genuine translation involves analysis of the meaning of the source text. The students should be led to consider the expressive possibilities of the target language and to discover that it is not always possible to attain exact equivalence. In this way they will learn to evaluate possible versions to see which most fully captures all the implications of the original, and will find out that they need to look beyond single words, chunks of sentences, or even complete sentences to whole stretches of text as they make their

decisions. Ultimately, they will learn to translate ideas, not words. This is one of the main reasons why we consider translation of texts the most important of activities.

The teacher, when selecting the material, must also consider its potential for encouraging discussion. According to Šavelová (2006), all translation should lead to discussion - without this, the use of translation in the classroom is purposeless. Pair work and group work are effective as they give students opportunity to compare and discuss their suggestions with others. All students should be equally involved in the task. The material should preferably be short, with oral translation prevailing over written.

Limitations of the study

In addition, there are some variables not considered in this study which can be considered in further studies. These factors are as follows:

Gender and age of the learners were not considered, controlled or compared in this study. The sample of this study was limited. Studies can be done with large number of learners and see the result. The instrumentation in this study was limited (questionnaire) studies can be done with other instruments and see the results.

Suggestions for future studies

Every research has its own limitations and almost always there is a way to remove those limitations. According to the theoretical concepts and practice procedures in this study, some other related researches projects can be recommended: The first one would be increasing the number of the participants of the research. The second suggestion could be the inclusion of sex as a variable into the study and see the differences.

Finally, we did not consider different levels of proficiency of language learners' in this study. Only intermediate learners participated in this research. Studies can be done with different levels of proficiency of language learners' and see the results.

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APPLYING STRATEGY INVENTORY FOR LANGUAGE LEARNING AND THE MOTIVATED STRATEGIES FOR LEARNING QUESTIONNAIRE IN ASSESSING LEARNING STRATEGIES AND MOTIVATION OF IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS

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Abstract

This study investigated the possibility of using the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) and the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) as instruments of measuring Iranian EFL learners' motivation and their use of language learning strategies. The MSLQ was of exceptional interest because it contains both a fundamental motivation subscale and a motivation/language learning strategies subscale. Participants of this study were 210 EFL learners who were studying English as a Foreign Language at various EFL institutions and/or schools in Iran. Participants provided general demographic information and completed both scales in a counterbalanced manner. Findings depicted that while the two scales have some parallel content; the scales do not overlap completely and measured two discrete indices to some extent. Also, a temperate correlation between MSLQ learning strategies and SILL learning strategies was proved as well as between the SILL total score and the MSLQ total score.

Keywords: MSLQ, SILL, EFL learners, Learning Strategies, Motivation

1. Introduction

There is an important argument on the role of motivation in second language (L2) learning; but most researchers believe that motivation is a major determinant of L2 learning (Dörnyei, Csizer, 2006, and Nemeth, Gardner, Tremblay, and Masgoret, 1997). Past studies have reported a vivid association between motivation and language learning. However, it should be mentioned that because of the influence of mediating factors like self-efficacy, attribution, and achievement goals, this relationship is not straightly causal. Although all of these factors are related to the discussion, this fact that the previous studies couldn't account for cognitive processes related to language learning and learner motivation is very significant. It seems very interesting that while plentiful theoretical frameworks an motivation instruments are accessible in general education (Schunk, Pintrich, and J. Meese, 2007), most of them have

been used by SLA researchers (Huang, 2008). For instance, during the past 40 years, plentiful scales have been developed to assess motivation (e.g., Gardner's Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB), Pintrich et al.'s Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ), and Kuhl's Action Control Scale (ACS-90)). All of these instruments have their own rewards and drawbacks. Model suggested by Gardner is the only standardized instrument in the field of second language learning. Dornyei (2005) believes that because the AMTB assesses both motivation and motivated behavior, it is incapable to assess the precise nature of underlying learner attribute, and it is a factor of criticism. Because of the lack of agreement about standardized instruments that are used to assess L2 motivation (Dornyei 2005), it is impossible to compare the results of different studies (Huang, 2008).

Likewise, while the positive effect of learning strategies in L2 learning has been recognized (E. Macaro, 2006, Oxford, Burry-Stock, 1995, and Oxford and M. Nyikos, 1989), researchers over the past three decades have seldom agreed on the term "language learning strategies" (Dörnyei and P. Skehan, 2003); there is no consensus on a taxonomy of language learning strategies has been reached (Griffiths, 2004); and the psychometric properties of the assessment instruments have therefore been criticized (e.g., Dörnyei, 2005, Dörnyei, 2001, Macaro, 2006, Oxford and J. A. Burry-Stock, 1995, Oxford and M. Nyikos, 1989, Vann and R. G. Abraham, 1990, Dörnyei and P. Skehan, 2003). Once the situation become more complex, cultural background plays a significant role in the use of students' language learning strategy (Oxford, 1996). Research findings have shown that Asian students use different language learning strategies than students from other cultural backgrounds (Politzer and M. McGroarty, 1985, MacIntyre, K. MacMaster, and S. Baker, 2001). For instance, Chinese students, wherever they study, repeatedly use compensation strategies but rarely do they use memory strategies, neither do Korean

students. Both Chinese and Japanese students disfavor also social strategies. It is clear that cultural factors influence the selection of language learning strategies. Skillful Students in monitoring their own metacognitive processes can control their learning by applying cognitive strategies. In the structure of metacognition, cognitive learning strategies play a significant role, providing methods for students to achieve higher academic achievement. Research on cognitive strategies has illustrated a significant correlation between cognitive learning strategies and academic performance, including language learning (MacIntyre, K. MacMaster, and S. Baker, 2001, Sachs, Y. K. Law, C. K. Chan, and N. Rao, 2001). Clearly educators, as well as students, must learn how the use of personalized cognitive strategies is contributed to language learning. The current study examined the possibility of using the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) and the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) as instruments in assessing the motivation and language learning strategies of Iranian EFL learners.

2. Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) and Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ)

The MSLQ has been used by researchers and instructors all around the world in assessing students' motivation and their use of learning strategies (Duncan and W. J. McKeachie, 2005). The scale has not been extensively applied in language learning. But, it has been confirmed that the instrument can be simply applied to language learning (MacIntyre, K. MacMaster, and S. Baker, 2001). The most commonly used instrument developed in evaluating students' language learning strategies is the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL). The most up to date revision of the SILL provides a version for students who speak English as a Second Language (ESL)/English as a Foreign Language (EFL). The earliest revision of the SILL offers a version for students speaking English as a Second/foreign Language (ESL/EFL). Ellis (1994) considers ESL/EFL

SILL as the most comprehensive and modern categorization for learning strategies.

2.1. Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ)

The Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ), developed by Pintrich and his colleagues, is mostly used to assess students' motivational orientations and learning strategies (Pintrich, D. Smith, T. Garcia, and W. J. McKeachie, 1991). This instrument is a Likert scale that consists of 81 items, and have six motivational scales (31 items measuring value, expectancy, and affective component) and nine learning strategies (50 items measuring cognitive and metacognitive strategies, and resource management strategies). The MSLQ has been broadly used to evaluate intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, critical thinking in learning, motivation for conceptual change, self-efficacy, beliefs about knowledge, integrated metacognitive instruction, and adolescent help-seeking in math classes, and goal orientation. It has been proved that the many of the components of the MSLQ are correlated with multiple aspects of motivation and learning strategies (Duncan and McKeachie, 2005, Ellis, 1994, Pintrich, Smith, Garcia, and McKeachie, 1991, Bassili, 2008). This instrument has undergone broad psychometric development, and it has been proved to experience adequate overall internal consistency reliability (Pintrich, Smith, Garcia, and McKeachie, 1991). Other studies have proved equivalent internal consistency reliability estimates for the MSLQ with independent samples (Huang, 2008, and Kosnin, 2007).

2.2. Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)

The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) is planned to study students' frequency of use of six systems of language learning strategies. The six systems, proposed by Oxford (Oxford, 1990), include three direct language learning strategies (cognitive, memory, and compensatory strategies) and three indirect language learning strategies (metacognitive, affective, and social

strategies). The scale has also been shown to prove sufficient indices of reliability and validity (Oxford and Burry-Stock 1995); cronbach alphas have been shown to be 0.94 for the entire scale (Hsiao and Oxford, 2002). Moreover, a great amount of research has proved the criterion-related validity of this instrument (e.g., Anderson and Gerbing, 1988). Oxford (1996) reports Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients above 0.90 for The ESL/EFL version of the SILL among Chinese, Japanese, Korean, and Puerto Rican Spanish translations. Moreover, this version has shown high content and criterion-related validity in many studies (Oxford and Burry-Stock, 1995). The present SILL provides a version those students who speak English as a Second Language (ESL)/English as a Foreign Language (EFL) which includes 50 items, supposed to assess six domains: nine items in memory strategies, 14 items measuring cognitive strategies, six items measuring compensation strategies, nine items measuring metacognitive strategies, six items measuring affective strategies, and six items measuring social strategies. Furthermore, a similar version for native speakers of English who are learning a foreign language (80 item questionnaire) has also been produced. This instrument has been translated into different languages and has been used in educational systems and governmental institutions all over the world (Oxford and Nyikos, 1989). The SILL has been used in SLA to assess language strategy use (Gardner, P. F. Tremblay, and A. M. Masgoret, 1997).

3. Research Hypotheses

To examine the potential of using the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) and the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) in combination as instruments examining Iranian EFL learners' motivation and their use of language learning strategies, the following research hypotheses were formulated:

1 - There will be a positive, significant relationship between language learning strategy and motivation with a population consisting of Iranian EFL learners.

2 - There will be a positive, significant relationship between the MSLQ learning strategies and the SILL learning strategies with a population consisting of Iranian EFL learners.

3 - There will be a positive, significant relationship between the MSLQ total scores and the SILL total scores with a population of Iranian EFL learners.

4. Research Methodology

4.1. Instruments

As indicated before, the two main research instruments were the MSLQ and the SILL scales. In addition, a demographic questionnaire was developed by the researchers to obtain participants' background information relevant to their involvement in this study (i.e., age, EFL levels, and high school GPA). Students completed both scales, during a single administration, in counterbalanced order.

4.2. Participants

A large group of EFL learners studying English as a foreign language in various EFL institutions and schools participated in the study. While 300 learners agreed to participate in the study, only 210 learners could finally take part in the study as others encountered with different types of problems preventing them from participating in the study. The target age of the participants was over 17 years old. Although high school GPAs was not reported by all students, the average score for students who did report was 17.68 out of 20, reflecting the high achievement of the participants.

4.3. Data Analysis

Descriptive statistics were calculated on participant's demographic information. Additionally, Pearson correlation coefficients were employed to determine significant correlations for each pair of data.

5. Results

5.1. Descriptive Analysis of MSLQ and SILL

Participant responses to each of the MSLQ and SILL item are presented in Tables 1 and 2. Table 1 shows that the 31 MSLQ motivation items proved mean scores

between 5.88 and 6.25, with standard deviations between 1.21 and 1.62. Additionally, when examining the 50 MSLQ learning strategy items, mean scores ranged between 4.5 and 5.76, with standard deviations between 1.41 and 1.67. When considering the six categories of MSLQ Motivation, Control of learning beliefs and Task value were employed the most by the Iranian EFL learners (mean of 6.25 and 6.19 resp.) while Intrinsic goal orientation and Test anxiety were utilized the least (mean of 5.88 for both). Finally, among the nine categories of MSLQ Learning strategies, Rehearsal, Elaboration, and Organization were utilized the most by the Iranian EFL learners (means of 5.76, 5.67, and 5.66, resp.) while Peer learning was used the least (mean of 4.5).

Table 1: Descriptive statistics of motivated strategies for learning questionnaire (MSLQ) for Iranian EFL Learners.

Scales	Sub-scales	Mean	SD
Motivation Scales	Intrinsic goal orientation	5.88	1.409
	Extrinsic goal orientation	5.99	1.478
	Task value	6.19	1.313
	Control of learning beliefs	6.25	1.371
	Self-efficacy for learning and performance	5.9	1.217
	Test anxiety	5.88	1.629
Learning Strategy Scales	Rehearsal	5.76	1.565
	Elaboration	5.67	1.519
	Organization	5.66	1.590
	Critical thinking	5.36	1.418
	Metacognitive self-regulation	5.46	1.494
	Time and study environment management	5.48	1.617
	Effort regulation	5.15	1.622
	Help seeking	5.53	1.672
	Peer learning	4.5	1.662

Note: Minimum and maximum scores are based on 7-point Likert scale (1: Not at all and 7: Very true of me)

An examination of Table 2 illustrates that for the 50 SILL items, mean scores ranged from 4.02 to 4.51, with standard deviations between 1.09 and 1.20. The relatively small standard deviations indicate that responses were clustered closely around the mean. Among the six components of the SILL posited by Oxford, Table 2 also shows that Compensatory and Cognitive strategies were utilized the most frequently by the Iranian EFL learners, while Affective and Memory strategies were witnessed the least often.

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics of Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)

Systems	Mean	SD
Memory strategies	4.02	1.208
Cognitive strategies	4.45	1.148
Compensatory strategies	4.51	1.093
Meta cognitive strategies	4.28	1.142
Affective strategies	3.78	1.172
Social strategies	4.19	1.176

Note: Five-point Likert scale was used (1: Never or almost never true of me; 2: Usually not true of me; 3: Somewhat true of me; 4: Usually true of me; and 5. Always or almost always true of me).

5.2. Pearson Correlation Coefficients for MSLQ and SILL

The first comparison of the two measures examined the correlations between all indices of the MSLQ and SILL. Cronbach alphas for the MSLQ and SILL scales from the current sample were 0.920 and 0.946, respectively, showing strong internal consistencies. Correlations among these scores of the MSLQ and SILL are shown in Table 3.

Table 3: Pearson correlation coefficients for MSLQ and SILL.

	M SL Q LS	MS LQ Tot al2	SIL LD ire ct3	SIL LIn dire ct4	SI LL To tal
MSLQMot	0.560**	0.849**	0.270	0.320	0.310
MSLQLS		0.943**	0.424**	0.431**	0.455**
MSLQTot			0.410**	0.436**	0.455**
SILLDirect				0.798**	0.455**
SILLIndirect					0.933**

MSLQMot	0.560**	0.849**	0.270	0.320	0.310
MSLQLS		0.943**	0.424**	0.431**	0.455**
MSLQTot			0.410**	0.436**	0.455**
SILLDirect				0.798**	0.455**
SILLIndirect					0.933**

Note: MSLQMot: MSLQ Motivation subscale.
 2MSLQLS: MSLQ Learning Strategies subscale.
 3SILLDirect: SILL Direct Strategies.
 4SILLIndirect: SILL Indirect Strategies.
 *Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
 **Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Regarding the first research hypothesis, it was expected that there would be a significant, positive relationship between language learning strategies and motivation. Results produced a moderately, statistically significant correlation between the MSLQ Motivation and the MSLQ Learning Strategies ($r = 0.560$). In addition, there was a somewhat lower correlation between the MSLQ Motivation subscale and the SILL Indirect Learning Strategies ($r = 0.32$); and the MSLQ Motivation subscale failed to significantly correlate with the SILL Direct Learning Strategies ($r = 0.27$). Results indicated that while the two scales have some similar content, the scales do not overlap entirely and do appear to measure two discrete indices.

The second research hypothesis prognosticated that there would be a positive, significant relationship between the MSLQ learning strategies and the SILL learning strategies. As expected, results showed that there was a reasonably, statistically significant correlation between the MSLQ Learning Strategies and the two

types of scores (Direct/Indirect Strategies) produced by the SILL ($r = 0.41$ and 0.43 , resp.).

Concerning the final research hypothesis, it was expected that there would be a positive, significant relationship between the MSLQ total scores and the SILL total scores. Again, the findings confirmed a moderate correlation between the SILL total scores and the MSLQ total scores ($r = 0.45$), supporting the research hypothesis.

6. Discussion and Conclusion

The Main goal of this study was to scrutinize the relationship between motivation and language learning strategies in a population of Iranian EFL learners. Specifically, two of the most commonly administered scales used with EFL learners were examined to make better understanding of the potential relationship between the constructs of motivation and language learning strategies. Two chief conclusions were achieved which present significant theoretical and practical implications as well. First, results confirmed that the motivational subscale of the MSLQ was correlated with both subscales of the SILL to some extent. The MSLQ was chosen deliberately because it contains two subscales including a "pure" motivation subscale as well as a motivation/language learning strategies subscale. No correlation was found between motivation and direct language learning strategies; though a significant relationship was proved between motivation and indirect language learning strategies. This connection between motivation and language learning strategies has been previously recognized; however, our results emphasize the complexity of this connection. The strong relationship between motivation and indirect language learning strategies is critical when located within a metacognitive framework. All EFL learners are expected to recognize and utilize the individualized processes which seem helpful for them. Findings of this study prove that the present sample of Iranian EFL learners seems to be capable to keep this balance. These results support

previous findings that most EFL learners are sent to school without enough English as a Foreign Language (EFL) education (Harklau, Losey, and Siegal, Eds, 1999).

We achieved several interesting findings by analyzing the Motivation and Learning strategies utilized by the students. The high Control of learning belief score shows the expectation by the learners that an attempt to learn will lead to positive outcomes. These results are also more dependent upon intrinsic factors such as one's own effort, than external factors such as a teacher. Likewise, Task value was also scored high by the EFL learners reflecting the very practical, applied nature of their motivation. This finding is also reflected by the high Metacognitive self-regulation and Time and study environment management scores formed on the Learning strategies section of the MSLQ.

Several distinctive strategies emerged with regards to the present sample including: Compensatory and Cognitive techniques (e.g., Questions 15, I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English; 17, I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English; 24, To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses, and 29, If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing). It is worth mentioning that these strategies were done in isolation not in an interactive or conversational setting.

The present study is also related to the existing educational research literature by advocating previous research on L2 learning. Ultimately, the current study has identified an essential indicator of educational practice for L2 learning through the combination of the MSLQ and the SILL. Indirect and direct language learning skills showed the strongest relationship among the examined variables. Language learning skills relate to motivation; however, they should most likely be thought of as a comparatively distinctive construct. When considering language learning strategies, the use of individualized strategies has been shown to

develop language proficiency (MacIntyre, K. MacMaster, and S. Baker, 2001, and Goh, 1998). Particularly, the distinction between successful and less successful learners is typically the learners' ability of applying strategies in their own learning situations (Vann and Abraham, 1990). Students with different levels of language proficiency make different use of basic skills (Ross and Rost, 1991). Moreover, existing findings give important implications for EFL teachers who work with EFL learners in the context of Iran and suggestions for future research as well. First, instructors should re-reflect on the application of language learning strategies and motivation of students in their classes. The findings suggest a distinction between language learning strategies that to motivation and indirect language skills. Recognizing this distinction, teachers will be able to produce more individualized strategies for their EFL learners. Eventually, this study offers a new direction for L2 research, because the intended use of combining both MSLQ and SILL for this study was to depict the complexity of the L2 learning process. Teachers who work with EFL learners must continue to more carefully define the specific strategies that are used by these students, considering the fact that academic success is strongly influenced by individual differences in motivation (Komarraju, S. J. Karau, and Schmeck, 2009). . For instance, EFL instructors should recognize the strategies used by their students for language learning and should encourage elementary and low-intermediate learners to use more appropriate learning strategies. Furthermore, instructors should incorporate more strategies in their classes to facilitate the learners' learning style.

Another implication of this study is that researchers should try to involve the complexity of L2 student academic experiences and learning backgrounds in EFL teaching context. The current study did not scrutinize whether diverse socioeconomic levels of families are probable covariates or not, but these considerations are advised for future researchers. It seems also imperative to note this fact that all data in this study were

collected from self-reports; no attempt was made to collect data by measuring motivation and learning strategies directly in real situation. More studies may consider observing these behaviors within the classroom setting or obtaining reports from the classroom instructors regarding the frequency of their occurrence.

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THE USE OF TEXTUAL AND INTERPERSONAL METADISOURSE ACROSS DISCIPLINARY COMMUNITIES

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Abstract

Metadiscourse offers a powerful analytical tool for describing discourse and mapping the ways that language is related to the social content in which it is used. With the recent developments in the area of academic discourse analysis it is accepted that the negotiation of academic knowledge is related to the social practices of the academic communities. Therefore, metadiscourse is seen as central to the overall purpose of language use, rather than merely adjunct to it. The purpose of the present study was to investigate the use of textual and interpersonal metadiscourse markers in dissertations of four disciplines, including applied linguistics, medicine, computer science, and business studies. Furthermore, patterns of use of textual and interpersonal metadiscourse markers in academic writings of native and non-native speakers of English were investigated. A large corpus-based study which consisted of 80 dissertations within those four disciplines was conducted. The frequency of the metadiscourse markers was calculated per 1000 words. The results showed that the use of metadiscourse varies considerably among native and non-native speakers and across disciplinary communities. It indicated that explicit personal interpretation lays a greater role in the humanities and the social sciences. In dealing with human subjects and data,

writers are unable to draw to the same extent on empirical demonstration or trusted quantitative methods. Consequently, persuasion lies far more in the efficacy of the argument and the role of language to build a relationship with readers, positioning them, persuading them, and including them in the argument. The findings of the present research may have implication for teaching disciplinary communication especially to the EFL learners.

Key Words

Metadiscourse, transitions, frame markers, endophorics, evidential, code glasses, hedges, boosters, attitude markers, engagement markers, self mentions

The use of Textual and Interpersonal Metadiscourse across disciplinary communities

The term metadiscourse is referred to as text about text, discourse about discourse or communication about communication (Mauranen, 1993; Vande Kopple, 1985). It has also been defined as "writing about the evolving text rather than referring to the subject matter" (Swales, 2004). According to Hyland (2005), 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. In other words, metadiscourse has been regarded as self-reflective expressions used to negotiate interactional meanings in a text, assisting the writer/speaker to express a viewpoint and engage the readers/ listeners as members of a particular community.

Vande Kopple (1985) argues that Metadiscourse items are non-propositional, non-truth conditional. According to him, metadiscourse items do not expand the propositional information of the text. They do not make claims about states of affairs in the world that can be either true or false. This assumption about the non-propositional, non-truth conditional status of metadiscourse can also be seen in other studies as well. For instance, Crismore et al. (1993), define metadiscourse as linguistic material in texts, written or spoken, which does not add anything to the propositional content but that is intended to help the listener or reader organize, interpret and evaluate the information given. Similarly, Hyland (1999) stresses non-propositionality of metadiscourse. According to him, one important means by which texts depict the characteristics of an underlying community is through the writer's use of metadiscourse. All academic disciplines have conventions of rhetorical personality which influence the way writers intrude into their texts to organize their arguments and represent themselves, their readers, their attitudes. This is largely accomplished through non propositional material or metadiscourse.

Another issue addressed in the literature of metadiscourse is the functional role of metadiscourse. Hyland (2005) proposes a functional model of metadiscourse which is based on the assumption that the rhetorical features of metadiscourse can be understood more clearly when they are used or identified in contexts in which they occur. Therefore, the analyses of metadiscourse have to be conducted as part of that particular context or as part of that particular community practices. Similarly, Adel (2006) believes that metadiscourse is a functional category that can be realized in a

great variety of ways. According to her, an item which is metadiscursive in some point due to its relation with its co-text and its use may not be metadiscursive in another. Nevertheless, Adel (2006) and Hyland (2005) further argue that metadiscourse items may play different functions in different texts or even they may fill two or more functions at the same time.

Metadiscourse studies tend to distinguish between evaluative lexis, used to qualify individual items, and stance markers, which provide an attitudinal or evaluative frame for an entire proposition. Therefore, it may not be possible to capture every interpersonal feature or writer intention in a coding scheme and that any list of metadiscourse markers can be partial.

Given the breadth of meanings realized by metadiscourse markers, there are a number of different ways which these features have been categorized. Most taxonomy are closely based on that proposed by Vande Kopple (1985), whose categorization consists of seven kinds of metadiscourse markers divided into textual and interpersonal types. According to his system, text connectives, code glasses, validity markers, and narrators constitute textual metadiscourse.

Moreover, illocution markers, attitude markers, and commentaries constitute interpersonal metadiscourse. A brief description of these metadiscourse markers are as follows:

Text connectives:

are used to help show how parts of a text are connected to one another. They include sequences (first, next), reminders (as I mentioned), and topicalizers, which focus attention on the topic of a text segment (with regard to, in connection with).

Code glasses: are used to help readers to grasp the writer's intended meaning. Based on the writer's assessment of the reader's knowledge, these devices explain, define, or clarify the sense of a usage, sometimes putting the reformulation in parenthesis or making it as an example, etc.

Validity markers: are used to express the writer's commitment to the probability or truth of a statement. They include hedges (perhaps, might may), emphatics (clearly, undoubtedly), and attributers.

Narrators: are used to inform readers of the source of the information presented (according to the prime minister).

Illocution markers: are used to make explicit the discourse act the writer is performing at certain points (to conclude, to sum up, I hypothesize).

Attitude markers: are used to express the writers' attitudes to the propositional material he/she presents (unfortunately, interestingly).

Commentaries: are used to address readers directly, drawing them into an implicit dialogue by commenting on the readers' probable mood or possible reaction to the text (you will certainly agree that).

Vande Kopple's model was specifically important in that it was the first systematic attempt to introduce a taxonomy that triggered lots of practical studies, and gave rise to new taxonomies. The categories are, however, vague and functionally overlap. Therefore, it is difficult to apply them in practice. One clear problem is the difficulty of distinguishing narrators and attributers, particularly in academic writing where citation is used to perform a variety of rhetorical functions. In fact, citations provide propositional warrants (validity markers) and meet conventions of precedence (narrators) as well as offering a narrative context for the research or establishing an intertextual framework to suggest a cumulative and linear progression of knowledge (Hyland, 2004). Consequently, Vande Kopple's model has been refined by various writers. However, the most substantial revisions have been those of Crismore et al. (1993) and Hyland (2005) who separated and reorganized Vande Kopple's categories.

Crismore et al. (1993) dropped narrators, shifted some sub-functions to a new

category of textual markers, and moved code glasses and illocution markers into another new category of interpretive markers. These two new categories of "textual" and "interpretive" markers are supposed to separate organizational and evaluative functions. Textual markers consist of those features that help organize the discourse, and interpretive markers are those features used to help readers to better interpret and understand the writer's meaning and writing strategies.

The model proposed by Hyland (2005), however, comprises of two main categories of "interactive" and "interactional". This model owes a great deal to Thompson and Thetela's conception (1995), but it takes a wider focus by including stance and engagement markers. The interactive part of metadiscourse concerns the writer's awareness of his reader, and his attempts to accommodate his interests and needs, and to make the argument satisfactory for him. The interactional part, on the other hand, concerns the writer's attempts to make his views explicit, and to engage the reader by anticipating his responses to the text. "Interactive" categories consist of seven subcategories: transition markers, frame markers, endophoric markers, evidential, and code glasses. "Interactional" categories consist of five subcategories including hedges, boosters, attitude markers, self mentions, and engagement markers. A brief description of these categories is as follows: Transition markers: are mainly conjunctions and adverbial phrases which help readers interpret pragmatic connections between steps in an argument. They signal additive, causative, and contrastive relations in the writer's thinking.

Frame markers: signal text boundaries or elements of schematic text structure. They function to sequence, label, predict, and shift arguments, making the discourse clear to the readers.

Endophoric markers: are expressions which refer to other parts of the text. They make additional material salient and

available to the reader in aiding the recovery of the writer's meanings.

Evidentials: are metalinguistic representations of an idea from another source which guide the reader's interpretation and establish an authorial command of the subject.

Code glasses: supply additional information by rephrasing, explaining or elaborating what has been said to ensure that reader will get the intended meaning of the writer.

Hedges: are devices such as "possible", "perhaps" which indicate the writer's decision to recognize alternative viewpoints.

Boosters: words such as "clearly", "obviously" which allow writers to close down alternatives and conflictive views and express their certainty in their sayings. **Attitude markers:** indicate the writer's affective, rather than epistemic attitude to propositions.

Self mentions: refer to the degree of explicit author presence in the text measured by the frequency of first person pronouns and possessive adjectives.

Engagement markers: explicitly address readers, either to focus their attention or include them as discourse participants.

The metadiscourse model presented by Hyland (2005) which was addressed above was used in the present study.

Although metadiscourse is a relatively new area of linguistics, there has been a vast array of studies of both spoken and written texts, representing different genres, and disciplines.

Disciplinary variation has remained a controversy from both theoretical and empirical perspectives and researchers have different views on academic discourse. For example, Raimes (1991) doubts whether there is fixed and stable construct of academic writings even in one

discipline and whether there is such a notion as 'academic discourse' to teach and to learn.

However, Halliday (1994) claims that linguistic variations result from functional variations inherent in different disciplines. According to him, each discipline has its own theoretical frameworks from which it grounds its field and consequently each discipline's discourse has developed its rhetorical framework. However, Hyland (2001) rejects the unitary academic discourse and argues that disciplines have different views of knowledge, and different research practices. Therefore, investigating the practices of those disciplines will inevitably take us to greater specificity.

Dahl (2004) identifies two cultures as the most influential factors affecting the writers' scientific contributions: disciplinary culture and native language writing culture. Disciplinary culture is formed when we have been socialized into through our academic studies and native language writing culture is formed by the native language writing culture we have been brought up. Many studies have explored the ways academic writers use language to offer credible representation of their work in different disciplines (Crismore and Farnsworth 1990; Mauranen 1993; Valero-Garces 1996; Bäcklund 1998; Abdi 2002; Breivega et al 2002; Hyland and Tse, 2004; Hyland 2005). In fact, they aimed to show how metadiscourse can reveal the rhetorical and social distinctiveness of disciplinary communities. The results of such studies revealed that metadiscourse can be seen as a universal phenomenon in academic rhetoric, with about the same overall density of metadiscourse resources (including textual and interpersonal resources) in different disciplines.

As the above reviews revealed, scientific and academic contributions of the researchers in various disciplines are influenced by the disciplinary culture they have been socialized into through their academic studies. In fact, the choices of tools among metadiscourse resources help to establish the interaction between writer

and reader in academic texts. In order to improve knowledge of the interactive characteristics in the research articles, it seems necessary to have a systematic account of using metadiscourse resources, which researchers across disciplines deploy to achieve their intended effects. The purpose of the present study was to investigate the use of textual and interpersonal metadiscourse markers in dissertations of four disciplines, including applied linguistics, medicine, computer science, and business studies. Furthermore, patterns of use of textual and interpersonal metadiscourse markers in academic writings of native and non-native speakers of English were investigated. Few studies have been done on the use of textual metadiscourse markers in dissertations of the Iranian researchers. Nevertheless, no study has been carried out on the use of both of textual and interpersonal metadiscourse markers in dissertations of applied linguistics, medicine, computer science, and business studies.

Consequently, the researcher believes that there is still room for further research within Iranian context.

In order to achieve the purpose of the study, the following research questions were proposed:

- 1) What differences can be seen in the use of textual and interpersonal metadiscourse markers by researchers of four disciplinary areas including applied linguistics, medicine, computer science, and business studies?
- 2) Are there any differences in the use of textual and interpersonal metadiscourse markers in academic writings of native and non-native speakers of English?

And consequently the following null hypotheses were formulated:

HO1. There is no difference in the use of textual and interpersonal metadiscourse among researchers of four disciplinary areas including applied linguistics, medicine, computer science, and business studies.

HO2. There is no difference in the use of textual and interpersonal metadiscourse

markers in academic writings of native and non-native speakers of English.

Method

Participants

The data for the present study was gained from 80 dissertations in the fields of applied linguistics, medicine, computer science, and business studies. 20 dissertations for each disciplinary field were analyzed. Among 20 dissertations in each discipline, 10 belonged to native writers and ten to Iranian writers. All the dissertations were written in the last 6 years and belonged to students studying at renowned universities. In order to come up with a homogenous data, the dissertations were chosen on the basis of having an experimental design.

Instruments

The researcher used Hyland's (2005) metadiscourse model in the present study. Hyland's metadiscourse model. The model proposed by Hyland (2005), comprises of two main categories of "interactive" and "interactional". This model owes a great deal to Thompson and Thetela's conception (1995), but it takes a wider focus by including stance and engagement markers. The interactive part of metadiscourse concerns the writer's awareness of his reader, and his attempts to accommodate his interests and needs, and to make the argument satisfactory for him. The interactional part, on the other hand, concerns the writer's attempts to make his views explicit, and to engage the reader by anticipating his responses to the text. "Interactive" categories consist of seven subcategories: transition markers, frame markers, endophoric markers, evidential, and code glasses. "Interactional" categories consist of five subcategories including hedges, boosters, attitude markers, self mentions, and engagement markers.

Design

In order to determine the differences in the category distribution of textual and interpersonal metadiscourse among four different disciplines of applied linguistics, medicine, computer science, and business studies, the frequency of occurrences of each category of textual and interpersonal

metadiscourse per 1000 words were computed. The same procedure was carried out to investigate the frequency of occurrences of each category of textual and interpersonal metadiscourse in the dissertations of native and non native English speakers in the mentioned disciplinary fields. Later, statistical technique of chi-square was administered to investigate the possible significant differences among the frequencies.

Procedure

A large corpus of 80 dissertations in the fields of applied linguistics, medicine, computer science, and business studies was included in the present study. In order to come up with a homogenous data, dissertations which had an experimental design were chosen for the study. In each discipline, 20 dissertations were analyzed and among 20 dissertations in each discipline, 10 belonged to native writers and ten to Iranian writers. Overall, 226, 350 words were analyzed. To determine the pattern of textual and interpersonal metadiscourse markers used in the four different disciplines, the researcher used Hyland’s (2005) metadiscourse model and computed the frequency of occurrence of different textual and interpersonal metadiscourse markers per 1000 words. Moreover, the same procedure was done in order to investigate the frequency of occurrences of each category of textual and interpersonal metadiscourse in the dissertations of native and non native English speakers in the mentioned disciplinary fields.

Later, statistical technique of chi-square was administered to investigate the possible significant differences among the frequencies.

Results

In order to test the first hypothesis of the study which addresses the difference in the use of textual and interpersonal metadiscourse among researchers of four disciplinary areas (applied linguistics, medicine, computer science, and business studies), the frequency of occurrence of different textual and interpersonal

metadiscourse markers per 1000 words were computed.

As indicated in tables 1, 3, and 7, the most frequently used textual metadiscourse markers were transitions and evidential in applied linguistics, medicine, and business studies. Moreover, the least frequent used textual metadiscourse markers were endophorics in these fields.

Table 1
The use of different “textual” (“interpretive” in Hyland’s model) metadiscourse markers in applied linguistics

Metadiscourse category	Frequency per 1000 words	Percentage
Transitions	83.47	36.87
Frame markers	21.18	9.35
Endophorics	12.57	5.55
Evidentials	68.41	30.22
Code glasses	40.71	17.98
Interactive	226.34	100

Table 2
The use of different “interpersonal” (interactional” in Hyland’s model) metadiscourse markers in applied linguistics

Metadiscourse category	Frequency per 1000 words	Percentage
Hedges	90.77	40.10
Boosters	30.26	13.36
Attitude markers	13.81	6.10
Engagement markers	51.00	22.53
Self mentions	40.00	17.67
Interactional	225.84	100

Table 3
The use of different “textual” (“interpretive” in Hyland’s model) metadiscourse markers in medicine

Metadiscourse category	Frequency per 1000 words	Percentage
Transitions	81.98	36.21
Frame markers	23.76	10.49
Endophorics	19.99	8.83

Evidentials	62.83	27.75
Code glasses	36.68	16.20
Interactive	225.24	100

As shown in table 2, and 4, the most frequent used interpersonal markers in the field of applied linguistics and medicine were the hedges. Furthermore, the least frequent used interpersonal marker were attitude markers and self mentions in these disciplines.

Table 4
The use of different “interpersonal” (interactional” in Hyland’s model) metadiscourse markers in medicine

Metadiscourse category	Frequency per 1000 words	Percentage
Hedges	69.05	38.79
Boosters	26.60	19.75
Attitude markers	13.28	13.86
Engagement markers	12.45	13.50
Self mentions	4.98	11.70
Interactional	126.36	100

Table 5
The use of different “textual” (“interpretive” in Hyland’s model) metadiscourse markers in computer sciences

Metadiscourse category	Frequency per 1000 words	Percentage
Transitions	64.90	32.67
Frame markers	30.57	19.50
Endophorics	22.71	14.53
Evidentials	28.08	16.72
Code glasses	26.95	15.90
Interactive	173.21	100

Table 6
The use of different “interpersonal” (interactional” in Hyland’s model) metadiscourse markers in computer sciences

Metadiscourse category	Frequency per 1000 words	Percentage
Hedges	48.75	26.93

Boosters	26.68	16.78
Attitude markers	14.13	11.84
Engagement markers	49.56	26.89
Self mentions	25.67	16.34
Interactional	164.79	100

The results showed that the most frequent used textual and interpersonal metadiscourse markers in the field of computer sciences were transitions, hedges, and engagement markers. However the least frequent used metadiscourse markers were computed to be endophorics, code glasses, and attitude markers.

Table 7
The use of different “textual” (“interpretive” in Hyland’s model) metadiscourse markers in business studies

Metadiscourse category	Frequency per 1000 words	Percentage
Transitions	77.75	36.34
Frame markers	20.84	11.20
Endophorics	16.60	9.33
Evidentials	52.42	26.95
Code glasses	26.20	13.57
Interactive	193.81	100

Table 8
The use of different “interpersonal” (interactional” in Hyland’s model) metadiscourse markers in business studies

Metadiscourse category	Frequency per 1000 words	Percentage
Hedges	81.25	38.93
Boosters	26.21	15.57
Attitude markers	17.47	11.71
Engagement markers	30.57	17.59
Self mentions	27.09	16.96
Interactional	182.59	100

In order to test the second hypothesis of the study which addresses difference in the use

of textual and interpersonal metadiscourse markers in academic writings of native and non-native speakers of English, frequency of occurrence of different textual and interpersonal metadiscourse markers per 1000 words. The results showed that the overall distribution of textual and interpersonal metadiscourse markers in dissertations of native writers was greater than that of non native writers. Moreover, native speakers tend to use more evidential and case glasses in comparison with non native speakers.

Table 9
The use of textual and interpersonal metadisourses by native and non native speakers in applied linguistics

Metadis course category	Frequ ency per 1000 word s	Perce ntage	Native Speakers	
			Frequ ency per 1000 word s	Perce ntage
Transiti ons	39	34.45	43	37.99
Frame markers	14.84	13.11	6.90	6.09
Endoph orics	5.89	5.20	7.22	6.37
Evidenti als	30	26.50	37	32.69
Code glasses	23.45	20.72	17.90	15.81
Interacti ve	113.18	100	112.02	100
Hedges	46.78	41.33	44.89	39.66
Boosters	15.89	13.04	15.12	13.35
Attitude markers	6.22	5.29	6.38	5.63
Engage ment markers	26.58	23.28	24.01	21.21
Self mention s	20.05	17.71	22.79	20.13
Interacti onal	115.52	100	113.19	100

Table 10
The use of textual and interpersonal metadisourses by native and non native speakers in medicine

Metadis course category	Frequ ency per 1000 word s	Perce ntage	Native Speakers	
			Frequ ency per 1000 word s	Perce ntage
Transiti ons	39.12	32.06	42.58	38.62
Frame markers	12.79	9.30	10.45	10.23
Endoph orics	10.80	7.14	11.02	10.73
Evidenti als	29.90	24.21	31.40	28.74
Code glasses	14.89	30.15	9.79	9.65
Interacti ve	107.5	100	105.24	100
Hedges	35.03	37.95	35.88	38.13
Boosters	13.22	17.73	13.26	17.81
Attitude markers	7.89	13.97	8.35	14.67
Engage ment markers	8.79	15.76	5.98	13.88
Self mention s	2.45	9.76	3.02	11.66
Interacti onal	67.38	100	66.49	100

Table 11
The use of textual and interpersonal metadisourses by native and non native speakers in computer sciences

Metadis course category	Frequ ency per 1000 word s	Perce ntage	Native Speakers	
			Frequ ency per 1000 word s	Perce ntage
Transiti ons	32.34	32.97	32.89	33.06
Frame markers	16.56	17.63	14.11	15.14

Endoph orics	10.79	12.53	11.01	13.92
Evidenti als	14.89	17.75	14.46	17.57
Code glasses	15.89	18.04	12.79	16.53
Interacti ve	90.47	100	85.26	100
Hedges	25.73	28.73	23.99	27.98
Boosters	13.89	19.97	13.22	19.68
Attitude markers	7.78	13.87	7.24	14.39
Engage ment markers	28.89	19.85	22.12	17.54
Self mention s	11.22	15.91	13.21	17.67
Interacti onal	87.51	100	79.78	100

mention s				
Interacti onal	88.87	100	86.67	100

Table 12

The use of textual and interpersonal metadiscourses by native and non native speakers in business studies

Metadis course category	Frequ ency per 1000 word s	Perce ntage	Frequ ency per 1000 word s	Perce ntage
	Native Speakers		Non native speakers	
Transiti ons	38.55		39.99	
Frame markers	12.89		8.89	
Endoph orics	8.22		8.59	
Evidenti als	20.22		27.89	
Code glasses	15.89		12.89	
Interacti ve	95.77	100	98.25	100
Hedges	40.22	39.53	39.63	38.81
Boosters	13.22	15.68	13.01	15.39
Attitude markers	5.22	8.61	7.12	10.29
Engage ment markers	17.99	19.89	13.21	16.67
Self	10.22	14.03	13.70	17.10

Discussion

Metadiscourse is particularly important at advanced levels of writings (dissertations, research articles,...) as it represents writer’s attempts to negotiate propositional information in ways that are appropriate to a particular disciplinary community. Moreover, meta-discourse reveals writer’s assumptions about the processing abilities, and contextual resources as well as his/ her abilities to adopt an appropriate disciplinary persona by revealing a suitable relationship to the data, arguments, and the readers (Hyland, 2005).

As the results indicated, transition markers were among the most frequently used textual metadiscourse markers in all four disciplines. This is probably due to the fact that internal connections in the discourse, is an important feature of the academic argument and academic writers are very concerned about the readers’ ability to recover their reasoning unambiguously. Moreover, the most frequent used interpersonal metadiscourses markers were the hedges among all the investigated disciplines. This reflects the critical importance of distinguishing fact from opinion in academic writings and the need for writers to evaluate their assertions in ways which recognize potential alternative viewpoints.

The results of the present study indicated that the use of textual and interpersonal metadiscourse markers in academic discourse is regulated by the conventions each discourse community has to rely on. It was revealed that academic writers in the fields of applied linguistics and medicine used more textual metadiscourse markers in comparison with academic writers in computer and business studies.

Moreover, the use of metadiscourse markers was different among native and

non native speakers. Native speakers tend to use more evidential and code glasses. Additionally, they use less endophorics and transitions in comparison with the non native speakers. Being the native or non-native writers of English even in the same discipline may cause potential differences because the forms of transmitting knowledge in academic settings vary not only across disciplines, but also across cultures.

Lack of familiarity with these resources of academic discourse may cause difficulties for the students who want to be considered as a member of disciplinary community. The awareness of textual and interpersonal metadiscourse markers provides the opportunity for learners to adopt a suitable disciplinary persona. Therefore, it seems essential to devote special attention to the teaching of metadiscourse markers to the foreign language learners of English especially in the ESP courses. There is still much room for research in the area of textual and interpersonal metadiscourse markers and our understanding of these resources needs to be sharpened by doing further research in this arena.

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IDEOLOGY AND ACADEMIC DISCOURSE: THE CASE OF IRANIAN EFL STUDENTS

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Abstract

The present study explored two contradictory ideas about the domain of critical disciplinary literacy development, namely, a culture-deterministic view, on the one hand and a training-based view on the other and the extent to which Iranian EFL disciplinary community members' (university professors and post-graduate students who will join this community in future) ideologies on critical literacy are in line with either of the two contradictory perspectives. The findings of the study showed that both viewpoints are involved in EFL community members' ideas about disciplinary literacy and its development.

The ideas explored showed that both perspectives are involved in shaping EFL community members' ideas about critical disciplinary literacy. Three factors of culture, context and training were obtained as constructing Iranian EFL university professors and their post-graduate students' ideas about the nature and scope of critical disciplinary literacy skills. Genre-based instruction in desired disciplinary areas can be used as an important way to develop such skills in EFL post-graduate students.

Keywords: Critical literacy, disciplinary literacy, advanced academic literacy, ideology, discourse, discourse community

Introduction

The goal of all academic instructions especially at postgraduate levels is to train students who can become members of their particular discourse communities. Theses, dissertations and research articles are the most important academic accomplishments of university students. Gaining this level of disciplinary literacy is a difficult process

even in one's native language and it is obvious that gaining such an accomplishment in a foreign language is a much more challenging task. It is through academic literacy experiences (reading and writing) that L2 students acquire knowledge and demonstrate it. This is especially the case with postgraduate students as they are more likely to undergo disciplinary enculturation. Writing is integral to students' induction into academic cultures and discourse communities, and is the principal way they demonstrate the knowledge and skills they have acquired during their studies and "their fitness for accreditation" (Goodfellow, 2005, p. 481). In other words, an integral aspect of individuals' academic competences includes familiarity with the accepted discursive practices of the disciplinary community they belong to (Hyland, 1998; Swales, 1990).

In this way, gaining a critical perspective is an important aspect of academic products. As Riazi (2010, p.1) states, these types of "higher-order literacy skills ... [are] operationalized in students' critical reading of academic texts and their ability to produce discipline-specific genres". Ferenz (2005, p. 339) also believes that advanced academic literacy for non-native English writers includes "knowledge of the rhetorical, linguistic, social and cultural features of academic discourse as well as knowledge of English as used by their academic disciplines". This type of writing is a manifestation of students' critical reading skills.

The present study aims to explore two contradictory perspectives on the development of critical academic and

disciplinary literacy (culture-specific and training view) and also tries to examine how Iranian EFL post-graduate students and their professors' ideas are in line with these different viewpoints.

Critical academic literacy

It has long been established that there are significant differences in the purposes, functions, and social values of literacy and that the purposes for reading and writing are not universal in nature and can differ across contexts and cultures (Heath, 1983, Ozbilgin, 2010; Scribner & Cole, 1981). Faigley (1986, p.535) claims that writing "can be understood only from the perspective of a society rather than a single individual." Hyland (2008) believes that the interrelationship between genre and community is one reason why writing in English is difficult for EFL writers. She continues:

While all possibilities are available to all users, what is seen as logical, engaging, relevant or well-organised in writing often differs across cultures. Culture isn't the only explanation of course, and we can't simply predict the ways students are likely to write on the basis of assumed cultural preferences. But it is clear there are different ways of organising ideas and structuring arguments in different languages which can have implications for teachers of academic writing (p. 548).

As an example, Hyland (2008) regards English academic texts as more explicit regarding structure and purposes, less tolerant of deviation, more careful in making claims, use more sentence connectors, while this is not the case in German, Korean, Chinese and Japanese and other languages where it is the reader who is responsible for getting the unread messages not the writer.

Many scholars believe that in understanding literacy, social, cultural, and contextual features should be taken into account (Baynham, 1995; Gee, 1998; Kern, 2000; Ozbilgin, 2010). For example, Ozbilgin (2010) believes that there is an ideological difference between the East and the West regarding concepts like creation,

individualism and criticism. He claims that in Eastern cultures, creation (including writing which is a creative process) is defined in terms of the repetition of accepted and traditional models, while, in West, it is accounted for in terms of questioning the norms, reconstructing them and creating something new. Individuality has no cultural ground in East and as such, self-mention is not safe but safety is in keeping with traditions. According to Ozbilgin (2010), in the East, people are educated in a way not question and criticize the valued traditions, while, in West, the educational system trains individuals who have the ability to question the accepted norms and resynthesize them in their own language and style. He concludes that this explains why process models of teaching writing are not successful in an Eastern situation whereas product models are more in line with Eastern ideologies and value backgrounds.

In the same line of research, some scholars interested in the contrastive rhetorical tradition, attribute the difficulties of non-native English writers in academic criticism to their cultural backgrounds (Conner, 1996; Kaplan, 1988). As Cheng (2006, p. 280) asserts "learners from some supposedly collectivist Asian cultures where an evaluative voice is allegedly often suppressed tend to feel disoriented when they have to engage in the presumably agonistic Anglophone academic discourse tradition". He also mentions the ideology of academic publishing tradition in different cultures as another source of difficulty for L2 writers (p. 281). Western scholars often compete for publishing their articles and this justifies the extensive use of academic criticism as it grants a scholar's professional survival (Mauranen, 1993). But such a competition does not exist in non-Anglophonic academic cultures. This may be an explanation for the fact that writing critically is difficult for EFL and even members of discourse community of certain background cultures (Cheng, 2006).

In Iran, in an article named "Teaching Literary Criticism to Iranian University Students: Some Cultural Obstacles",

Payandeh (2009) claims that teaching literary theory and criticism to Iranian students is a frustrating and disappointing task and attributes students' silence in literary criticism classes to cultural and societal factors. He maintains: Contrary to our lived experiences in Western universities where students prepare themselves for active class discussions by prior reading of not only the text but also a range of critical material on the text, Iranian students ...prefer to remain as silent observers who occasionally nod to indicate their passive agreement with the teacher but never dare to challenge him/her or present a different view or argument. Disagreement or even getting involved in a discussion initiated by the teacher seems to be an anathema to the majority of Iranian students..." (p. 38).

The writer argues that Iranian university students brought up in a culture which is alien to pluralism seek "the assurance of an ultimate word" (p. 38). He concludes that this situation cannot change unless both university teachers and students change their attitudes towards criticism and cultural plurality.

This pessimistic view, however, is not supported by research. Butt (2010) maintains that critical thinking abilities are low among students in the United State. He cites studies done by researchers (brannigan, 2009; Krueger, 2009; Shellenbarger, 2009; Viadero, 2009) which show students' low scores on tests of critical thinking in the United States, students' "inability to understand and evaluate arguments" (p. 20), and even their instructors' problems because of their failures in critical thinking (Gilovich, 1991).

Contrary to this view, there are other scholars (Atkinson, 2003, 2004; Kubota & Lehner, 2004; Zamel, 1997) who have criticised the cultural viewpoint as limiting the scope of literacy as merely a reflection of cultural patterns and not a social endeavour involving human thought and reasoning. In the same line of conceptualization, Lun, Fischer and Ward (2010), while accepting the outperformance

of western students over their Asian counterparts regarding critical thinking scales, attribute this difference to English proficiency and not to dialectical thinking styles. The study also indicated that students' critical thinking was a predictor of their academic performance but this relationship was not related to students' cultural backgrounds or cultural adoption. Ideology, discourse and literacy

Those scholars influenced by Foucault's ideas (1980) define discourses as expressive human behaviours which people use in institutions and social and cultural contexts to convey meanings and purposes, to construct knowledge and common understandings of their realities and to make claims to truth and power. In other words, discourses "are conventional ways of talking that both create and are created by conventional ways of thinking" (Johnstone, 2008, p. 3). Discourses in this sense (used as a plural noun) are linked ways of saying and thinking which form peoples' ideologies. Discourses then are sets of beliefs and different ways of talking which influence and are influenced by those beliefs (Johnstone, 2008). In other words, "discourses are inherently ideological" (Fairclough, 1989). Other discourse analysts (Fairclough, 1995 and van Dijk, 1998; to name a few) have also shown that discourses as a means of exercising social authority determine whose interest will dominate and who will benefit in different social contexts.

Critical discourse analysis is an important research tool for examining ideologies. This approach deals with demonstrating how discourse is used to serve the interests of the powerful. Huckin (2002; cited in Christiansen, 2004) proposes these strategies for analysis while doing critical discourse analysis:

word/phrase level (classification, connotation, code words, metaphor, presupposition, modality);
sentence/utterance level (transitivity, deletion, foregrounding, register, presupposition, intertextuality);

text level (genre, heteroglossia, coherence, framing, foregrounding, omission); Higher level concepts (naturalization, cultural models and myths, resistance, ideology).

Therefore, examining the ideologies behind different practices is an important aspect of critical discourse analysis.

Street (1993) identifies two models of literacy: an autonomous model of literacy which treats literacy as independent from social context. Autonomous approaches conceptualize literacy as a skill which is learnt gradually and will lead to cognitive, intellectual, and social development.

In contrast, an ideological model of literacy "view literacy as inextricably linked to cultural and power structures in society and recognizes the variety of cultural practices associated with reading and writing in different contexts: (Street, 1993, p. 7). In other words, the proponents of this model concentrate on the ideological and cultural aspects of social practices associated with reading and writing. A socially constructed definition of literacy focuses on how students and teachers understand the literacy practices of the university (Lea & Street, 1998). Lea and Street (1998) also propose three general approaches to literacy influencing research and practice:

Study skills (literacy is a set of skills that the student acquires);

Academic socialization (students are acculturated into the world of academic language);

Academic literacies (focuses on the social practices of literacy).

Based on Street's categorization of literacy, it can be argued that academic literacy also has ideological dimensions that work to organize social institutions and practices. In this view, academic literacy skills can be defined as socialization into disciplinary discourse communities (Gee, 1996). Following these conceptualizations, the

present study aims to investigate the ideologies, values and practices of academic and disciplinary literacy as it is understood by Iranian EFL instructors and postgraduate students. As TEFL, English Literature, General Linguistics and Translation are the only university majors which are taught by the medium of English language in Iran and university instructors and postgraduate students are supposed to produce their written accomplishments in English, the scope of this study is limited to these majors. Especially of concern is the idea of disciplinary and critical academic literacy.

Methodology

Participants

The participants of this study were six English university instructors in the department of foreign languages and linguistics in Shiraz University who had enough experience in supervising Ph. D and MA theses, dissertations and research articles as well as 10 MA and Ph. D students in TEFL and English Literature who have to write their academic writings in English. This group was chosen as they had enough experience with advanced academic literacy in English as a foreign language. As this study is based on a grounded theory design, more participants were interviewed until no new theme was gained and as such the number was limited to the above mentioned.

Instrument, data collection and analysis

Ary et al. (2006) maintain that the primary method of data collection in the grounded theory is interview. A semi-structured interview was used to gather participants' opinions. The questions examined participants' viewpoints regarding the importance of critical literacy in tertiary education, the current status of Iranian post-graduate English students in this regard and possible reasons, and cultural differences. Meanwhile, the respondents were free to add any new points at the end of the interview. In order to secure credibility (Ary et al., 2006), the transcripts of the comments were given to the respondents in order for them to review

their opinions and check the answers written in detail.

After collecting data, the transcripts were coded for gaining common themes and concepts (Ary et al., 2006). Certain categories emerged based on shared concepts obtained from data.

Findings and discussion

The analysis of data revealed emerging categories of beliefs regarding critical literacy at tertiary level. These findings could be summarized as follows:

Most participants believed that Iranian post-graduate students are not able to read critically and to demonstrate this skill in their writings. It was interesting that most students attribute the reason to lack of training while their professors mostly related it to sociocultural factors. One MA student of TEFL, for example, said:

“This is the first time through our academic career that we are made to speak critically and to write in this manner in our assignments and term papers...”

Another student of TEFL stated the problem in this way:

“Most of our instructors are mere transmitters of information and we are mere receivers. In this situation, students are overloaded with more and more information without getting any critical insight.”

Some even go further to say that:

“The instructors themselves do not have critical skills and abilities. How do you expect students to learn these abilities?”

On the contrary, university professors and instructors mostly think of cultural and societal factors as the main reason of their students’ lack of critical skills in related disciplinary areas:

“Students are only the mere consumers of materials and have no ideas of them. That’s why they turn to plagiarism and cannot write on themselves...”.

Only two out of six university professors did not attribute this to lack of training. One believed:

“Context is very important. When you haven’t provided the necessary context, you cannot expect them to develop certain abilities to challenge ideas presented to them via their disciplinary readings...”

Another university professor emphasized the importance of contextualization:

“Such concepts like creativity, criticism and critical academic literacy have not been contextualized. It is a matter of time and training. We need time to create the context for such concepts...It is a matter of contextualization and ideology...”

He continues:

“We cannot say these concepts belong to the West absolutely. They have different contributions from different sources and so it cannot be said that they belong to the West. They have just provided its context and we don’t.”

This idea contradicts Ozbilgin’s (2010) perspective who maintained that these are culture-specific concepts while, at the same time, accepts that there are cultural differences.

One interesting point about the results was that the two professors and some of post-graduate students of English Literature believed that English Literature students were able to read and write critically. This finding may be surprising but can be attributed to the training which English Literature students receive in such classes as literary criticism. Contrary to what Payandeh (2009) maintains, such courses, though may not seem to have apparent effects on students immediate literary skills (which may be related to their lack of experience and skill in this regard rather than cultural and societal factors), seem to have long-term effects on English Literature students’ critical readings and writings. One reason may be related to the fact when students attend literary criticism courses and observe how different ideas are being

challenged by different critiques with different ideas.

Regarding the issue of language proficiency, one of the students stated:

“Lack of familiarity and practice with different types of academic [and disciplinary] writings is the most important reason why some post-graduate students have no critical views regarding issues in their field and usually regard ideas presented in the field as certain and unchallengeable...”

In other words, according to this student, general proficiency does not seem to be a hindrance to the students' inability to read and write critically; rather, lack of training, especially in a disciplinary genre, is the most relevant reason in the view of this post-graduate Ph. D student.

Overall, issues obtained from these interviews can be summarized as follows: Most of the students interviewed by the researcher, though not denying the impact of culture, believed that having a critical perspective in disciplinary areas needs familiarity, practice and training with those particular skills.

Culture and cultural differences are also regarded as influential factors determining students' abilities or inabilities in joining a disciplinary community discourse. But the important factor is whether we are considering a deterministic role for it or not.

Contextualization is an important factor without which we are not able to develop the necessary critical skills in students. Contextualization here means a type of educational system which fosters critical thinking skills regarding disciplinary areas. In such a system of educating post-graduate students, they are not the mere consumers of others' ideas, but are trained in a way to read their related materials with an evaluative perspective and at the same time be able to demonstrate their informed ideas in a creative manner.

Disciplinary discourse is a particular genre which can be developed like other writing skills with practice. In this sense a type of genre-based pedagogy (Hyland, 2007, 2008) is the most beneficial way to train students and make them able to write in their related fields.

These ideas can be summarized into three general categories including:

Culture

Contextualization (time and training in terms of our educational system in general)
Special Training (in terms of directed, genre-based approaches to develop disciplinary literacy)

In other words, while the effect of culture was emphasized as an important factor influencing the formation of academic and disciplinary literacy of EFL post-graduate students in Iran, it was also believed that by providing enough context (time and training) and developing specific, genre-based approaches towards developing academic, disciplinary reading and writing skills, students will be able to join their related discourse communities. This is in line with studies who have criticized the deterministic views about culture as the main factor determining the scope and type of academic literacy and emphasized the importance of training and developing critical skills in this regard (Atkinson, 2003, 2004; Kubota & Lehner, 2004; Zamel, 1997).

Conclusion

A deterministic view about critical disciplinary literacy limits and downgrades the importance of teaching academic reading and writing skills and regards such accomplishments as culture-specific and out of reach. Such a narrowed viewpoint maintains that the failure of students from certain cultural backgrounds to read and write critically is totally related to cultural differences and not attributable to their lack of training.

The results of this study, while still show people's beliefs about the powerful effect of cultural ideologies, reflect the importance of training them to acquire certain skills. As

one of the interviewees in this study mentioned, "critical literacy and criticism are not products or attributes of Western culture and everyone can learn them via practice" in spite of certain cultural differences. As was mentioned, culture is one of the factors influencing and shaping the interviews' ideas about critical and disciplinary literacy at advanced levels. The other two were context and directed, genre-based training. In this regard, EFL students need to receive special training related to the particular academic genre (critical is one of them) which they will have to write in. This could be possible through extensive readings in that particular genre while receiving enough scaffolded training in writing different academic genres in general and critical disciplinary genre in particular.

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METALINGUISTIC INTUITION IN FLA: A SEMINAL ENTERPRISE DESERVING DEEPER SCRUTINY

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Abstract

This paper reports on a preliminary study designed to investigate the metalinguistic abilities of first-year and second-year undergraduate student learners of English. In particular, it delves into the relationship between the learners' metalinguistic knowledge, the degree of transfer from their first language and their level of language proficiency with respect to the biological factor of gender. Two instruments encompassing a metalinguistic assessment task devised by the researchers, as well as an actual paper-based TOEFL test were the major tools used in this piece of research. The participants of the study comprised 116 freshmen and sophomores majoring English translation at the Islamic Azad University, Roudehen branch. Findings of the study shed light on an important facet of L2 acquisition in terms of the relationship between the learners' explicit knowledge of language, their overall language proficiency with respect to their educational status and gender as well as the degree to which their L2 performance was affected by the process of language transfer from their L1. The obtained data were submitted to different statistical analyses such as correlational as well as the analysis of variance (two-way ANOVA). The results indicated a moderate correlation between the participants' general language proficiency and their metalinguistic knowledge. However, the findings of the study did not confirm the idea of the transfer of metalinguistic knowledge across the two languages of Persian and English. Ultimately, it became evident that the factors of educational status and gender did not have any significant effect on the learners'

performance dealing with the metalinguistic task. This piece of research was aimed at making proposals for further research in the light of the obtained results.

Key words:

metalinguistic knowledge, language transfer, language proficiency

Introduction

According to Gass and Selinker (2008), metalinguistic knowledge refers to one's ability to utilize language as an object of inquiry rather than merely as a tool for conversing with others. In other words, metalinguistic awareness stands in opposition with pure use of language which does not necessarily require thinking about language. As mentioned by Bialystock (1988, cited in Gass & Selinker, 2008), the metalinguistic knowledge or the so called ability to think about the language, is often linked with an empowered ability to learn a language. In reference to the field of first language acquisition, bilingual children were recognized as being more enriched with metalinguistic knowledge compared with their monolingual counterparts.

However, the picture becomes rather complicated in the field of second language acquisition (SLA) in which the explicit explanation of an L2, particularly in teaching grammar, has been regarded as an unavoidable activity. Kellerman and Smith (1986) stated that in some extreme cases the teaching of an L2 was equated with the teaching of the grammar of that language by providing explicit explanations of the intended grammatical

structures. It is worth remembering that such a perspective regarding SLA and teaching, could be easily traced in the educational system of Iran, in which language teaching was prominently replicated in the creation of metalinguistic awareness for language items. In other words, there has been considerable public concern about the standards of English language teaching and learning in Iran and it is not bizarre to find comments about various inaccuracies in learners' use of English in the classroom.

One area of SLA which is flourished with much debate at present time is directly pertinent to students' knowledge about language: Does it seem logical to focus on the relationship between the learners' L2 proficiency and their knowledge of grammatical rules underpinning their second language? Such a controversial issue could be linked to research carried out by several scholars like Krashen, 1981; Skehan, 1986; Bialystok, 1990; Richmon, 1990; James & Garret, 1991, cited in Clapham, 1998) regarding the three similar concepts of explicit and implicit language knowledge, the knowledge about language movement, and research into language awareness.

In the view of the assumption that the adoption of explicit linguistic awareness could be of benefit to L2 language learners, it was of interest to the researchers to delve into the inherent nature of the metalinguistic knowledge with the purpose of analyzing the relationship between that type of knowledge and the learners' L2 proficiency level as well as the impact of the learners' L1 (L1 transfer) on their L2 performance.

Review of the Related Literature

Basically speaking, the learner's Interlanguage encompasses two completely independent systems of knowledge: First, an implicit knowledge system which is formulated as the result of unconscious acquisition and which encompasses the unconscious knowledge of language utilized in communicative activities. Second, an explicit knowledge system or a

metalinguistic system produced as the result of conscious internalization of knowledge about the L2. Krashen (1981, cited in Tarone, 1988) referred to the second knowledge system as a monitor which could be explicated by the learners in terms of consciously elaborated grammatical rules. However, it is very important to mention that "metalinguistic knowledge is available to the learner only as a monitor, and cannot initiate utterances. Tarone (1988) believed that the monitor can only modify the utterances generated by the unconscious knowledge system" (p. 28).

The concept of metalinguistic awareness could be elucidated with respect to the kind of knowledge which is accessible to all language users. Such an issue becomes more sophisticated as we muster more information about the intricacies of our language in an analytic style and academic fashion. Smith (2004) shed light on the above-mentioned definition by joining the two concepts of explicit language knowledge and conceptual structure. Here, conceptual structure directly refers to "that part of language we are conscious of" (p. 269).

In order to have a more transparent perspective regarding the status of metalinguistic knowledge in L2, it seems of paramount significance to provide some information about the inherent and distinguishing properties of the metalinguistic knowledge. Basically speaking, the concept of metalinguistic knowledge or intuition must be distinguished from the notion of linguistic intuition. According to Marti (2009, cited in Machery, Olivia & De Blanc, 2009). "metalinguistic intuitions are judgments about the semantic properties of mentioned words (e.g. their reference), while linguistic intuitions are judgments about the individuals (substances, classes, etc.) described in the actual and possible cases used by philosophers of language" (p. 689). Such a distinction becomes significant if we assume that the two concepts of linguistic and metalinguistic intuitions are incongruent, and only the linguistic

knowledge is pertinent for the identification of the correct theory of reference. As a result, we will be involved with the challenge of reformulating the prevalent practices in the philosophy of language. The reason is that the elicitation of metalinguistic knowledge about reference is widespread in this field. (Donnellan, 1997, Kripke 1972, Evans, 1973, cited in Machery, Olivola & De Blanc, 2009).

The concept of metalinguistic knowledge has also been dealt with from the cognitive as well as psycholinguistic perspectives. In fact, we need to be aware of the psychological constraints that limit the utility of metalinguistic knowledge in an L2. Hu (2002) highlighted the existence of three interwoven factors responsible for determining the real-time access to explicit linguistic knowledge which are as follows: "attention to form, processing automaticity, and linguistic prototypicality whether a rule concerns a central or peripheral use of a target structure" (p. 347). Steel and Alderson (1994), believed that what is meant by explicit language knowledge or knowledge about language requires to be investigated. However, the key issue here is that such an analysis should precisely encompass 'a knowledge of and ability' to apply metalanguage succinctly (p. 3).

As stated by Doughty and Long (2003), the first point of view which was referred to as non-interface position could be lucidly elaborated in terms of the idea stated by Krashen (1982, 1985, 1994, 1990 cited in Doughty & Long, 2003). He believed that we should never expect explicit awareness produced as the result of formal instruction to lead to implicit learning. Accordingly, "learned competence does not become acquired competence" (P. 328). The second point of view was prominently maneuvered by Dekeyser 1997, 1998; Hulstijn, 1995, 1999; Mclaughlin, 1978, 1990; Schmidt 1990, 1994 and Swain, 1985 who asserted the idea that explicit learning and practice are useful for some specified rules. Here, it is the practice that bridges the gap between metalinguistic learning and use.

This study intends to analyze the significance of the learners' metalinguistic knowledge and its relationship with their general language proficiency. To achieve such a goal, the theory of grammatical awareness coined by Andrews (1999, cited in Shuib, 2009) was utilized as the major pattern in the way of interpreting and detecting the learners' metalinguistic awareness. Accordingly, the grammatical awareness encompasses four types. It is noteworthy to mention that each of the four types of grammatical awareness emphasizes a special aspect of explicit language knowledge as well as the pertinent grammatical terminology. Type one deals with the learners' ability to recognize metalanguage which could be clearly detected in the process of recognizing grammatical categories like preposition, noun, and adjective. On the other hand, type two could be defined in terms of the extent to which learners are equipped with the ability to produce acceptable metalanguage terms. For instance, it deals with the learners' ability to provide grammatical categories of a given phrase or clause. Type three moves a step further by demanding the learners to not only identify the errors but also write the correct forms as well. At this stage learners have to work on ill-formed structures or faulty parts of sentences. Finally, the type four of grammatical awareness expects the learners to provide explanations of grammatical rules which have been violated in the provided structures.

Bialystock (2001) believed that the grammaticality judgment could be classified under the category of the prototypical metalinguistic task. However, it is controversial whether or not to assume the standard version of this task (expecting the students to make acceptability judgments about the sentences of their L1) as an instance of a metalinguistic task. It is noteworthy to mention that Chomsky referred to that type of knowledge as part of the learners' competence. However, a thorough analysis of the related literature reveals the fact such

a paradigm has been frequently used as an indication of explicit knowledge of language and an instance of language proficiency. Some scholars believe that the task of assessing learners' metalinguistic awareness is too complex due to the existence of a fuzzy and vague boundary between the learners' explicit and implicit knowledge. As Sorace (1996, cited in Ellis and Barkhuizen, 2005) comments: It could be very complicated to decide about the kind of norm consulted by learners in the way of making a judgment, especially in a learning environment that increases the development of learners' metalinguistic knowledge. "It is difficult to tell whether subjects reveal what they think or what they think they should think" (p.19).

To shed light on the different facets of the model provided by Andrews (1999), it seems beneficial to reflect upon several existing research projects investigating the relationship between the learners' explicit knowledge and their L2 proficiency status. As stated by Roehr (2006), the existing research proposals encompass longitudinal studies like the one carried out by Klapper & Rees (2003, cited in Roehr, 2006) as well as the cross-sectional ones like those conducted by Alderson et al., 1997; Bialystok, 1979; Elder et al., 1999; Green & Hecht, 1992; Renou, 2000; Sorace, 1985 (cited in Roehr, 2006).

The results obtained from all these research projects were centralized on four prominent findings: first, a comparison of the learners' performance on the correction tasks and the ones in which they were expected to provide explanations regarding the violated grammatical structures revealed the fact that they were not well - equipped with the knowledge of the rules they had been taught explicitly despite the fact that they could fulfill the correction tasks (regarding faulty sentences) successfully. Second, it was reported that some specific pedagogical rules were acquired and utilized more effectively compared with the others. Third, the result of several large-scale studies represented variability of explicit linguistic knowledge among the learners as

well as some degrees of variable application of such knowledge across tasks. The fourth and perhaps the ultimate result revealed positive correlations between the learners L2 language proficiency and their levels of metalinguistic awareness. Furthermore, it is interesting to know that the result of the study conducted by Bloor (1986, cited in Borg, 2003) regarding the assessment of the students' metalinguistic knowledge presented that "the only grammatical terms successfully identified by all students were verb and noun, and that students demonstrated 'fairly widespread ignorance' on the question asking them to identify functional elements such as subject and object" (P. 96).

There are several controversial issues regarding the advantages of metalanguage awareness and teaching procedures which are inclined toward it. Robinson and Ellis (2008) adopted a positive view toward explicit teaching by mentioning the idea that the benefits of explicit teaching become transparent if we assume that the major goal of language teaching is to foster rich networks to grow in the mind of our learners. In other words, by endowing learners with metalinguistic awareness in different fields of an L2, we provide them with an opportunity to compensate for their lack of input in a n L2 which would consequently enable them to make accurate generalizations. In the same way Lightbown and Spada (2006) stated that the two factors of cognitive maturity and metalinguistic awareness specialized to adult language learners, act as facilitators for being engaged in tasks like problem solving and discussions about language. Furthermore, Saville- Troike (2006) believed that "cognitive and metalinguistic advantages appear in bilingual situations that involve systematic uses of the two languages, such as simultaneous acquisition settings or bilingual education" (p. 93).

Perhaps, one of the major considerations of this study was to examine the degree to which metalingual awareness in the field of L1

syntax could be transferred into the domain of the learners' L2 learning. The existing research projects regarding the issue of language transfer replicate the complexity of quantifying the degree of language transfer related to the different language levels. However, it seems more logical to assume that the existence of language transfer is more palpable in the areas of pronunciation, lexis, and discourse compared with syntax. Ellis (1994) provided a solid reason supporting such a justification by highlighting the degree of the development of the metalinguistic awareness in different fields of SLA. It is probably true to believe that the learners' metalingual awareness is more enriched in case of phonological, discourse, and pragmatic properties compared with syntactic property. Such an empowerment enables the learners to monitor their choice of grammatical form more strictly in comparison with the other fields of language. Consequently, linguistic properties become less prone to be transferred to the field of SLA.

Research objectives

Basically speaking, this piece of research was founded on a three- fold objective. Initially, the researchers attempted to provide further insight into the probable relationship between the participants' explicit knowledge of language and their L2 proficiency level. Furthermore, it was intended to pinpoint the traces of probable L1 transfer in the participants' metalinguistic descriptions in L2. The ultimate section of this study was devoted to the analysis of the hypothesized components of the participants' metalinguistic awareness in terms of the operationalization of the construct which was measured through analyzing the learners' ability to provide correction, description, and explanation of ill-formed sentences with regard to their educational status as well as their gender.

Research questions

Is there any relationship between the learners' metalinguistic knowledge in L2 and their performance on the TOEFL proficiency test?

Does the learners' metalinguistic knowledge in L1 have any significant effect on their L2 performance?

Is there any significant difference between freshmen and sophomores in case of their performance on the English metalinguistic task with respect to their gender?

Method

Participants

A total of 137 female and male Iranian EFL freshmen and sophomore learners at Islamic Azad University, Roudehen branch majoring in English translation constituted the participants of this study. In order to have approximately equal number of freshmen and sophomores with respect to their gender, 21 students who were supposed not to take the tests seriously were excluded from the study. Ultimately, there were 116 respondents (61 freshmen & 55 sophomores) left and the data gathered from this group was analyzed.

Instruments

Two tests were utilized in this study encompassing the metalinguistic assessment task and an actual paper-based TOEFL test.

The Metalinguistic Assessment Task

The metalinguistic assessment task devised by the researchers, comprised two sections. In section 1, the students were provided with seven English sentences. Each sentence contained a grammatical error and the students were first expected to make judgment regarding the grammaticality of the sentences. Secondly, they were asked to provide the correct form of the unacceptable forms and finally, they had to elaborate on the syntactic rule that had been violated. In section 2, the students were provided with three sentences including one simple sentence in English, one simple sentence in Persian, and one complex sentence in Persian. They were expected to identify the three elements of subject, direct object, and indirect object. Three experts in TEFL (one professor and two Ph.D colleagues) were consulted for the validity and appropriateness of the metalinguistic assessment task.

mention that this study mainly adopted Andrew’s (1999) theory of grammatical awareness which comprised four types of analyses: the ability to recognize metalanguage, the ability to produce suitable metalanguage terms, the ability to identify and correct errors, as well as the ability to expound grammatical rules.

TOEFL Test

A test of English as a foreign language (TOEFL) as a sample of a standardized test of assessing general language proficiency was administered to the participants of this research project. The TOEFL test employed in this study was the 2004 version of an actual paper-based test administered in the past by ETS. The test included three sections. Section I- listening comprehension–includes 50 items; section II- Structure and written Expression – includes 40 items; and section III–Reading Comprehension and Vocabulary–includes 50 items. It is noteworthy to mention that due to the limitations of time as well as practical considerations, with the exclusion of the listening section, just the second and the third sections of the test were administered to the participants. In order to estimate the reliability of the TOEFL test, the Kuder-Richardson formula was employed. The obtained reliability of the scores was estimated as 0.81. The descriptive statistics and the reliability coefficient of the TOEFL test are presented in table 1.

Table1. Descriptive statistics and reliability coefficients related to TOEFL test

	TOEFL Test
N items	90
N	116
Range	49
Min	9
Max	58
Mean	33.13
S.D	10.277
Variance	105.60
Reliability	0.81

Procedure

The tests were administered in two separate sessions. Initially, the students were provided with the TOEFL test under the standard procedures. They were given 25 minutes to answer section II and 55 minutes to do section III.

One week later the participants were provided with the metalinguistic assessment task. They were given 30 minutes to accomplish the tasks demanded by the test.

Results and Discussion

Research Question 1:

What is the relationship between the learners’ metalinguistic knowledge encompassing correction as well as description/ explanation task in English and their performance on the TOEFL proficiency test?

The descriptive statistics for the TOEFL proficiency test, the metalanguage test, and the subsections of the metalanguage test including correction and description/explanation tasks are displayed in Table 2. To make comparison possible the means were reported in percentages.

Table 2. Descriptive statistics for TOEFL and metalanguage tests

	Lang uage test	Metalan guage test	corre ction	Descri ption /expla nation
No. of partici pants	116	116	116	116
No. of items	90	14	7	7
Mean score	33.13	4.05	3.42	.64
Mean % correct	37	29	49	9
S.D	10.277	2.442	1.720	1.190

Mean	9	0	0	0
Max	58	12	8	5

Table 2 represents that the metalinguistic task with the mean score of 29 was more challenging than the TOEFL language proficiency test with the mean score of 37. Table 2 shows that the obtained mean score for the correction task as 49 is significantly higher than the mean score for the description task as 9 which replicates the fact that although the students could successfully accomplish the correction task, they faced great difficulty in providing metalinguistic knowledge in the way of fulfilling the description/ explanation task which was proved to be the most complicated one.

Table 3. Correlations between language proficiency and metalanguage test scores

	corr ecti on	Descr iption /expl anati on	Metal angua ge test	Lang uage Profi cienc y Test
Correction	1	0.37**	0.89**	0.57*
Description /Explanati on	0.14	1	0.76**	0.39*
Metalangu age test	0.79	0.57	1	0.59*
Language test	0.32	0.15	0.34	1

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

Table 3 reveals the fact that the scores obtained from the two measures of language proficiency test and the metalanguage task moderately correlated with each other as $r = 0.59$. However, the comparison of the correlation coefficients between the TOEFL test and the subsections of the

metalinguistic task as 0.57 for the correction task and 0.39 for the description task may denote the idea that it is probably difficult to make any reliable predictions regarding the respondents' performance on the description task by referring to their general proficiency ability. Furthermore, the obtained correlation coefficients between the two subcomponents of the metalinguistic task as 0.37 could be utilized as a solid piece of evidence supportive of the idea that the students' success on the correction task does not guarantee their success in accomplishing the metalinguistic description task regarding the same grammatical items.

Research Question 2 :

Does the learners' metalinguistic knowledge in L1 have any effect on their L2 performance?

In order to evaluate the effect of the learners' L1 metalinguistic knowledge on their performance in L2, the students' performance dealing with the identification of the 'direct object' in the three English and Persian sentences were investigated by calculating the facility value relevant to each sentence.

Table 4. FVs - Direct object

		English SES	Persian SPS	Persian CPS
Direct object	N	69	80	36
	%	60%	69.5%	31.5%

FVs = Facility Values Key: SES = simple English sentence SPS = simple Persian sentence CPS = complex Persian sentence

The results displayed in table 4 presented the fact that the two simple sentences in English and Persian were approximately identical with the facility values of 60% and 69.5%. However, the facility value of the 'direct object' in complex Persian sentence as 31.5% was much lower which showed that the participants had difficulty in finding 'direct object' in the

the complicated Persian sentence. The individual responses shown in Table 5 are inconsistent.

Table 5. Inconsistencies across the three sentences

Direct object (n=115)				
Consistent				
Sentences	EPC	EPC		Total
R or W	///	XXX		↓
Answers	All right	All wrong		
Number of students	25 22%	13 11.5%		
Inconsistent				
sentences	EPC	EPC	EPC	
R or W	//X	/X/	/XX	
Number of students	24 21%	5 4.5%	14 12%	
Sentences	EPC	EPC	EPC	Total
R or W	XX/	X/X	X//	↓
Number of students	3 3%	20 17.5%	11 9.5%	

Key:

Sentence E= Simple English Sentence
 Sentence P= Simple Persian Sentence
 Sentence C= Complex Persian Sentence

/= R = Right X = W = Wrong

The ticks and crosses in Table 5 are pertinent to the three sentences, SES, SPS, CPS (simple English sentence, simple Persian sentence, complex Persian sentence)

and the numbers beneath the ticks and crosses resemble the number of students that belong to each category of right and wrong sentences. For instance, the X// group encompasses those respondents who identified the direct object in the simple and complex Persian sentences but failed to identify the same item in the simple English sentence. As Table 5 shows, the largest group of participants (/X = 21%) were successful in the identification of the 'direct object' in the two simple English and Persian sentences but failed to identify the same grammatical item in the complex Persian sentence. At the other part of the extreme, we observe the minority group of participants (XX/ = 3%) who failed to recognize the 'direct object' in the simple English and Persian sentences while identifying it in the complex Persian sentence. It is interesting to know that the obtained results regarding the observed inconsistencies are in accordance with the findings of Clapham (1997). Therefore, it is not too far-fetched to justify these inconsistencies as being the result of the impact imposed by the context in which the target grammatical item appears.

We cannot suffice to such a justification as the main source of variability since we have 9.5% of students who did not recognize the 'direct object' in the simple English sentence; however, they could detect it in both simple and complex Persian sentences. The obtained evidence in this case resembled the fact that the language of the sentence could be regarded as a factor affecting the identification rate. The obtained results in terms of the inconsistencies may denote the idea that the students had only partial understanding of the term 'direct object'.

In order to elaborate on the participants' metalinguistic knowledge in another context, the researchers attempted to analyze the performance of the respondents in the first section of the metalinguistic task in which they were expected to fulfill the task by correcting the wrong sentences and providing metalinguistic explanations for faulty English structures. To achieve such a goal, the performance of the 36 students

(31% of the participants) who successfully detected the 'direct object' in two or three sentences in the second section of the metalinguistic task was scrutinized. Such an analysis was conducted in comparison with the first section of the task in which the students were expected to correct faulty structures and, subsequently, provide explicit explanation for the ill-formed sentences. The results are displayed in Table 6.

Table 6. Inconsistencies across the two sections of the metalinguistic task

First Section					
Answers	Correction		Description		
	N	%	N	%	
/// & X//	15	41.5%	4	11%	
XXX& /XX	17	48%	3	8.5%	
Second Section					
Recognition					
Answers	N		%		
/// & X//	36		31%		
XXX & /XX	35		31%		

Key: /// = all right xxx = all wrong

As can be seen in Table 6, of the 36 students (31% of the whole sample) who correctly identified the direct object in two or three sentences (/// & X//), 15 students were successful in correcting the faulty sentences with respect to the position of object and only four students could provide metalinguistic descriptions for the same item. This suggests that the task of description was

considerably challenging even for those learners who were successful in doing recognition and correction tasks. The findings may suggest the idea that the teachers were not successful in providing their students with sufficient and effective amount of metalinguistic information regarding the simplest grammatical items in English. Additionally, the results showed that from among 116 participants of this study, 35 (%31) could not accomplish the recognition task successfully. However, it is important to know that from among these students, 17 could accomplish the correction task in the first section and only three provided metalinguistic description regarding the 'direct object'. Therefore, the obtained piece of data could be suggestive of the idea that the degree or more precisely the probability of language transfer from Persian to English was weak since those who could not accomplish the recognition task dealing with Persian sentences were successful in doing the correction task in English.

The absence of language transfer could be justified in terms of the idea proposed by Ellis (1994) regarding the fact that the existence of language transfer is more tangible in the areas of pronunciation, lexis, and discourse compared with syntax. Ellis (1994) explicated such a case by stating the idea that the learners' metalingual awareness is less enriched in the field of syntax compared with the other fields. Consequently, learners monitor their choice of grammatical forms more strictly which decreases the chance of language transfer in this area. Perhaps, we cannot make straightforward judgments regarding the nature of the complicated metalinguistic knowledge of L2 learners by resorting to the findings of a single study like this.

Research Question 3:

Is there any significant difference between freshmen and sophomores with respect to their gender in case of their metalinguistic knowledge?

In order to answer the third research question, the results related to

the respondents' gender and educational status with respect to their performance on the English metalinguistic knowledge are displayed in table 7.

Table 7. Descriptive statistics for the English metalinguistic task considering the participants' educational status and gender

	Me an	N	S.D	vari ance	mi n	m ax
Male	4.43	56	2.3 19	5.37	1	12
Female	3.70	60	2.5 2	6.34	0	10
Freshma n	3.75	61	2.5 5	6.52	0	12
Sophom ores	4.38	55	2.2 8	5.24	0	10

As can be seen in table 7, the male participants enjoyed a higher mean score compared with their female counterparts considering the metalinguistic task. Furthermore, sophomores obtained a higher mean score in comparison with freshmen. In order to recognize whether or not the obtained differences in mean score for the two independent variables of 'gender' and 'educational status' were significant, a two way ANOVA analysis was conducted. The results are presented in Table 8.

Table 8. Results of ANOVA (two- way), the comparison between freshmen & sophomores dealing with the metalinguistic task

Source of variation	Sum of squares	D F	Mean Squar e	F	si g
Educatio nal status	8.30	1	8.30	1.4 1	.2 3
Gender	11.89	1	11.89	2.0 2	.1 5
Between groups	4.244	1	4.244	.72	.3 9

Total	2590.0 00	11 6			
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R Squared = .041 (Adjusted R Squared = .015)

The ANOVA table represents that the two independent variables of gender and educational status with the level of significance of 0.23 for educational status and 0.15 for gender with no interaction between them (sig = .39), did not have any significant effect on the dependent variable. In other words, the difference between freshmen and sophomores as well as the male and female participants of this study were not reported to be significant with regard to their performance on the metalinguistic task.

Pedagogical Implications and Suggestions for Further Research

The investigation and discussion of metalinguistic ability will be pedagogically valuable in case of its role in L1 and L2 performance if it is based on a firm theoretical foundation. The findings of this study could be beneficial to teachers with respect to their teaching focus. In other words, teachers should refresh their minds regarding the degree they should rely upon the learners' metalinguistic knowledge as a real representation of their language proficiency. Such a perspective becomes meaningful if we regard explicit knowledge of language as an important component of education and literacy which would act as a trigger for taking appropriate measures in the way of improving foreign language learners' linguistic competence.

The obtained results could further suggest that one form of a measure could be crystallized in terms of a greater emphasis on grammar exposure in our educational curriculum. In fact, the present study is conducted with the hope of stirring an extension of research into textbook designers' and teachers' awareness and understanding of the role of metalinguistic intuition in SLA. Succinctly speaking, the major pedagogical implications of this study could be highlighted in dealing with

teachers, course book designers, and material developers as the main beneficiaries.

It is needless to say that the findings of this study alone do not suffice the requirements for making an outstanding qualitative and quantitative improvement in our educational programs. Further studies considering needs analysis as well as the learners' cognitive styles and personality factors should be taken into account to provide researchers with a more comparative view to be able to make judicious decisions and judgments regarding the learners' metalinguistic knowledge. It is noteworthy to mention that this study was limited to the investigation of the EFL learners' metalinguistic knowledge without considering the teachers' metalinguistic knowledge as one of the sources of transferring explicit language knowledge in different educational settings. As Gudart (1998, cited in Shuib, 2009) mentioned "it is sufficient for just a few teachers to lack the competence for the rest of TEFL teachers to be tarnished with the same brush" (p. 44). Therefore, the scope of this study could be expanded by including the evaluation of teachers' metalinguistic awareness as well which serves as a prominent issue worthy of investigation for future research projects.

Conclusion

The correlation coefficient results between the total scores on the different components of the metalinguistic task and the test of English proficiency were predictive of the existence of a moderate correlation between the learners' metalinguistic knowledge and their linguistic proficiency. The findings stand in accordance with the findings of Roehr (2006) who reported a fairly strong correlation between the linguistic and metalinguistic knowledge of university learners.

The analysis of the participants' performance dealing with the three tasks of recognition, correction, and explanation rejected the probability of language transfer. The obtained data could be

interpreted in terms of the idea that the students could successfully fulfill the task of finding 'direct object' in English sentences because they were taught about the differences between 'direct' and 'indirect objects' in their English lessons. However, they could not provide satisfactory metalinguistic explanations for the same items. The participants' failure could be related to different factors like insufficient or ineffective explicit instructions which were limited to exercises in which the students had to recognize the expected items or correct the faulty structures without having a transparent awareness of the rules generating those structures.

Furthermore, the obtained results regarding the Persian sentences trigger the idea that compared with English, the students did not have a clear understanding of the differences between 'direct and indirect objects' in Persian since they could easily recognize the direct object in the simple Persian sentence but failed to find the same item in the complex Persian structure. Such a case could be justified in terms of the idea that their understanding of the term was limited to the concept of object in general and not the distinction between the two types of object. The obtained pieces of evidence here stand in partial conformity with the findings of Clapham (1997) who conducted a similar study with respect to English students studying French as their L2. However, the students' lack of ability to distinguish the differences between the two terms of 'direct and indirect objects' in complex Persian structure are consistent with the findings of Bloor (1986) who reported that all students were successful in recognizing verbs and nouns despite the fact that they operated fairly poor in identifying functional elements such as subject and object in his study.

The absence of transfer between Persian and English could be elaborated in terms of the idea proposed by Ellis (1994) who believed that learners monitor their choice of grammatical forms more strictly due to

the fact that their metalinguistic awareness is less enriched in syntax compared with the other fields of language like pronunciation, lexis, and discourse. As a result, language transfer is less palpable in the field of syntax compared with the other fields.

Ultimately, the two-way ANOVA analysis of the study dealing with the metalinguistic task represented no significant difference between freshmen and sophomores.

Generally speaking, the findings of this study denoted two facts regarding the learners' metalinguistic assessment and knowledge: First, assessing the learners' metalinguistic knowledge is much more complicated and bewildering than it is expected. Second, in devising efficient metalinguistic tasks as half the battle, the first step to take is to conduct a contrastive analysis of the item under investigation in both languages involved in the study, if we feel strongly about detecting any probable traces of language transfer effectively. The existence of such a comparative view could be helpful in understanding the syntactic distinctions encompassing the semantic and syntactic saliency of the target item considering the situation in which it occurs. Furthermore, such an analysis may be helpful in recognizing the order and frequency of occurrence, the level of complexity of the target item, as well as the degree to which the learners' metalinguistic knowledge is enriched with respect to the item or items under investigation.

All in all, there is still much we do not know about how metalinguistic knowledge affects L2 acquisition and how it should be dealt with in our teaching programs. We hope that our study at least provides a starting point for better understanding of the role it plays in language acquisition.

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ELF-BASED MATERIALS DEVELOPMENT: DOES IT WORK?

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Abstract

English as the international language has become the vital means of communication in this globalized arena. Therefore it seems that native speakers of English are the only authorized clique that can run the ELT engine. The so called "owners" of English are now producing theories, developing materials, and dictate teaching methodologies, to the practitioners. They prepare uniform materials for ELT classes all over the world, while they have little or no recognition of what actually takes place in an EFL language class and as such they are ignoring the unique teaching-learning situations for the learners with different historical and sociopolitical backgrounds. Most of the materials used in EFL contexts have taken native speaker values and culture as an authorized model for language learning. This paper, while legitimizing English as a lingua franca, offers a model for materials development based on ELF criteria, which is sensitive to the uniqueness of learners' cultures, their local values and ideologies. This model supports the idea of locally-produced, context-specific and culturally-bound materials for ELT classes, which is also based on the "teacher's sense of plausibility" (Prabhu 1990), not on the uniform theories of those located at power centers.

Key words:

EIL, ELF, Materials development, Culturally-bound materials, Sociopolitical, Ideologies, Teaching methodology.

1. Introduction

As materials play a pivotal role in educational setting, considering multiple factors at the same time should be of high priority to materials writers. Traditionally

good materials were equal to providing appropriate lesson plans, excellent topics, and inclusion of all structural points and vocabularies needed. With the evolving of sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, and the consideration of whole learners, materials have noticeably changed and it is supposed that the process of shifting will continue in coming years. Nowadays the consideration of learners needs, their aspirations for language learning and more importantly the advent of critical approaches towards English as the most widely used lingua franca, has made materials writing a fundamental point in EFL field. Materials and books in the central position must be in line with what learners crave from English. It is crucial to know that whether this language would be used in international community or in interaction with native speakers of English.

There is no doubt that English is here to stay, but the practical action is to reconceptualize English in ELF (English as a Lingua Franca) settings (Seidlhofer, 2003). So this paper, while legitimizing English as a lingua franca, offers a model for materials development based on ELF criteria, which will be sensitive to the exclusivity of learners' cultures, their local values and ideologies. This model supports the idea of locally-produced, context-specific and culturally-bound materials for ELT classes, which is not based on the uniform theories of those located at the power centers. This paper also argues that the inclusion of participants' lives would lead to the development of comprehensive materials which can satisfy learners' pedagogical needs.

1.1. Objectives of Study

This study seeks to argue that the inclusion of the totality of participants' lives which is discussed in accordance to different scholars' ideas would lead to the development of inclusive materials which can satisfy learners' pedagogical needs in international settings. This study will legitimize ELF-specific materials modified and adjusted to global circumstances.

1.2. Research Questions

Many scholars, pointing to the detrimental effects of using ESL in all academic situations and most dreadfully its imperialistic consequences, have tried to offer an all-inclusive model for ELF settings but no comprehensive model, which can fulfill the pedagogical needs of international society, is proposed yet. Still most of the theories of ELF-based materials are at lip service and in practice just traditional paradigms are followed. This study will pose some questions to be answered by the proposed framework:

- 1-Is it possible to develop an ELF-based model for materials in different situations?
- 2-If yes, what are the characteristics of that model?ow that field. Materials and books in the focal point, must be in line with what learners want from English. It is crucial

2. Why Do We Need a Change in Materials?

Despite many arguments against adherence to SLA perspective within international contexts, and raising awareness among EFL researchers towards tremendous importance of inclusion of local norms into pedagogical settings, it is believed that the native speakers of English are yet the real "owners" of this language and in the same vein, their cultural, political, and religious norms are targets for language teaching and learning in international arena. Many scholars, pointing to the detrimental effects of using ESL in all academic situations and most dreadfully, its imperialistic consequences, have tried to offer an all-inclusive model for ELF settings but no comprehensive model, which can fulfill the pedagogical needs of international society, is proposed yet. Still most of the theories of

ELF-based materials are at lip service and in practice just traditional paradigms are followed. As long as the history of English teaching witnesses, ELT has used native users of English as the truthful model of learning. Kitao (1997) believes that English textbooks need to have correct, natural, recent and Standard English. Here he takes native speakers of English as Standard English in all contexts. Bell & Gower (cited in Tomlinson, 1998) are among scholars who criticize one fits all materials. They affirm that writing so called global course books written for all learning situations is misleading.

What is ELF? ELF is defined as a contacts language used only among non-mother tongue speakers for which there is no native speaker (Jenkins, 2006; Seidlhofer, 2004) and ELF interactions are "interactions between members of two or more lingua cultures in English for none of whom English is the mother tongue" (House 1999). Crystal (1997) goes for the deep-seated values of a common language and believes that lingua franca is an incredible resource which provides human being with mutual understanding and international cooperation.

Actually with momentous developments in sociolinguistics, some fundamental concepts regarding this common language have dramatically changed. It is believed that NNSs of English are also users of this language and have their own voice. They are not just learners of English, but they are capable of developing norms as users of the language. Seidlhofer (2008) argues that, ELF speakers are transforming their English world by means of their lingua franca interactions; they are not merely recipients of English but agents of its spreading and development. ELF learners may produce forms characteristic of their own variety of English reflecting the sociolinguistic reality of their own English (Jenkins, 2002; Seidlhofer, 2001). Seidlhofer (2001), points out that ELF can be a reproduction of ENL that may be developed independently, with a great deal of variation but enough stability to be suitable for lingua franca communication. Jenkins (2006) criticizes

using only NSs of English as a true and comprehensive model for teaching and learning this common language. She states that English is still taught as though the primary need of learners is to communicate with its native speakers and with the assumption that correct English is standard British or standard American English. Widdowson goes a step further by pointing out that: "native speakers have no right to intervene or pass judgments. They are irrelevant (1994). In the same vein, the well-known concept of SLA, which is Interlanguage Theory has been challenged by some scholars. (Mondada, 2005; Evans, 2005; Jenkins, 2006). They pointed out that IT is entirely irrelevant to ELF as some of ELT features differ systematically from NSs norms. In the same regard, Dornyei & Csizer (2002) questioned "integrative motivation". They believe that the notion of integrativeness needs to be redefined in the light of Wes, as identification process within individuals self-concept, not as integration into the 12 community. Authentic materials also take the same criticism. The notion of authentic language is replaced by appropriate language but this concept is to some extent problematic on its own, because what is appropriate in international context may not have the same function in a local context. In other word, what is authentic in one context might need to be made appropriate to another one (Kramersch & Sullivan, 1996). Luke (2005) points out that language development for global communication is facilitated when instruction allows students to express their localized self and the so called authentic materials don't go for that. The publication of Philipson's book under the title of "linguistic Imperialism" (1992) has had a great influence on establishing the critical discussion of World Englishes. Philipson, an anti-imperialist character, prefers English not to be the most widely used world language because of the colonial consequences it may have. (Philipson, 1992). Pointing to the increasing number of English users all over the world he states that: "Is it reasonable and correct to refer to English simply as a lingua franca?" (ibid). It does not mean that we need to replace English with some other

languages to get rid of the problems. Nobody is questioning the efficiency of learning English in this globalized situation; English serves multiple purposes; some constructive & some evil (Philipson, 2008).

3. Materials Development Based on ELF Criteria

The world is moving away from the native speakers as the best model of English (Kirpatrick, 2007). Many critics, among them Seidlhofer and Jenkins the most striking figures, have portrayed the deficiencies of materials used in different contexts developed on the basis of NSs of English as a conclusive model. Some frameworks have been proposed by different scholars in which NNSs have their own voice. The present paper has discussed materials appropriate for ELF settings based on both form and content of materials.

As far as the form of materials is of concern, we need to refer firstly to Seidlhofer (2008) who believes that ELF is not deficient English, it is just different in form and has different function comparing to those of native speakers. ELF needs to be described in an empirical description in order to be accepted as a legitimate and not deviant code (Seidlhofer, 2001 & 2005). The full description will be presented in the following pages. Regarding the content of the ELF-based materials, learners' local values need to be taken into consideration. To make materials content proper to ELF context the political motto of "think globally, act locally" comes into the mind. Kramersch (1996) transfers this motto in language curriculum as "global thinking, local teaching". This locality involves Ss's total selves, their social, political, historical, and religious views. So the materials should be codified both in terms of their outer shell (that is lexis, grammar, and phonology) and their contents, something that shape learners' existence. What comes next will embrace these two categories:

1-What should be presented? Materials content

2- How should it be presented? The form of ELF materials

With this classification, we will come to a comprehensive and absolute model for materials writers.

4. Method

4.1. What should be presented: Materials Content?

ELF speakers are users of English and they should not be regarded as just learners of a second language (Seidlhofer, 2008). In the same vein ELF users are not "norm-developers" and "norm-dependants" anymore. With the appearance of sociolinguistics and critical approaches towards world Englishes, native speakers' norm-providing role and SLL's norm-developing trend and FLL's norm-dependant function are drastically changing and moving into other roads. What comes next is a precise explanation of what world Englishes scholars have proposed.

Seidlhofer (2001) argues that as the majority of English uses occur in ELF settings and among NNSs of English, it is irrational to ignore its users' norms in developing materials. As Seidlhofer (2002) puts forth, ELF model should have four main characteristics as endonormative, empirical base, cultural neutrality, and pedagogical principles. What she means in her framework is 1-Endonormative: The ELF model should not be exonormatively oriented towards native speaker usage but endonormative. 2-Empirical base: It is the corpus of ELF which forms the empirical base of materials needed for instructional settings (It will be discussed in next section).3-Cultural neutrality: ELF model should be as free as possible of a prefabricated cultural baggage taken from NS cultures. Cultural neutrality allows people to infuse their own norms into the body of the language they use in ELF interactions.4-Pedagogical principles: Since ELF is not the native language of its users; ELF design should be guided by psychological principles rather than only linguistic ones. That is to say, some insights from psychology, principles of learnability and teachability are of high importance in

this regard. Tomlinson (2005) also argues that standard native speakers' varieties of English can no longer be the only approved varieties and cannot be held up as models for learners to imitate. Pointing to the increasing number of ELF users of English, Tomlinson proposes his own framework for materials development in Asian countries. 1-Materials should prepare learners to be able to communicate both in ELF settings with NNSs of English and with NSs. 2-International Englishes should not be a model to imitate but should be described for language planners, materials developers and examiners. 3-EIL is a process rather than a product.4-The concept of error should be adapted by considering mutual understanding & cooperation.

Yano (2009) in the same line with other critics believes that it will not be essential or feasible to have only one variety of English for intercontinental use. He offers a model which highlights the importance and frequency of "intra-regional" use of English rather than those of "inter-regional" use.

Intra-regional use of English:

Euro English
Asian English
Latin English
Arab English
African English
Anglo English

They are varieties within each region, and share cross-national intelligibility within the region while keeping local lingua cultural characteristics & identities.

As this paper attempt to portray the materials suitable for Iranian learners who are mainly going to get prepared to communicate with other NNSs of English, we will make use of some of the above mentioned principles to draw a picture for materials developers who want to satisfy the learners' actual needs.

4.1.1. Endonormativity

Since ELF researchers are concerned, ELF students are proficient users of English and in the same time they are representatives of

spreading this language and its belongings such as culture, customs, and rituals. In this regular procedure, which is the upshot of the inseparable link between culture and language, some and sometimes all learners' cultural belongings are ignored. It is not a strange phenomenon if you take a short glance at English books taught in different countries with different cultures. Interchange series and Headway series, well-known books in language institutes, introduce American and British culture and instill the norms into all aspects of learners' lives. Nowadays most of learners who are learning English even as an international language are familiar with Halloween, Valentine's day, Christmas, and other western specific rituals and they even celebrate these occasions. Although this would be one of the actual consequences of globalization, English learners play their distinctive roles in spreading them.

Having the above-mentioned issues in mind, what is the materials developers' mission? How can they convey learners' own culture into language learning settings? How would the learning situation become an opportunity to raise students' perception about their own culture and social life? For materials to be endonormative, first and foremost materials writers need to be familiar with learners' lifestyle and concentrate on their values. These values and morals involve their contemporary social and political life, historical backgrounds, and their religious rituals. After doing an empirical research, Luk (2005) concluded that topics centered on social and political issues that are relevant to students' lives give them confidence and fluency in using English for meaningful communication.

4.1.2. Cultural Neutrality

Cultural neutrality, also proposed by Seidlhofer, along with "intraregional use" is in close relationship with endonormativity, because they all refuse the concept of extronormativity and dependence on native speakers' culture in order to communicate in ELF. The same as what was mentioned before, cultural neutrality involves making the ELF model

free of prefabricated baggage of native speakers' culture. Cultural neutrality allows people to infuse their norms into the body of the language they employ. "Cultural neutrality" is another indispensable component of ELF materials, that is to say ELF model needs not to be the mirror reflecting just western culture norms, such as Christianity, their ritual mores, their way of life and even their style. Regarding this fact, ELF materials should be an arena to make learners more conscious about their culture and make critical thinkers out of the learners. Cultural aspects of materials need to be presented in the way that motivate students and be of their interests. It is crucial to make sure that students don't take the materials as tools imposing various cultural, religious, and social codes on them. CN in line with endonormativity let materials writers and even English users themselves to have a broad horizon of norms that can be made appropriate and used in different circumstances. Seidlhofer (2008) believes that ELF is a language for which there is no a common culture. ELF culture is shaped by online negotiation and construction of interlocutors and language users. Culture in ELF is a relative not an absolute connotation. Culture in ELF is defined based on the situation in which language is used. Brinton & Snow (2006) argues about the development of intercultural personality which shows that culture is not a fixed component of ELF communication. For instance, we can envisage a business setting with lots of NNS members communicating through a common language which is English. How can we define culture in this situation? We must concentrate on the ongoing and slippery function of culture, something that is in the process of being made through novel interactions.

4.1.3. Intraregional Use of English

This concept is introduced by Yano (2009) who is a proponent of "Intraregional" rather than "Interregional" use of English. In the consequence of globalization process, most interactions and communications happen within the borders of one specific region sharing common interests. It was mentioned earlier that Yano divides the

regions based on their use of English into six regions. If we look more precisely, its genuineness becomes clearer. For example people from Arab world are more in touch with other Arab people than with those living in south America or Africa. We will discuss this issue more explicitly later.

4.2. How Should it be Presented? The Form of ELF Materials

So far we discussed what should be presented in materials appropriate for ELF settings, communication among NNSs of English. At the present we will go on toward the second part of this paper which is "how should these contents be presented to ELF learners?" the answer relies on the form of the materials. In the previous section it was mentioned that ELF setting is a unique one with its own norms, culture and the one which is not norm-dependant anymore. The situation that language is used in selects the content and culture appropriate. Having this in mind, it is not peculiar to think about the insertion of new form into ELF. In the same line with interaregional English, we also can think about same common lexicogrammar, which is introduced to this common language by its competent users. Seidlhofer (2008) argues that ELF is not deficient English; it is just different in form and has different function as well. Widdowson (2003) goes a step further pointing out that communication in ELF is to exploit the resources of the language to produce a novel combination which doesn't follow the conventional codes. He also argues that it does not mean that ELF consist of divergent forms, content selects the appropriate form.

Cook (1999) also points out the disadvantages of native English model as first "it (native model) is not appropriate for ELF context" and second "it is a hard job to decide which native variety to choose and full competence is not achievable". Penny Ur (2009) defends "diverse, flexible models" which allow for local variations and at the same time are ideologically acceptable and sidesteps need for "codification". This codification is another aspect of ELF-based materials that this paper is concerned about. Lexicogrammar

and phonology of ELF which are proposed by Seidlhofer and Jenkins respectably will be presented as an appropriate form of ELF materials.

4.2.1. Lexicogrammar of ELF: VOICE

What is VOICE (Vienna-Oxford International Corpus of English)? VOICE is a corpus of spoken EIL. Its focus is on face-to-face communication among fluent speakers of different L1 backgrounds. This corpus will make EIL variety acceptable, feasible, and respected alternative to ENL in different contexts. Voice has documented syntax and lexis of ELF by presenting over a million words and expressions recorded from spoken ELF interactions. So far, VOICE includes approximately 1250 ELF speakers with approximately 50 different first languages (disregarding varieties of the respective languages). In VOICE website, the goal of this corpus is mentioned as: "It is the ultimate aim of the VOICE project to open the way for a large-scale and in-depth linguistic description of this most common contemporary use of English by providing a corpus of spoken ELF interactions which will be accessible to linguistic researchers all over the world." Seidlhofer (2008) herself describes VOICE as the speech events including private and public dialogues, conversations, and interviews. VOICE gives credit to EIL varieties.

4.2.2. Phonology of ELF: Lingua Franca Core

The phonology of ELF materials for this study is taken from Jenkins' Phonological Core (2000). In her empirical studies of communications among NNSs of English, she came to what she has called "intelligible pronunciation". Jenkins classifies English sounds into "core" and "non-core" categories. She claims that various substitutions for instance /f,v/ or /s,z/ or /t,d/ for "th" sound are permissible in ELF settings because they do not impede the communication process. She believes that the divergences from native speakers' codes are acceptable sociolinguistic variation. Jenkins' lingua franca core is presented as follows: (Jenkins, 2002)

-All the consonants are important except for 'th' sounds as in 'thin' and 'this'.

-Consonant clusters are important at the beginning and in the middle of words. For example, the cluster in the word 'string' cannot be simplified to 'sting' or 'tring' and remain intelligible.

-The contrast between long and short vowels is important. For example, the difference between the vowel sounds in 'sit' and 'seat'.

-Nuclear (or tonic) stress is also essential. This is the stress on the most important word (or syllable) in a group of words. For example, there is a difference in meaning between 'My son uses a computer' which is a neutral statement of fact and 'My SON uses a computer', where there is an added meaning (such as that another person known to the speaker and listener does not use a computer).

On the other hand, many other items which are regularly taught on English pronunciation courses appear not to be essential for intelligibility in EIL interactions. These are...

-The 'th' sounds (see above).

-Vowel quality, that is, the difference between vowel sounds where length is not involved, e.g. a German speaker may pronounce the 'e' in the word 'chess' more like an 'a' as in the word 'cat'.

-Weak forms such as the words 'to', 'of' and 'from' whose vowels are often pronounced as schwa instead of with their full quality.

Other features of connected speech such as assimilation (where the final sound of a word alters to make it more like the first sound of the next word, so that, e.g. 'red paint' becomes 'reb paint'.

-Word stress.

-Pitch movement.

-Stress timing.

All these things are said to be important for a native speaker listener either because they aid intelligibility or because they are thought to make an accent more appropriate. Presenting these features of

EIL, she focuses on core features to be taught in ELF conditions. The materials developers' mission is to fetch the lingua franca core into educational milieu. Students should be given plenty of exposure in their pronunciation classrooms to other non-native accents of English so that they can understand them with no trouble even if a speaker has not yet managed to acquire the core features. For EIL, this is much more important than having classroom exposure to native speaker accents. Is it achievable? Lingua franca core can be exploited in books through presenting some samples such as conversations among NNSs. But the point needs focusing here is noticing. The learners' attention should be drawn to differences between the native form and the international one. "Listening" section of each lesson can be the actual board for illustrating the dynamic phonology of ELF. Another important issue in lingua franca core is the issue of assessment. Besides its teaching function, lingua franca core gives a criterion to evaluate learners who want to get prepared to penetrate into global communications. In this way teachers task is to assess learners based on their intelligible communications not just by accuracy principles.

5. Results and Discussion

Referring back to the research questions proposed before, we are to a great degree sure that it is possible and even recommended to have ELF-based materials in international settings. It is possible to make use of learners' culture and norms to develop applicable materials. Now clicking on these materials characteristics we are supposed to take advantages of the above mentioned framework. Based on this framework the characteristics of appropriate materials are as follows:

Firstly, materials need to be "endonormative". Now this question arises that how is it possible to associate materials content with the learner's life? The rational issue is that materials writer himself should be a part of the society that students are learning English in. In this way all ready-made packages written and prepared by

just authorized natives because of their solely nativeness would be discarded. The materials developer and learners should be in the same boat for materials to get through. Let's refer to Iran, a place with a long history, whose people are learning English chiefly to be able to communicate in international settings. Materials presented to them are far from what is actually happening in their surrounding life and what they actually need to be able to go to international conversations effectively. What can they say about their nation? And how can they introduce their historical rituals, their religious occasions, and their special days in their calendar if they need to do outside their country? Are they capable to adapt to the unique culture of ELF which is ever-changing and in the process of being formed? The point worth mentioning is that distinctive culture of ELF does not belong to any specific culture but at the same time it is an amalgamation of all of the people's cultures involved. So the learners own culture should be injected into the body of international or ELF culture. Every student should be of a individual voice to signify his country in the global village. Iranians need to have a voice; otherwise they will represent the American and British culture as an mediator. This is what critical thinkers all over the world are concerned about. Endonormative materials in Iran would consist of the religious rituals that make a strong linkage between learners and Muslim world. It would include Iran's ancient history, their special occasions that are celebrated annually. This can make learning more concrete and meaningful to them at the same time they will give learners proud and dignity.

Secondly, ELF materials should be "culturally neutral". ELF culture is in the process of being shaped through novel interactions. So materials writers, as main agents of introducing this ever-changing and dynamic culture are responsible for making learners aware that, in Tomlinson' (2005) word culture in ELF is a process not a product. How? By enclosure of the unparalleled ELF culture which does not belong to any specific country but to all

people presented. This can be done by referring to some unique events and occasions which are new to all ELF users. Thirdly, materials should be based on 'intraregional use of English" which is the genuine consequence of globalization. Here we refer to Iran as an instance of a country belonging to both Asian and Arab English. Iranians by and large share the Asian region and from a religious stance, they share Arab English. Lots of interactions happen in these English regions. In this regard, materials writers may enter these common interests, norms, customs into the content of ELF-based materials. It was highlighted before that ELF culture is exclusive and relative in each situation. In the same vein there are a lot of common features among the users of English in specific region which can be the basis of materials content.

Regarding the form of the materials, we need to take care of phonology and lexicogrammar. In this regard, lexicogrammar corpus which is discussed in VOICE represent significant features of ELF-specific materials. How materials writers may take the advantages of the corpus? Is this corpus capable of making learners fluent speakers to use the language in communicating with both NSs and NNSs of English? It has been claimed that ELF is a process rather a product (Tomlinson, 2005) so always the uniqueness of this process should be taken into account. To be able to communicate with other English speakers all over the world, English learners need to be offered with VOICE corpus in addition to native model corpus. A combination of them both would make an appropriate data for learners. The author suggests the materials writers to make use of EIL corpus (VOICE) as an additional source of presenting appropriate and situation specific form to learners of English. For instance this lexicogrammar corpus can be presented in conversations between NNSs and NSs or between NNSs. This would enlighten learners and raise their consciousness about what is happening in genuine international communications. Finally, we have phonology of materials. Using "lingua franca core" principles is

another characteristic of materials. The materials developers' mission is to fetch the lingua franca core into educational milieu. Students should be given plenty of exposure in their pronunciation classrooms to other non-native accents of English so that they can understand them with no trouble even if a speaker has not yet managed to acquire the core features. For EIL, this is much more important than having classroom exposure to native speaker accents. Is it achievable? Lingua franca core can be exploited in books through presenting some samples such as conversations among NNSs. But the point needs focusing here is noticing. The learners' attention should be drawn to differences between the native form and the international one. "Listening" section of each lesson can be the actual board for illustrating the dynamic phonology of ELF. Another important issue in lingua franca core is the issue of assessment. Besides its teaching function, lingua franca core gives a criterion to evaluate learners who want to get prepared to penetrate into global communications. In this way teachers task is to assess learners based on their intelligible communications not just by accuracy principles.

6. Concluding Remarks

The present paper has tried to offer a comprehensive framework for materials writers to be used in ELF situations. The offered framework includes the form and content of materials. On the whole the framework put forward the following characteristics for ELF materials to be appropriate for international communications:

- Endonormativity:
- Cultural neutrality:
- Intraregional use of English:
- Lexicogrammar of ELF: VOICE
- Phonology of ELF: Lingua Franca Core

Although it seems rational to have a conclusive frame for the new variety of English, it may face its own problems as well. For most of ELF learners, the ideal models of imitation are still those of native speakers. And some scholars believe that without a NS model, educational

curriculum will be left with no agreement over common communication norms. Till now the ELF variety does not have the absolute credit to be accepted and respected as a teaching or learning model. ELF model is in its embryonic stages and with consciousness raising and enough exposure to above mentioned corpus this variety would grow up to a legitimate and conclusive representation.

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REMEDIAL ENGLISH CLASSES AT UNIVERSITY OF SINDH, JAMSHORO

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Abstract

The department of English, University of Sindh, Jamshoro, runs compulsory English courses for students of all faculties for first 4 semesters. The English compulsory classes are supposed to teach English to students of other disciplines so that they can be prepared to read their own course books, which are published in English. Prior to 2002, the curriculum of English compulsory classes was based on the assumption that students were studying English literature rather than English as a tool for communication. In the first year, students were taught the simplified version of Hemingway's novella *The old Man and the Sea* and in the second year students were taught the book *Points of View*, a collection of different essays edited by Alderton (1980). There were problems in the way the texts were presented. The books did not have any provision for any tasks that can provide opportunities for student participation. Hence new classes were introduced in the name of Remedial English Classes.

The aim of this research is therefore to create an understanding of how Remedial classes are being taught. To achieve this aim, four lessons have been audio-taped and then transcribed with a view to investigating some significant features such as role of teachers, role of students, and role of materials. Findings show that though materials have been changed, methods of teaching are same. The teachers try to use same traditional methods of teaching and provide students with limited opportunities for participation. Consequently the paper suggests some training for teachers who teach these classes.

Key words: Pakistan, Innovation, Change, Methods and materials

Introduction

The department of English runs compulsory English courses for students of all faculties for first 4 semesters. Prior to 2002 the curriculum of English compulsory classes was based on the assumption that students were studying English literature rather than English as a tool for communication. In the first year, students were taught the simplified version of Hemingway's novella *The old Man and the Sea* and in the second year students were taught the book *Points of View*, a collection of different essays edited by Alderton (1980). There were problems in the way the texts were presented. The books did not have any provision for any tasks that can provide opportunities for student participation. Hence new classes were introduced in the name of Remedial English Classes.

Remedial English classes

In 2002 the authorities of the universities decided to change the course for English compulsory classes and introduced new course under the name of 'Remedial English classes. The incumbent Vice Chancellor directed the Academic Council in October 2002 to devise a new syllabus for English compulsory classes so that students' performance can be improved.

A new plan was devised and implemented in 2002 under the name of 'remedial English classes'. New courses books were introduced. These course books are published by the Oxford University Press under the name of 'English for undergraduates' has written by Howe et al.

(1997). This book contains tasks and activities, which involve students in reading, writing, and speaking. Listening skill has not been included. The introduction of new course was aimed at improving all 4 English language skills of students. The class size was reduced from 100 to 60-70 students per group; along with the present faculty, some college lecturers were hired temporarily to teach those classes.

This study aims to find out how these classes are being taught. Before doing this I would like to explore some relevant literature that can provide us some understanding about classroom teaching and consequently can inform the analysis of the data. Hence the second chapter provides the review of literature.

Literature review

We need information about various aspects of classroom teaching and learning: such as the organisation of lessons, opportunities for learning that learners get in those classrooms, turns that teachers and learners take etc. The following section discusses previous research into many of these aspects. This discussion of previous research will inform and guide the design of this investigation and also contribute to the Ways of analysing classroom data

Analysing language classroom

A language class provides a rich source of data, which can be analysed in different ways. Writers such as Van Lier (1988), Allwright and Bailey (1991), Chaudron (1988), and Seliger (1977) have looked at language classes in different ways. For example opportunities for learning, turn taking, and teacher talk, etc. Yet some other writers Gibbons (1999), Lemke (1993), Goffman (1974), and Baynham (1991) suggest ways for data analysis at organisational level by looking at different units in a single lesson. The following section sets off by looking at how these commentators have analysed classroom data.

Describing language classroom

One way of analysing classroom data is to look at a lesson at its structural level in order to see the organisation of different activities in a single lesson. Goffman (1974) found that most lessons are structured in sub parts or activities, which are planned by the teacher in advance. Each sub part is accompanied by instructions to learners with the help of which specific patterns of participation can be observed. These sub parts have been described as 'episodes' by Lemke (1993) who defines an episode as a sub-section of a lesson, which is marked formally with a signal word from the teachers such as 'OK' and 'now' reflects a change in the structure e.g. from student-student interaction to teacher student interaction and function of an activity e.g. from group discussion to reading a text. Gibbons (1999) describes an episode as a 'bounded unit' based on a single teaching activity, which is marked by signal words or phrases such as 'well, what we are going to do, now' etc. Gibbons (1999:161) has also outlined three non-linguistic features, which help recognise and distinguish one episode from another, those features are given below.

Each episode has a particular participation structure which is likely to change when a new episode starts e.g. students may work as individuals, pairs, groups or as a whole class

Physical seating arrangements which again frequently change with the start of each new episode e.g. students may be sitting in groups, or pairs, or on individual desks Each episode has a particular purpose or a function, for example to carry out an experiment, to share findings with others or to write a journal entry.

The sub parts, units, or episode in a lesson undoubtedly play an important role in terms of looking at the structuring of input and interaction of learners, teacher talk, turn taking, so with the help of these units/episodes one can begin to determine opportunities of participation and learning. An episode is often planned by a teacher in such a way so that different participation

and learning opportunities can be provided to students. It is a descriptive unit but can be used to help evaluate a lesson. e eventual data analysis.

Evaluating language classrooms

Opportunities of learning

Allwright and Bailey (1991) say that to evaluate a lesson one needs to look at the opportunities it provides for learning; some of which are planned by the teacher and others emerge as a result of classroom interaction. The learning opportunities need to be linked to the way they are received by the learners and the atmosphere of the classroom that helps learners to receive them. Learning opportunities can be classified into two types 'practice opportunities' and 'input opportunities', which mostly take place together. In the former learners try to do something with a view to learning it, where as in the latter case learners encounter something that is related to their learning. Classroom interaction provides learners with a range of practice opportunities. Some of them are incidental, taking place because of learners' on-the-spot questioning and others emerge as a result of learners making mistakes.

These ideas are consistent with the notion of learning in Neo-Vygostkian theories, particularly those related to activity theory, discussed above. But they also mean that a key aspect in evaluating a lesson is the pattern of turn taking.

Turn taking

As mentioned earlier, opportunities for learning are closely linked to the opportunities of participation, which may take place in the shape of turn allocation. A classroom involves differential amount of teacher and students' talk. An individual chunk of talk carried out by either side is called a turn. Turns are sometimes nominated by the teacher and sometimes are automatically established and sometimes speakers create space for themselves to take turns. At times, teachers throw questions to the whole class to which students give bids and then teacher nominates. In addition, some learners may

steal their turns forcefully by taking floor without any nomination whereas, some shy students may not even try for their turns and as a result either do not get any share of talk or get minimal. The students who are good at communication either steal their turns or are given more importance by the teacher as compared to the students who are not good at communication. The teacher is involved mostly in turn giving and learners in turn getting. Some learners prefer to remain silent in the classroom despite knowing the information because of their shy nature or they are because they are inhibited by some other reasons, hence it would be wrong to assume that they are not learning. They may be using silence as a strategy to gain knowledge smoothly (see Allwright & Bailey 1991)

Social interaction in a language classroom involves participation of both teachers and students therefore in most of the situations a teacher enforces certain rules as to who should speak first, second and likewise. The technique of turn taking is enforced when there is competition in which learners try to look for the opportunities to talk and so interrupt each other or they are required to wait for their turns to come so that they can contribute to the classroom activity. Van Lier (1988) argues that sometimes these rules are not explicitly stated to the participants rather they know them as tacit norms of teaching and learning process, when these norms are eroded by some students, either teachers or students refer to those norms.

Sometimes teachers allocate turns to students with a view to providing equal opportunities. This is done by nominating different students at different times. Turn allocation is either predetermined or emerges while carrying out the activity. When allocation is predetermined there seem to be no negotiation, competition and personal initiative, whereas when it emerges on the spot, there may be transition and distribution problems because of the number of potential participants (see Van Lier Ibid.).

Teacher Talk

Teacher talk in a language classroom plays an important role in deciding or providing opportunities for participation and learning to students. If teacher is concerned more about his display of talk than involving students then learners will obviously get fewer opportunities for participation and learning. In contrast, if teacher's talk is aimed at facilitating student learning then it will be beneficial for learners. In teacher fronted classes three quarters of classroom talk is done by the teachers themselves (Allwright & Bailey 1991). Teachers structure the talk, they solicit, and finally they react to it; the fourth element i.e. responding is left for students. Using talk as a major source, teachers, in teacher fronted classroom, pass on information to students on one hand and on the other hand they control their behaviour.

Stubbs (1983) carried out research in a secondary school in Edinburgh over a period of six weeks in which he observed two teachers; his observation instruments were note taking and audio recording. On the basis of his observations he makes a useful distinction between teacher talk and preacher talk. The latter involves monologue, whereas the former is more interactive with a high percentage of utterances which contains various speech acts such as informing, explaining, defining, questioning, correcting, prompting, ordering, requesting, inviting students to talk, editing and correcting their language etc. He goes on to say, in classroom talk teachers enjoy more conversational control over the topic; they also control what students need in terms of relevance and appropriateness. In addition teachers decide when students should be given a privilege of talking in classroom. In classroom talk teachers constantly apply a strategy of monitoring to see if students are on the same wavelength as that of teachers. Hence teachers apply different strategies during the classroom talk with a view to correcting students and checking their level of understanding.

To sum up, the section has shed light on the language classroom in terms of

opportunities for participation and learning, turn taking, teacher talk etc. this may guide us into the analysis of remedial English classes in the context of USJP. The following section provides methodology for the study.

Research Design

This section provides a description of the design and methodology used in this study aimed to investigate the remedial English classes at USJP. To begin with, research aims are presented followed by the research question. The chapter then presents the methodology. Then the chapter provides information about participants and procedures for the data collection.

Research aims

The aim of this study is to provide a detailed description with regard to the role of the teachers and role of students and role of the material in the Remedial English classes. The aim of this research is therefore to create an understanding of how Remedial classes are being taught. This can be achieved by investigating some significant features of the current Remedial English Classes. The best kind of data here seems to be transcripts based on audio recordings (Anning and Edwards 1999) supplemented by interviews with the participants in the study.

The analysis of the data will draw on the notion of the episode and focus on the role of the teacher, role of learners, role of the text and opportunities of participation that students get in two formats of teaching reading (see Lemke (1990) and, Allwright and Bailey 1991).

The practical outcome of the study would be to provide suggestions to all the concerned quarters such as teachers, syllabus designers, and authorities at USP to make further improvements if required.

1. Do Remedial English classes provide enough opportunities of participation for learners?

The research question looks at the role of students in terms of their participation. The

answer to this question will provide information and research evidence to make any changes in the role of students, role of teachers and role of material.

Having presented the research question of this study, I next proceed to describe the methodology.

Methodology

Ethnography is now widely used beyond anthropology in social sciences. In order to achieve planned aims and objectives, an ethnographic approach has been chosen because of its ability to provide a rich account of a given phenomenon, what Geertz (1973) terms “thick description”. In this approach a researcher spends time among people that he is interested in, studies their culture, society, can ask them questions, can make notes etc. Various writers look at the concept of ethnography in different ways such as Malinowski (1942 cited in MacDonald 2001: 60) who defines ethnography as a ‘detailed, first-hand, long term, participant observation fieldwork written up as a monograph about particular people’. Spradley (1980) believes ethnography is aimed at drawing out distinctive features of cultural knowledge Gumperz (1981) sees ethnography as a detailed examination of patterns of social interaction, where as Lutz (1981) calls ethnography as a holistic analysis of societies. These writers differ in their definition of ethnography but still there is one commonality among them that ethnography is a social form of research in that a researcher needs to go to a particular setting to study its cultural and social practices with a view to getting a detailed description of a phenomenon as Geertz (1973) suggests. This view is supported by Hammersley & Atkinson (1983:2) saying that

The ethnographer participates, overtly or covertly in people’s daily lives for an extended period of time, watching what happens, listening to what is said, asking questions, in fact collecting whatever data are available to throw light on the issues with which s/he is concerned

Another advantage of ethnographic approach towards research is that it allows

the use of multiple methods to study a problem, in that a researcher can apply a variety of sources to collect data with a view to increasing the validity and reliability of findings of the study.

In this study the use of ethnographic approach allowed the researcher to get below the surface, to gain in depth and detailed look inside the situation by conducting in intensive investigation and collecting rich evidence.

Methods of data collection

Methods of data collection

Audio taping the lessons, making field notes, and conducting interviews with teachers

I observed Remedial English lessons and audio-recorded them. The classes selected were B.A students, who were in the third semester of compulsory English

The classes were taught by four different teachers labelled as A, B, C, and D.

Table 3.2 Information about teachers

Teachers	Age	Qualification	Teaching experience	Sex
A	30	M.A English Literature	2 years	Female
B	37	M.A English Literature	10 years	Male
C	25	M.A English Literature	2 year	Female
D	26	M.A English Literature	2 years	Male

Table 3.2 provides the background information about teachers based on their age, qualification, teaching experience, and sex. I have assigned letters A,B, C and D to these teachers as their pseudonyms. These English teachers were appointed to the university after finishing their Masters degrees in English literature. They are given teaching assignments straight away without any formal or informal teacher

training and have no TEFL/TESOL training or qualification or any other formal teacher education. The following number of classes was audio-taped.

Table 3.3 Audio-taped lessons

	No. of lessons	Duration of each lesson	Total recording hours
Remedial English Lessons	4	50 minutes each	2 hours 20 minutes

Interviews

Interviews can play an important role in obtaining qualitative data by providing a detailed account of interviewees' responses. In interviews participants express their thoughts, perceptions, feelings and their experiences. The present study needed this kind of information to find out the answers of research question i.e. what are the attitudes of learners towards two forms of teaching reading? Tuckman (cited in Cohen et al. 2001) describes interview as gaining direct access to an interviewees' heads in order to find out their choices, preferences, likes, and dislikes. Goodwin and Goodwin (1996) similarly say that an interview helps a researcher to gain an insight about somebody else's position or stance about the phenomenon under study. There are different kinds of interviews: structured, unstructured and semi structured ones. Structured interviews deal with a pre-specified set of questions and sequence; unstructured interviews are carried out following the agenda of the interviewers in which they adopt conversational style in order to get answers of some key issues; and in semi-structured interviews an interviewer can modify the questions and can alter the sequence in order to go deeper into the thoughts of respondents (see Robson 2002, Cohen et al. 2001, Patton 1990).

Robson (2002) and Cohen et al (2001) see structured interviews as similar to a questionnaire because of the use of closed questions; the danger of this kind of interview is that a researcher may not be able to follow the agenda of respondents. Conversely, unstructured interviews allow

high degree of freedom to respondents in which they may not come to the point and may digress from the original question, which may in turn become difficult for a researcher to analyse. Therefore the present study employs semi-structured interviews with open-ended questions with a view to gaining useful insights from respondents.

Interviews with teachers

The teachers whose classes were audio-taped were interviewed so that an understanding could be developed about their pedagogical practices and also to find out their views about future changes in materials and methods in the department. Data sources for the study included
Transcripts of 4 lessons
4 transcripts of teacher-interviews

Methods of analysing data

The data analysis started with transcription of audiotapes of the lessons. This was carried out by listening to the cassettes then writing manually; the transcription was checked and rechecked by revisiting audios again and again. This was followed by the transcription of interviews. The section has presented the research questions and objectives of the study and demonstrated how the researcher came to decide upon the most appropriate research methodology. The outcomes of the investigation will be presented in the next section.

Findings

In this section an attempt is made to answer the research question i.e. Do the remedial classes provide enough opportunities of participation for students. To begin with, the chapter provides us the general description of a Remedial English classes. As mentioned earlier, four lessons were audio-taped and then were transcribed. They are analysed into turns and words spoken by the teacher and by students. The transcripts are included in appendix A. I divided each transcript into episodes following the definitions put forward by Lemke (1990) Gibbons (1999) discussed in chapter 2 on the basis of the following criteria

Language signals as boundary markers e.g. OK, Well, Now etc.

As shown in the following example

Ok whenever you are converting any active sentence into passive that is in interrogative from how will you convert.

Where is the bread?

Now this is an interrogative, there is question mark.

Has Jack ever been even warned by anyone else this is also converted into the interrogative right! And you have to put question mark in the end now the future and model.

Verbs in the passive. How to make passive sentences whenever you are using model verbs or those sentence are in future form we use be + passive participle after will and then we going to these are model our verbs can must have to and should these words you have learnt in previous unit so

The gate will be closed this evening. "The gate will" Now will is indicating what? (Lesson 2 Appendix A)

Categories

Two main categories were found i.e.

Teachers' orientation to students

Teachers' orientation to the text

I will discuss these categories one by one.

Teachers' orientation to students and opportunities for participation.

I have examined opportunities of participation on the basis of number of turns taken by teachers and by students. So I analysed data by counting these elements of the lessons. The table below provides the detailed picture of turns taken and words spoken by teachers and students.

Table 4.1

	Teacher words	Teacher turns	Student words	Student turns
Lesson 1	1070	03	83	01
Lesson 2	1823	38	78	37
Lesson 3	2258	24	748	29
Lesson	1582	57	263	55

n 4				
TOTA	6733	122	1172	122
L				

Table shows lesser words are spoken by students whereas teachers have spoken much more at length. This suggests that teachers are the dominant players in the classroom. This may well be because of the cultural factors. The teachers are supposed to be active in imparting knowledge therefore teachers take up this responsibility to equip students with the knowledge.

In the beginning of the most of the lessons the pattern was of a teacher monologue. Even where the pattern of interaction was one of teacher-student interaction the teacher dominated. The number of students who were explicitly participating in the interaction was limited to not more than seven students sitting at the front of the class. The rest of the students were listening to the interaction. The following extract from lesson two is an example of teacher student interaction.

(collective response)

T: Part simple so

(collective response)

T: Out built no! was built- was built or something else (confirm)

(collective) response

T: Has been!? No BABA (teacher negotiates with SS)

(collective response)_ House built?

(talk collectively)

T: Exactly (after listening ss) to be verb and if it is past simple what should be here.

Collective response

T: Exactly. If it is singular then was, if it is plural then were 50, here this is built and houses.

What should here? (teacher asks SS)

(Talk)

T: Were being (repeats) were being ok the next one is use and there must be past continuous form how to make them? (Teacher asks students).

(Participate in the class raising their voice to answer)

Past continuous

(Response)

T: Exactly was being used ok!
 Third one is own and it must be in present simple form.
 (Talk and say the answer)
 T: This is Baba present simple (teacher suggests)
 (noise in the class)
 Present simple!
 (Talk Collectively)
 T: Present simple
 Answer collectively
 T: The word is own ok you have to put in blank but you have to follow the pattern of passive form.
 (noise)
 T: It must be present simple.
 Jee!
 (shared answer)
 T: Present simple! is own. Exactly by and now you have to convert past simple you have to put this word in the blank where you have to follow the pattern of past simple form whenever you are converting any,
 (Response collectively)
 T: Past simple was bought or were bought if there is subject in singular form you have to put was bought and if it is plural then! Were bought ok! And the last one is do.
 (Collective response)
 T= Teacher
 Most of the lessons involved teacher-student interaction but that interaction seems to benefit only to those students who are willing to contribute therefore most of the time they take self-nominated turns. The teacher does not try to involve those students who are shy or unwilling to come forward.

Teachers' orientation to the text and opportunities of participation

The text book was in the hands of the students and the teacher. It was the teacher who spoke about the text and activities in the text. He wrote examples on the board and explained to students as to how to do the activities. The teacher tried to present the model for each activity so that students can follow it. Students were not encouraged to work out things by themselves.

Findings show that in general terms the teachers are the dominant players in the lessons. They control the interaction where it happens and speak much more often and at much greater length than the students. The students are provided with fewer opportunities for participation. However, relatively few students take up this opportunity and in general take a passive role. While the teacher is speaking the students listen with varying degrees of attention and with varying amounts of note taking.

Responding to research question

Do Remedial English Classes provide enough opportunities of participation for students?

At the moment the answer is certainly 'No'

Discussion

The paper investigated the Remedial English Classes with a particular focus on the opportunities of participation for learners. The findings show that the teachers have played a dominant role in the classroom. This is attributable to several factors such as teachers' academic qualifications, teachers' training background, students' orientation to the new material etc. I will discuss these factors one by one.

Teachers' academic qualification

As we saw in section three that all teachers were M.A in English literature and the Remedial English Classes are supposed to teach language skills to students. The teaching material has been changed but the teachers are same with traditional mindset in which they try to apply transmission model. This has cultural reasons also such as, students success or failure is attributed to the way teachers teach therefore, teachers feel responsible for imparting knowledge to students this is what they do by lecture method. This leads us to the next point which is teachers training background.

Teachers' training backgrounds

The existing teaching practice in most of the public sector universities in Pakistan is based on lecture method, which is inherited

from old generation of teachers to new generation. The teachers are appointed on the basis of their Masters degrees in their particular fields. They are assigned teaching responsibilities without any formal or informal teacher training. Richardson (2001) has rightly pointed out that teachers start teaching by imitating others and associating their teaching practice with that of others, thus, following the associationist and behaviourist conceptions.

Same is the case in the Remedial English Classes, where the material has been changed but not even a single orientation session was provided to teachers. Teacher-orientation seems to be necessary as the new course requires change in the role of teachers, students and use of the material. Fifty percent of the teachers have been hired from different colleges, where they teach grammar and in these classes they are given responsibilities of teaching language skills. Hence there seems to be a lot of mismatch between methods and materials of teaching. This has resulted in providing students with fewer opportunities for participation.

Students' orientation

As I said earlier that the new material requires change in the role of the teachers and students therefore the students should have been provided with orientation sessions where they should have been apprised of the fact that there will be group discussion, pair work, group work, they should feel free to ask questions from the teacher etc. This may have had contributed a lot in motivating students to come forward and express their ideas without any fear of the teachers.

To sum up the sessions, the new programs of teaching need skilful planning in terms of methods and materials of teaching if the materials are changed and the methods remain same then it is difficult to get positive results.

Conclusion

The section has presented findings of the remedial classes taught at University of

Sindh, Jamshoro. The finding suggests that, apparently, teachers because of their traditional mindset control the classroom activity, which has consequences for student participation.

The introduction of Remedial English Classes needs to be supported by three main changes: firstly, a professional, development initiative to introduce and support the change; secondly an improvement in the teacher student ratio; and thirdly greater flexibility among teachers as to how they organise their classes, which in some case would require some professional development. I feel that if these three conditions are met there is a possibility for purposeful change within USJP, which will improve the current scenario of Remedial English Classes.

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Appendix A

Lesson 1

Teacher	So chapter no 4 that is American today her name is Elizebeth Black well she has selected her career to be doctor in oldest time the women were given inferiority they were not considered to be more important factor of society. It was the first time for her Elezbethan to get
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	admission at college, her parent were agreed with her to get education to be a doctor. Her application was considered was under consideration first the Dean then students they held general meeting that she should be given admission in this college or not the teachers stop, and read consulted to each another for her admission final her admission was accepted and she was given admission that college it was strange for her, and it was news accident for her when she was introduced before so many SS b/c previously students had different sorts of behaviour- Some were boisterous, rude, rough and strange type of nature. When she entered especially in talking in speaking, invadeing. It means they become gentle in this visit that writer tells us that now woman is also taking parts in many field of Education or career. She can be social worker, she can be educationist, she can be doctor she can be teacher and which field she likes can choose. She can choose that brilliant to be whatever she likes in her life so, she was one of and when the Dean introduced of that college and some students shocked, some students become confused, some students laughed and some were considering that lady should be in a class. We will learn a lot. There will be a competition and in this way, we will learn a lot, we will cover many thing in our life, so in this unit that in given, they were one hundred fifty students amongst them Elizebethan was one it was quite Strange for her in first days in University you will fired when you will come after means college life. You will come to here, you will find some sorts of difficulties in first day. You will
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another one another even your teacher when with the passage of time you will start knowing every thing slowly and gradually then you will talk culture, tradition of that situation it was quite difficult for her in those days when she was when it was her first day to attend the collage and then with the passage of time she learnt a lot things talking with boys getting confidence in finally she got whatever she wanted in her life and her career was to be a doctor. Unit, in this unit or the philosophy are main purpose of writing this unit is that woman should be given equal right to man she can work shoulder to shoulder with a man any field of her career, her life whatever profession, career she selects in her life so that is there we should not give any less important to woman. We should also give much more importance as our give ourselves.

Being a Muslim we should follow, we should act whatever our prophets, our Islam are saying, or scoding us that woman has been given equal right to man. But in oldest time in our society you will find that there are so many people they give less chance, they give inferiority, they not give more much chance to their daughters, sisters to do something in future. The problem is that in our society especially that our region has been remained such a place where the foreigners or invader conquered they brought their own literature language and they introduced their culture. In oldest time Arabs used to bury their daughters alive. It means they used to get less important to their daughters and It was also lived when they their homes it means in Sindh especially that

Arbs used to give less important to their daughters as in our Sindhi Society, you will find that there are the people in our Sindh. There are the people in Pakistan they give less important to their daughters women b/c they adopt the culture and tradition of therefore fathers. But here she is one if the body and selected her career to be doctor and she has been given much more chances in her life so, it was complete surprise for her and for her students when she was introduced before so many students_ and it was typical for both students and for her to speak and what to say at that time and the dear had a great confidence in those presence he expressed his ideas and feelings about her in positive way that she is the student of she has been given admission, she willingly, she is eager to learn some thing to get education and that's why she preferred collage and we accepted her application and she will be the students so, she brought many changes, in class students become positive, polite and quick to learn so many things with the help of her and that is thing is there so it mean that in this unit we have given this advice that on should not feel or one should not give less respect to any body all people are equal in the eyes of God. We Should respect everyone whether male or female. But we must give more chance to our ladies and we should give them their rights. And she selected her career to doctor, in our society daughters, and sister wiling go in institution or department we should give her much more importance what ever she likes she has been given rights to do in her life. In this way she can or any body can lead good,

	beautiful honest and very finalistic life. That is thing in this unit.
Teacher	(Nominates students to read the unit) read out_____read one paragraph.
Student	(reads from book)
	Now a days, with women playing an ever increasing role in all kinds of careers and professions, it is difficult to understand that there was a time when no medical school would accept a woman. They all said that only a man could be a doctor. An American, Elizebethan Block well was determined to become the first woman doctors in the world. After a great deal great surprise, a letter from the dean of Geneva college informing her that she has been accepted.
Teacher	That in this paragraph there is much thing is that the woman have been give permission now a days they can slected any type of profession or career whatever she likes other thing is that one of the there woman is Elizabethan Black well, she determined to become the first woman doctor in the world. So, through this paragraph we come to know that it was the lady who had donate to do something in her life and she finally got or succeeded that degree of being a doctor. (Teacher nominates another students and winds it up for tomorrow class)

Lesson 2

Teacher	Ok whenever you are converting any active sentence into passive that is in interrogative from how will you convert. Where is the bread? Now this is an interrogative, there is question mark. Has Jack ever been even warned
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	by any one else this is also converted into the interrogative right! And you have to put question mark in the end now the future and model. Verbs in the passive. How to make passive sentences whenever you are using model verbs or those sentence are in future form we use be + passive particpl after will and then we going to these are model our verbs can must have to and should these words you have learnt in previous unit so The gate will be closed this evening. "The gate will" Now will is indicating what?
SS	(Collective response) - present perfect
T	Exactly! This is present perfect and again you have to follow the same pattern and that is. The machine has to be repaired The news might be announced soon Might is what! What is might? ! (teacher asks students)
SS	Modal Verb (collective response)
T	Exactly! This is modal verb and then you have to follow the same pattern. The news might be announced soon Seats may not be reserved. This is negative form but what is that "May" May word is what?! (Teacher asks students).
SS	(Collective response) model verb
T	Modal (repeats the answer given by SS) ok! Seat may not be reserved How can problem be solved? Now this is interrogative and there is question mark and word "Can" has been used over here. What this is? ! (Teacher asks

	Students)
S	Modal Verb (Collectively)
	<p>Modal verb so you have to follow some when ever you are converting any sentence in negative or interrogative if that is in future or you have used already modal verb just you have to put be or to be verbs and then passive.</p> <p>The break will be..... this is again are going to make the break that break is going to be back. Same pattern has been followed here passive voice or how to use to modal verbs into passive voice or how to covert any active sentence which is getting modal verb passive voice. We should break the back soon we have to use only beard then passive participle and then to be verb or be the passive with get extend that will be different but meaning will be same. We sometimes use get in passive instead of be now this get word has got same place whenever we are using we can use get also meaning will be same. The pattern or the formula will be changed.</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Lot of postmen are bitten by dogs But you can say that</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Lots of postmen be or another word at the place of it you can use another word as you were using in previous sentences or previous structures how what should be here!? As it.</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Lots of postmen get bitten by dogs in bitten or are bitten.</p>
SS	Collective response → are bitten.
T	Ok I am always getting shown for the word job again same get hs been used at the place of to be word. Last week lara

	got moved here what will be here.
SS	Collective response
T	H last week lara..... (dash) to another department now got moved have been used here. Right so what you will use if you are not using got word.
SS	Collective Response
T	Had, had is it rihgt_ had to why BABA had to _ last week lara got moved to, last week week (stresses) this is about last week if means future past present what.
SS	(response) furture part.
T	Ok get is informed we often use it for something by happening accidently or unaccidetnly when you are not expecting any thing accidently it happen you can use this thing. When this is informed, infomred mean freely you are using formed means when you are very much consciou about any thing.....ok so you can use this get word at the behalf of to be verb in negative and question in present simple and pats simple we use a firm of Do now this is "Dummy Operator" do when ever you are using this word in present simple tense. Whenever you are converting any sentence in to negative and then interrogatives. So the, "Windows you are converting any active sentence or passive sentence in to negative you will use "don't" word with get, we are not talking about get. The windows don't get cleaned very often same pattern will you follow but just don't will here if you are using get at behalf or, (again respect) at the behalf of to be verb. How did the painting damaged? Again this is interrogative same pattern has been followed here but this is in

	<p>part so “did word” has been used here ok so we also use get in these expression. There are also other expression you can use get over here this is get great, get changed get washed get engaged, get married, get married get divorced get started these are expression with then you can use get ok but to some extent there meaning will be changed. As you have been given here” get washed” means this is just start if it is get last. It means lose ones way he is not on his way clear (ask students) Emma and Metthew might get merry</p> <p>Same expression has been used in sentences that Emma and Matthew might get married again without a map we soon get lost. Without a map we can choose our way this (ok) gone toward these exercise do it look at the picture (Teacher directs ss to look into subjects. The car, dinner, a flat, some houses, the given the verb has been given, even pictures have been given so you have to follow these pictures you have to look these picture carefully, then follow them then write sentences. What these people are doing. According to these sentences must be in passive voice. So, you have to follow the same pattern as you have learnt now; first one is the example for you people. Teacher (warns students to be silence) please keep quit indicating something what is the car is being repaired. This is continuous form that is why being is used over here now the first one pictures which you have to find out what that is?</p>
SS	(Talk Collectively)
T	What these people are doing?
SS	(collective response from the students) Dinner is being

T	dinner is ok dinner is being served (right) Teacher (encourages Say more).
T	Number 2...
	What does person is doing?
SS	(Collective response)
T	All something else is there?
SS	(Collective response) Some houses are being
T	
SS	(again collective response)
T	Ok’ That’s right come to the next exercise now passive verb tenses.
	Complete information about.....
	Put the correct form of these words. Now you have convert correctly you have been given these verb and you have indicating with how to convert correctly you have indicating with how to convert through part simple present simple. So you have to convert their form according to these tenses right! The first one is built and you have to convert it according to this (as) what that is part simple? How? How you will convert it.
SS	(collective response)
T	Part simple so
SS	(collective response)
T	Out built no! was built- was built or something else (confirm)
SS	(collective) response
T	Has been!? No BABA (teacher negotiates with SS)
SS	(collective response)_ house built?
T	There must not be any to be very- ho! You are converting active sentence into passive mean you are now taking about active voice so you have to follow that pattern. You have to put there.
SS	(talk collectively)
T	Exactly (after listening ss) to be verb and if it is past simple what should be here.
SS	Collective response

T	Exactly. If it is singular then was, if it is plural then were 50, here this is built and houses. What should here? (teacher asks SS)
SS	(Talk)
T	Were being (repeats) were being ok the next one is use and there must be past continuous form how to make them? (Teacher asks students).
SS	(Participate in the class raising their voice to answer)
T	Past continuous
SS	(Response)
T	Exactly was being used ok! Third one is own and it must be in present simple form.
SS	(Talk and say the answer)
T	This is Baba present simple (teacher suggests)
SS	(noise in the class)
T	Present simple!
SS	(Talk Collectively)
T	Present simple
SS	Answer collectively
T	The word is own ok you have to put in blank but you have to follow the pattern of passive form.
SS	(noise)
T	It must be present simple. Jee!
SS	(shared answer)
T	Present simple! is own. Exactly by and now you have to convert past simple you have to put this word in the blee- i- blank where you have to follow the pattern of past simple form whenever you are converting any,
SS	(Response collectively)
T	Past simple was bought or were bought if there is subject in singular form you have to put was bought and if it is plural then! Were bought ok! And the last one is do.
SS	(Collective response)
T	This is "had been done"
SS	(Talk Collectively)
T	The next one is future is modal

	verb in the passive as you have learnt in the unit future and modal verb and how to make their form and the trip convened is being held put in the correct form of the verb reporter! Can this new belong human life?
	It is question yes he believes that human life can be belonged by the drug. Are you going any move test on the drug? Yes further test..... (dash) soon now this is about future.
SS	Talk
T	Will be (Repeat) will be ok back soon or going to be back soon going to be means future immediate future! Going to is indicating immediate future so, this is about soon this means immediate future. (Lexis) what ___ (dash) this drug dash and this is interrogative here is question mark in the end and it is started with what it means this is question! But this is not necessary each and every sentence which is started with what there must be interrogative and question mark indicating interrogative so, how to convert this thing how you form this sentence.
S	Collective answer
T	What will the drug be called? (again repeats the same sentence). What will drug be called?
SS	(Noise)
T	It will be called bio mec Can people buy the drug now?
	This is question and answer you have been given in negation and that is what no it dash (-) by the public yet so, what will be here? (ask ss)
S	Say the collective answer)
T	No! exactly, it can not be bought by the public yet do you think the company should sell this drug? There question mark and

	in answer yes. I think biomec dash (-) to any one who wanted what should be here (ask SS).
S	Response
T	No BABA See the question in which should (silence) so you have to use again this word.
S	(right response from ss)
T	Exactly this is yes I think biomec should be fault to every one who wants it ok) and now this next form that with get word the passive wit get could n't get or got and passive participle of these verb you have to convert the fast form in to the 3rd form or passive participle and then you have to follow the same pattern as you have learnt in this unit if we are going out to the theatre I better get charged. Daniel (dash) when he tried to back to fight_____what will be here? (Class time is over so another teacher comes in)

CLASS-III

Lesson 3

T	I think you must have gone through the exercise that I said you yesterday and that one is "C" exercise and that is dialogue practice. We have done so many exercise (dialogues) one the (pause) also and this is a bit new style of dialogue practice. He says the companioning and apologizing how to complain to the neighbour how to complain against anybody and also will make you able that how to apologize when anybody complains against you. See he said that (teacher reads from the book in his hand). Mehar has been disturbed late at night once again. She has gone to her neighbour Mrs. Abid to complain (Ok says
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	teacher) Mrs. Abid and Mehar are neighbour. They are living neighbourly and he said that Mrs. Mehar has been disturbed and disturbed now complain who will complain (asks students). Mehar will complain. These are the two women living neighbour (Teacher again reads from the book) work in pairs to complete the dialogue below and then practice it. (pause) Now I must say who is prepared (addresses to SS) yes one Asma (Teacher nominates students to response) You___yes Asma reads the dialogue - Teacher instructs to Asma read from the book) and anybody else (Silence in the class) (Again Teacher nominates another girl) You Yes. Asma reads the dialogue. (Two selected girls came before the class). Students read the passage from the book with the original names.
Mehar 1	Mrs. Abid, I've come to complain about the noise
Mrs. Abid 2	Noise, what noise?
Mehar 1	Silence
2	My dog barking? I don't hear my dog barking
1	(Silence - again)
2	Then why didn't you complain last nigh
1	I'm complaining now. And I'm also....
2	My radio? You find that too loud?
1	(Silence)
2	Then I am sorry, but I am a little deaf you know.
1	I am sorry to hear that but I've also been disturbed by you....
2	My carrot? How can a carrot make a noise? It's a regetable.....
1	Silence
2	Oh, you mean polly, my parrot. What's polly done? Her manners are usually perfect.

1	(Silence)
2	But don't you like being woken up early in the morning.
1	(Silence)
2	Then I'll tell polly not to make a noise after seven. And I'll ask her to come and apologize (Teacher, here, pronounces word - apologize - suggesting right pronunciation of word) right now-polly.
1	Ok - again silence
2	Ok very well then good night, and please accept my apologize for the trouble have caused.
1.	Ok! (ends) (Praises the performance and encourages students) Good - very good! S this was the dialogue practice and how to apologize and how to complain against (Says clear!) now we turning another exercise I think you are clear about how to complain? Again the body - there are polite forms you applied while complaining against these are the very polite manners now we are Again here is dialogue that will turn another exercise (Teacher reads from the book) (again says clear!) Two of the students this is again the exercise of reading and dialogue two of the students should come forward (Teacher invites SS to come forward and share something written in the book) and yes I can (Momal-Teacher nominates the students) b/c this is the exercise of women she says that two friends - Rabia and Uzma are talking. Uzma says Rabia about what she did on the Friday work in pairs to read their conversation. This is a we can dialogue - practice you have to only read dialogues that a what about she did on Friday. Yes momal (Teacher asks students) and Asma you should go forward, and performance these dialogues read.

	These dialogues one of you should be the Uzma and one of you should be Rabia yes come forward on that (pause) dice yes: (Teacher instructs / asks nominated ss to come forward and performance) - Noise of the class - noise of pushing and putting chairs) So, who is going to be Uzma and Rabia, first dialogue is spoken by Rabia - Who is going to be Rabia?
S	Sir you must not think much to me lengthy (laughs)
T	One of you - suppose you are wrong you may ask him.
S1	(showing clear vocal cards use) (reads from the book) Did you go anywhere on Friday
S2	Yes, we went to the 2001 (S2 also reads from the book) I went to with my father and Hasan on Friday morning. We walked around, had our lunch and then walked around again. We didn't get back home until almost dinner time.
S1	You had your lunch at the Zoo? I didn't (don't) know they had a restaurant there.
S2	They didn't. But how they have. It opened the last month apparently. They only serve fast food but its not bad and the price is reasonable (Teachers talks) only you are supposed to read then you must ask question) It was very crowd but I suppose you've got to expect that. After al, it was Friday.
S1	Did you see anything interesting?
S2	Yes, as a matter of fact, we did. A boy fell into the gorilla's endoursures. I don't know how he did it, but we heard his mother's skimming and van to see what was happening. When we gat there he was lying on the ground and the gorilla was standing over him. And you know what the gorrillia was doing? He was strucking (Teacher talks to say stroking the boy gently) and to comfort him. We were all amused (teachers talk amazed) we had

	always imagined ime Ime Mega (teacher talks imagined) imagined gorillia to be fierce but this one, atleast seemed quite gentle. (Teacher - T - gently?)		composition and I already told you that skills (pause) about the composition. He say said that he give if see the situation means the writer of this book sees the situation that is you have to create a passage. He says that new college is opened in you city to which you have transferred that new college students and said this is the first day now see these are portion lines. Directed speech by the principal says. This is a new college and I want you to write a set of rules and regulation for senior students and if they are sensible we will use them. We will use them I'd also like you opinion on whether people left me know what the punishment should be These are the original words by (ok) discuss. Clear and list ten rules _ and which to write the rules- he says in on sentence write the group opinion about punishment and if you group is in favour of if the suggested punished (ok) he says.
T	So they made some of the pronunciation mistakes and you must have observed that these dialogues are from the report, the article you voted (pause). The giant we can say worked gorilla. This was your article and all about article but article what was there. There was narration each and every thing was reported and report is in the there from - that is narration but you have also hear in this dialogue. There is no narration but it was direct speech and all the dialogues are in the direct speech and only two or three mistakes of the mispronunciation and		Ok! He says you must write principles says you must write ten-rules-work in pairs group of four write and suggest to rule but your first sentence you should be punishment whether it should be given or not clear your first sentence should be for the punishment. If your group is in favour of it. List the suggested punishment if your group favour the class- there should be punishment for the students if they break the rules then you must suggest the punishment. What kind of punishment you suggest (ok) your rules may be how to means start to your rules with the words of "Do" and "Don't" suppose do this one for the stress and emphasis the subject suppose maintain do come at the after a while you be punished or fined like this you must write the rules (sorry-
S2	Sir, it was lengthy so sir... length		
T	Too... lengthy so suffer from		
S2	Yes Sir_		
T	Ok! Now sit down now when you go on the dialogue session. Now you have gone through speak what the narration the Third form how to teach to in third and also you have gone through the dialogue practice. After doing such a thing I was preferred practice to come on the composition. We are reading and we can say learn teaching each and every thing to make you able to write good paragraph or good essay or good to be for a composition. This is our purpose of target. There are the dialogue_ practice these articles will especially make you to write and speak exactly or in a correct manner. Is it clear? (Teacher asks SS) Now we are coming to the composition and you know that our less constantly. This article is going to be completed and you have game through each and everything. This is exercise of		

	<p>Teacher realizes his mistake) rules- So student may apply these words as may suppose you may student have leave or the short leave student must be in uniform. (Clear!)</p> <p>This is a rule and should. Suppose students must be in college before 2 o'clock. Like this one or those students who are may or must....</p> <p>These are rules you apply or you- these are the words you apply or you - these are regulation- The rules and regulation you emphasis something to be your emphasis something not to be done (Clear!) (pause) now atleast you b/c we have very less time we can't make a group of four but one by one create the one sentence for the rules. This is good exercise and you one by one create one really this unity work may should shall word and make the rules for the college be just college is new. Now you want to make the rules. One sentence start supposes. We are using the word must, should ok! Now who tells me first yes... (Teacher asks students to make sentences)</p>
S	We must.....
T	Yes
S	---
T	Yes please good
S	We must maintain discipline in the class
T	Student must....ok
	<p>As you have usage is right you have used the must correctly must. Clear!</p> <p>But the thing in this you have to suppose students are not 70% then so the rules are such kinds of rules are applied individuallyyes....second rule.</p>
S2	Every student must maintain the discipline.
T	(repeats) every student must maintain discipline
S2	(collective answer)
T	(praises and encourages students) saying__ good yes.. good.

S2	(collective answer)
T	Yes good.
S2	(collective answers)
T	Yes good
S	(collective answer)
T	Good!
S
T	Good very good
S	Pays something more.
T	__right.
S	(Collective answer)
T	Good
S	(again collective answer)
T	Good
S	Says the same
T	And the last one
S	(With noise of chairs) no body does not know.
T	<p>Good_ right yes any body who wants to share atleast one sentence_ yes Momal (asks one of the student of the class)</p> <p>One sentence atleast you must each and every body atleast one sentence must slave using the words must should.</p>
S	(Says something in very lowest voice)
T	(Listen very carefully to the student) students must be regular Yes any body the (Teacher invites students to say more if you want)
S	Student may not go.
T	Yes students may not (repeat the students sentence)
	<p>May not is the polite when you strict rule you must you use should... students should not come. yes! Any body else. So this is what this is we can say..... exercises of composition. How you compose and how you write the rules and regulation suppose wherever you are offered having these degrees of even wherever suppose you are in the class and you are the CR of class how you compare and compose you rules and regulation you compose your rules and regulation. Write rules and regulation (like this one isn't clear!</p>
	Now here is again writing

	<p>instruction. This is an exercise B- he says Riaz in about to go off on his holidays for a month, (ok) Riaz is about to go off on his holiday for a month Riaz is leaving the city, yes Riaz also living in city low for however, he has arranged for Billy, so Billy has pen-friend from over seas, you know that Billy is pen friend pen friend means (Teacher ask student the meaning of pen friend)</p>		<p>what how to make (pause) rules and regulation. How to write these exercise you will be (pause) that how we make these set of instruction now he says Tell Billy. (Teacher suggests to students to read by your own in the class). Read these two or three minutes and there I will look these exercise sorry these are the set of the instruction read these two/three minutes individually.</p>
S	(Silence) no purpose	SS	(read by their own silence 5 observed for mentioned minutes)
T	<p>When before receiving any body (pause) suppose on net or before on net before seeing any body you make these friends on only letter-writing. Means (T himself explains) you haven't seen that friend that you letter you are friend. Yes we arranged a letter from overseas to speared his holidays in the flat while he is way. (clear!) So suppose Riaz lives in Hyderabad he is also have holidays and he leaving for Lahore. And his place, we can say it is free no one lives there and Billy has come from abroad. He is coming from another country. He is also his pen- friend but he is leaving his place and stands together by living he is away. He leaves then his friend comes from overseas the flat will without nay body. So leaves the set of instruction yes he decides to write to Billy to tell what to do set of instruction that in my utterance, how you can come on the flat and what the things are the flat use (dash) and (dash) things clear!</p>	T	You must be clear that this must be a letter the form of a letter mean it will be the letter you have to write a letter to your friend but it must consist of what the instruction___yes.
	There are the set of instruction b/c Billy is new in the city ok! (Teacher emphasis his own point) while his friend remain out side even city. He met the two votes. There are notes you have to make the vote sin form of instruction. Actually how in the, we can say, previous exercise you did learn	SS	(Read by their own silence observed_ again)
		T	<p>Goes to the students' seat and walks to the students asking what have been understand) (now any body) yes (Pause) now any body yes we are coming (Pause) must go for the hint. What are the hints_ he says begin you letter by remanding Billy about your holiday that standing you are going to leave him some instruction to head when stay at your place mine comfortable atleast (Clear!) So your first paragraph should be start with your letter by reminding Billy about your holiday_ and telling him you are going to leave him some instruction so your first paragraph will consist of remanding Billy that your are going to holiday and also you must pay that there contain instruction which are left for him in letter so, your first paragraph we can say first paragraph should be introduction and introduction you tell your friend these are the instruction that your must apply or (pause) your must follow these instruction.</p>

While living in the flat clear!
 Second start a new paragraph
 mean suppose
 I told you the one paragraph on
 idea. Each and every thing is we
 can say learnt by us and one
 paragraph and one idea one idea,
 might to tell him that letter or
 what the letter 5 about clear!)
 This was the single idea and or
 single idea you keep one
 paragraph in your letter. And to
 start using the notes above notes
 are there in there in the box and
 he says divide these into two or
 three paragraphs atleast you must
 create the two paragraphs for
 these notes. And your instruction
 must be in the form of paragraph.
 (clear!)
 Two or three paragraphs making
 your division at suitable place.
 Then at End your letter with a
 suitable concluding paragraph of
 one or two sentence. How to
 conclude the passage. We have
 already read these passage and
 written some of the passages of
 the composition now what are
 rules (sorry) instruction details the
 first how to get to get to the place
 b/c this leaves the now inter city
 how will he arrive at. What kind
 of bus what number of bus and
 what are streets there (pause) we
 should lead, we should read
 (pause) apply in get_ the street
 and where to get the keys from
 living suppose you have created a
 place where you are giving the
 keep for him b/c you will not be
 there and at your place and have
 to leave the keys for him suppose
 you keep your key outside throw
 to storekeeper like this one_ your
 have to create the situation.
 (Reads form the look) what the
 key are for invent Thee are three
 keys, one big and two small so,
 one big means for outside do and
 tow small means for inside door.
 (clear!) Now yes (pause) I think
 we have very tens time this is

your for home work create the
 passage and with paragraph so we
 can check it out. In this way we
 have completed this article this a
 last we can say exercise you have
 to write passage. In three or four
 paragraphs it must consist of a
 three or four paragraph. Clear!
 Any question you must ask before
 the leaving of this class ____
 (Teacher invites students to ask)
 yes if you feel any question then
 you must ask and while this
 (Legal) assignment I will check it
 out clear! So this is__
 (And in the last teacher directs
 students to sit for five minutes to
 answer the question of
 researcher).
 (Class - ends)

Lesson 4

T	(reads from the book) Before you read the article on Page 37, and even before you survey it, give you opinion on the statements in number 1 and 2 below, by putting a tick beside any of the words or phrases give with which you agree. Have we done it or not? (asks students)
S	(Collective response Yes Sir)
T	We have done it (Confirms)
S	Yes Sir
T	and Survey
S	(Collective response) no Sir
T	No! Ok now see that here there are two options and you are given five option alone tick and tick one you have to do one which is the most suitable for this, so gorillias are Ugly or beautiful Fierce or gentle Meat-eaters or vegetable caters.
S	Vegetable Caters
	d) Covered (toward) or brave
SS	Talk collectively - ask question.
T	Just a mint - (giving no answer to CC) From Africa, from Asia Many in number or an endangered species. So which one is the most suitable option for this. According to

	your own judgment just raise your hands. Raise your hands (repeats) for felling you which one is the best option.
S	(Collective answer)
T	You have to tell one only
S	Sir in one there are two option ugly and beautiful incident.
T	Translate 1 a, b, c, d and e and then justify, if they are ugly and beautiful how they are ugly and beautiful as in b if they are fierce and gentle how they fierce and gentle? You have to justify it but you have to explain one only.
S	(Silence - busy in reading)
T	Yes which one is related
S	Collective response
T	Ugly and beautiful (emphasizes) how they are ugly and beautiful.
S	Sir it is all in one paragraph
T	No, you have to explain only a or b or c
S	Collective response
T	Thek h baba explain just a or b or c and justify whether it is of the both of them ugly and beautiful if you take ugly and beautiful you have to justify it
S	Collective response
T	You don't understand Yes
S	From Africa, from Asia
T	From Africa, from Asia (repeats) So let them bring a right answer b/c they are from Africa.
S	Collective answer
T	Breed is a preventable how? (Teacher confirms the students)
S	Collective response
T	Have you observed them eating meal
S	Yes Sir-does not listen - gets back to say again)
T	Have you observed them eating meal or teacher emphasizes here
S	Yes Sir?
T	No according to your own observation - personal observation had you seen them somewhere
S	Collective response)
T	According to your few observation.
S	(Talks in negation)
T	No, Ok Sit down
S	Student avgues in a favour of gorillias

T	But you have to prove that they are ugly they are beautiful
S	Collective answer
T	So they are
S	Response
T	Ok This can be but they don't harm to from the action ha! From these we can find activities.
S	Collective response
T	Ok! That's good - good justification any one else - sitdown (teacher directs students to say and sitdown) Any one else (again asks) brave and coward how they are brave how they are coward?
SS	Talk and become silence.
T	Ok Let.... Leave it for time being until we read the article on Pg No. 37 - everything to be there everything will be clear to you & you will be clear for them that one write for it for time being I have got your opinion. Now teacher touches another exercise and reads from the book saying - second is wild animals should be Killed Kept in 2005 or circuses Given land to live on Protected What is the right answer? (Teacher asks students)
SS	Come up with various answers.
T	Why they need to be protected - what kind of danger they have.
S	Response (Justifies the answer)
T	That is ok - just sit down - anyone else?
SS	(Talk) Sir "b"
T	No- given land to live on
S	(Justifies with arguments)
T	Ok but it can we say protected on the land they are protected it means they are given land to live on so which one carries the most suitable link?
S	Responses
T	Once they are protected they are given some sort of logically shelter some kind of shatter, some kind of facilities. So they are protected, certainly they are given land give on.
S	(Argues) that if land is given how they have protected
T	h (pause) what about protected how

	they are protected/ (asks the students)
S	Response with argument
T	Don't you think that is better than give then natural shelter rather than artificial one it is better. Better that is better. Ok! Group read a passage again everything should be clear, once we read a passage everything would be clear these are few but once you read it you complete the passage you complete the article on page No. 37. So that ideas become clear! Now (Teacher reads from the book) Now survey the newspaper article on page No. 37 in the usual way by looking at the lead lines, pictures, captions, headings and opening and closing paragraphs. Then try to complete the statement below. You may have to guess some of the answers but you can check these after you read the article. So, now you survey the article I give you two mints_____activity. After two mints:
S	Gorillias - gorillias (repeated answers of the SS)
T	Ok - here gentle giants is for gorillia Jambo, the gorillia probably showed compassion (pity) towards (dash) _____
S	The young boy. The young body
T	The young boy - the child. The child is near or close - good. The monster are probably the (dash) - _____
S	Goat
T	Goat! Ok anyone else- any one else who can tell me about the monsters - what does monster effect (pause) Did you heard about a monster.
S	Creature
T	Ok he is creature. The kind of horrible (creature yes anyone else - Ok! Lets say read the passage detailed you will come to know in clearer what monster affect? Ok- (teacher reads again from the book). - They are probably misunderstood by dash (_____) clear.
S	Human being, people
T	(Repeats the answers of students) - Human being, people very good.

	Though they probably misunderstood gorilla. Gorilla are misunderstood by??? (leaves incomplete and reads another line from book) - David Attenborough is probably - he is the writer of the article so, creates. a) a naturalist b) a hunter
S	Collective answer - a naturalist
T	A naturalist - (Confirms) what is naturalist?
S	Response - A man who care nature.
T	Ok - good - anyone else
S	Response Collective
T	Some proper further explanation about it
S	Collective response
T	Ok - good - good yes. What about to take care - naturalist they occupy to protect the nature their aim is to protect that real original aspects of nature which are being destroyed nowadays by creatures. (Teacher again reads from the book) - most probably expected sorry (reads wrong) - Most people probably expected the young boy who fell into the gorillas enclosure paragraph-I to be (dash) _____
S	To be killed
T	To be - to be - to be killed - Ok - very good to be killed by gorillas.
T	(again reads from the book) - US in the last paragraph probably refers to dash.
S	Human being - collective answer
T	Human being - ok Most probably is human being (again reads from the book) - 10 - complete the following statements which are about the headings: 50 you have to compete them. (reads from the book) The shirt was puzzling strange to the gorilla because _____ why shirt was puzzling to the gorilla?
S	Gorillias saw the likeness of his off spring.
T	Ok - good - so gorillias don't wear shirt it was strange that he did not see before it.

S	Because he saw strange
T	Yes
S	Talks - argues
T	Why
S	Sir, it was new thing.
T	Ok, it was a new thing - it was colourful something new and strange. Therefore it puzzled and distinguished gorillas - that what related.
T	(again reads from the book) The tribute admiration or I to the skill dash (_____)
S	Silence → (answer - collective)
T	When you read a article you will come to know this speaks about article - you will come to know what tribute to whom is given so can you get clear.
S	-
T	Very good to the stop or members of two used to justify used the tribute new just see tribute b/c people they are showing a lot of things to put why animals and creatures. (Pause) (Teacher again reads from the book) c the gorilla family is looked after and protected by dash (_____)
S	Response
T	A male - Good A male gorilla. The gorilla could think that the dash (_____) were a possible source of danger - (reads from book) Yes Human being.
S	Response
T	Yes human being or anyother name.
S	Response (A student from the back)
T	The hunter - the hunter - we can hunter. The hunter - or the naturalistic - or humanbeing (The teacher reads from the book again) The shaggier relative shaggy means covered in hair refers to dash (_).
S	Mountain gorilla.
T	Yes _____ mountain gorilla - b/c in this article the two types of gorillias are mentioned the first is Jambo and other is the mountain gorilla - which are shaggier than the Jambo - shaggier means which has a lot of hairy more hairy than Jambo Ok - very good - now

	(Teacher comes on reading activity). Now can you read this passage anyone who can read this passage. Yes (Pause)
S	(reads from the book) Those remarkable pictures of Jambo the gorillia tenderly stroking and then standing guard over unconscious six-years old levan merritt moved everyone who saw them - and surprised most people, too the gorilla's reputation as a killer is one that dies hard. But was his loving behaviour really os unusual and if gorillas do sometimes react to human like the monsters of popular myth, is that their fault - or ours shirt puzzle - Take Jambo, the boss made of the gorillias in a zoo in Jersy. When he was attracted to the side of his enclosure by shouts of the public and saw a little boy lying unconscious on the ground. I believe he was immediately a likeness to his own offspring. The shape and size of were much the same. He discovered that the child had something on its back - a shirt. To Jambo that was certainly different and puzzling. He gently touched the Childs skin with his finger and put it to his nose and discovered that the small of child was also strange. But neither of these things alarmed him. When the boy came round and began to cry. Jambo did more than to move away taking his family with him.
T	Anyone else (Teacher nominates another student to read)
S	Tribute to skill - forty years ago, a boy falling into a gorilla cage would not, I believe, have been treated in the way
T	Ok (Sunday asks question from the exercise session. What is ape?
S	(Tells in first language - native language)
T	No, tell me in English Ok - languor - but it is a kind of monkey. Are these gurillias and ape are the kind of monkey.

He read the newspaper and article on the page no. 37 try to make the set of notes - under the following heading. These are heading that we can develop. I told you that how to develop from ideas when I telling you about paragraph writing. So, you have to develop. So the first is
The true nature of gorilla. The second is
Future fate of gorilla - 3rd is
Reasons for gorillas bad reputation and fourth is
Common attitudes towards gorillas
Bari's notes are given below but they are incomplete.
Complete them with information from the newspaper article and put the headings listed above at the top of the appropriate section (reads from the book)
So kids of sketches are given and some kinds of hints are given to you in the form of notes.
But you have to complete them and you have to put atleast appropriate world. These are one two

three or four - OK. So, this is kind which you do at home. When you read article carefully and complete these notes when taking the heading and placing them. Placing the heading on proper place.
(In the end - as above paragraph suggests that the teacher has given homework to the students).
Class ends.

ANIMAL COMMUNICATION AND THE ORIGIN OF HUMAN LANGUAGE

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Abstract

Humans have developed an ability to communicate through language, be it oral or written. These unique abilities of communicating through language clearly separate humans from all animals. The question that arises regarding this issue is obvious arises, when did humans attain this distinctive trait? Realizing how crucial this ability is to humans, one would wonder why this ability has not evolved in other animals. Neurolinguistic studies have pointed out that human language is highly dependent on a neuronal network located in specific sites within the brain which other animals haven't or if any, very little. Where did human language come from? What kind of mutation occurred that changed the simple sound made by animals to our exact and clear words which formed the most complex means of communication on this planet? Paleontologists via studying fossils discovered that our ancestors dichotomized from aped around five million years ago. Language has remained as one of the most mysteries of the history of evolution. The following paper examines the origin of language through the scrutinizing different ways by which they communicate and the kind of language they use. The findings imply that not only humans but also many other animals were created with the ability to use communication.

Key words: Animal communication, origin of language, chemical communication, olfactory communication, visual communication, Acoustic communication

Introduction

Countless species of animals used to transmit to another for billions of years. Wide networks of messages had been designed in such a way that made it possible for animals have access to foods, find mates, and defend themselves against their predators. According to Marler (1998) "There is a strange diversity of ways in which animals can communicate" (p. 32). The ability to communicate has mostly been the main factor for the survival of a species on the earth.

The Survival of the Most Dominants theory deals with the hypothesis that in animals' territories, each animal is left for its own. Animals depend on countless number of communicative ways including chemical, auditory, visual and behavioral to ensure their survival in the environment. How effective animals communicate may end up in the difference between death and life for them.

In an experimental study by Griffin (2001) a snake was given an option to select and eat one of the two frogs offered to it. Which one will the snake eat? The message sent from the poisonous frog is crystal clear. The bright and colorful skin of the first frog implies that it is a poisonous food. However, the other frog doesn't communicate anything which means that it is going to be a good food for the snake. Finding food, breeding, and living among social groups depend on having the ability to communicate for most animals. Our today's world, according to Bradbury and Vehrencamp (1998), is all dependent to on the information flow. However, it is not

only human beings who owe their majesty in the world for their power of communication; whereas, communication has been the means to the development of creatures that lived on the earth more than 150 million years ago, i.e. ants.

Chemical Communication

Olvido and Wagner believe that “there are a lot of ants in the world that if we took all land animals on the scale together and weigh it, 20 percent of what we just weigh would be the pig pile of ants sitting on the scale” (p. 466). But what can explain how these tiny, weak creatures turned into such evolved gigantic ones? What continues to fascinate researchers about ants is how such limited apparently inept individuals congregate and can do such amazing things (Haven-Wiley, 1983). Few animals work as cooperatively and inexhaustibly as ants do. Their intertwine holes which are several meters deep and wide are quite tantamount to small towns. Their elite distinctive engineering is the outcome of their powerful and tidy organization. However, how do they maintain this organization and how do they communicate? At the first glance, an ant colony is similar to humans’ building site in which all workers have their own specific duties. Ants’ world is the manifestation of the characteristics and dexterities of ours. There are some patrollers who search for food, foragers that take the food to the holes and cleaners who clean up the hole of dead ants (Haven-Wiley, 1983) However, unlike a building site in which there is a foreman who gives oral, written or gestural commands, ants do not follow a series of commands. As a matter of fact, ants do not represent any trace demonstrating the ability to communicate. Then how do they know what they are supposed to do? An ant colony, as Dawkins and Krebs (1978) argue, operates without a central control, no management, no hierarchy; nobody decides what needs to be done.

Their source of interaction is a simple chemical, called hydrocarbon, which covers the whole ant’s body. According to Dawkins and Krebs (1978), a hydrocarbon is just a type of molecule that is made up of

carbons and hydrogen. They are commonly found on the surface of not only ants but on all kinds of insects, especially social insects. Hydrocarbons ascend a special kind of odor which most insects employ for very simple type of communication. Most ants cannot see. Their main form of perceiving the world around them is smell and the smell of their antenna. When an ant touches another ant with its antenna, it can tell if the other ant is a nest-mate or not. Botstein and Cherry (1997) decided to run a research to test the nest-mate reconditioning response using a glass block. When the glass which is covered by hydrocarbon of the opponent ant is put in the hole, the ants immediately attack and bite it. However, can ants use hydrocarbon to communicate complicated pieces of information such as those telling them how to do something? When Botstein and Cherry extracted hydrocarbons from different insects, they found out that each ant has its own odor. This discovery led them to run an experiment to find out whether they can communicate with ants or not. Is it possible to force ants to do something just by the use of hydrocarbon? Botstein and Cherry covered some glass beads with the hydrocarbon of patrollers so that to see whether these hydrocarbons can communicate any message or not? Each morning, they found, the patrollers come out and search the area and the foragers won’t come out until the patrollers come back. The patrollers need to come back at a certain rate to stimulate the foragers to go out. By using these beads they could mimic the rate at which patrollers come back. When the beads are put in the ant hole, the odor of hydrocarbon communicates as though the patrollers have returned the hole and it’s time for the foragers to go out and take the food to the hole. It is not as though one ant gives another ant a message. It is that each ant can use its recent experience of interactions to decide what to do. So the message is in the pattern of interactions, not in any particular signal. With this simple experiment, researchers found that the method which enables ants to communicate with each other with that amazing scrutiny is a bit more than just a series of information exchange through chemicals. What seems to be remarkable is

that ants interact with each other in a really pretty simple way, but because the ants can assess the rate at which they interact with other workers, global changes can happen within their society despite the fact that there is no boss telling each worker what to do Collado-Vides (1992).

This communicative method has helped ants to succeed and develop throughout these 150 million years. An ant colony would be unable to survive if individuals didn't communicate with each other. For ants, the ongoing very simple repeated patterns of interaction are what sustain the whole life of the colony (Franceschini, Pichon, & Blanes, 1992).

Ants benefit from communication in order to turn into the most successful creature on the earth. However, the question according to Diggle, Gardner, West, and Griffin (2007) is, how did the first process of communication begin? What species of creatures started interaction for the first time? Is the answer within the mysterious and amazing glow observed in the Pacific Ocean for hundreds of years?

Visual Communication

Throughout centuries, chemical, auditory and visual means of communication have been developed frequently and have made great contribution to the creatures on the earth to grow and adapt themselves to different types of environment (Diggle et al., 2007). However, how did this complex amazing process of communication begin? Perhaps the strange phenomenon that happened beneath the ocean may increase our knowledge on the basis of the origin of communication.

In a few years ago, as Hailman (1997) believes, the satellites turning around the earth detected some light near the east coast of Africa which occupied more than ten thousand square miles of the ocean. This phenomenon was called the Milky Sea. Several similar phenomena have been observed for centuries; however, no answer was available for them. Recently, it was clarified that the source of Milky Sea has been a special kind of bacteria emanating

light. But, how come billions of sea bacteria started emanating light from them all together. Molecule biologists have investigated the issue and reached interesting outcomes, i.e. even bacteria talk to each other. Bacteria do communicate. Maynard Smith and Harper (2005) believed that bacteria obviously don't have the words or sentences as we do but the words they use are chemicals. So they exchange chemicals as their language and it allows them to do different things. They further stated that "as bacteria grow and divide, they make small molecules which could be called hormones" (p. 309). When these molecules reach a particular amount, all the bacteria will recognize that these molecules were just there telling them how many neighbors they would have and they would all turn their light intrinsically Maynard Smith and Harper (2005).

Shining bacteria are just one out of million different types of bacteria that communicate to one another in this way. How do they do this job? Bacteria usually act as a legislation board, i.e. they should work in a group in order to attain important things. To fulfill this purpose, there should be an abundance of them to communicate messages from one molecule to another. In this phenomenon, the bacteria vote with these little chemical votes. They count the votes and then the entire group acts together (Diggle et al., 2007).

However, why does a unicellular bacterium need to communicate? They need communication because they need to be able to carry on tasks that are too hard for an individual. They needed exactly the same way human beings often need to get groups together to accomplish things that human beings just couldn't do by themselves because they are too hard. Some bacteria, as Caryl (2002) remarks, communicate in order to find each other to go hunting and find a prey. These bacteria emanate light near the east coast of Africa. One bacterium makes a little bit light which cannot be perceived but when they all glow together, they give perceivable light. Therefore, what kind of communication do

bacteria try to establish? The answer is incredible; however, unlike the fact that other animals communicate in order to prevent themselves from facing their predators, bacteria emanate light so that to attract fish's attention and to be eaten by them. In the case of bacteria, they actually live inside the stomach of other animals. Therefore, for them to be eaten by a fish is actually a favorable thing because they want to be in an intestinal environment. When bacteria get together in these colonies, they produce a glow and some fish will be attracted to that light and come along and eat them (Maynard Smith & Harper, 2005).

The product of the most primitive creatures on the earth, the Milky Seas, is the remainder of the earliest type of communication on this planet. Yet, researchers believe that talking bacteria are far beyond just being gleaming ones. For bacteria, according to Maynard Smith and Harper (2005), because they have chemical communication, it may be hypothesized that they invented the way that groups of organisms or cells work together to do things cooperatively. The mechanisms that the bacteria use to do this chemical communication are very analogous to the strategies used by the different cells in your body to make groups and to carry out tasks.

Life has become much more complicated from billions of years ago, just the time bacteria started communicating message, up to now. Likewise, the process of chemical interaction has all been manipulated and modified for one reason, i.e. survival. According to Greene and Meagher (1998), California ground squirrels secrete a special kind of odor to mark their territory; however, they inadvertently inform their predators, i.e. rattlesnakes, of the approximate hiding place.

Olfactory Communication

All snakes have an amazing sense of smell that they use to hunt their prey. As California ground squirrels move through their environment or their burrows, they inadvertently communicate with the

rattlesnakes leaving behind a clue that snakes use to locate them (Greene & Meagher, 1998). Researchers for long have studied the relationship between these two opponents. They found out that the odor left by a ground squirrel acts as a tracker for rattlesnakes. Therefore, how could ground squirrels survive while their main predator benefits from their system of communication against them?

Researchers discovered that ground squirrels showed strange behavior in chewing old skins of rattlesnakes. In this way, squirrels try to cover their own odor with the odor of their enemy which is kind of deceitful communication. Are these snakes deceived by these tricks? Johnstone (2004) had an idea that these rattlesnakes odor is an anti-predator application. But he wanted to directly ask the predators to see if they are affected by adding rattlesnake odor to ground squirrel odor.

Johnstone collected some rattlesnake skin and ground squirrel fur and made two samples. One with just the odor of ground squirrel and the other with the mixture of both rattlesnake and ground squirrel odor, just like what a real squirrel does to cover its own odor. Ground squirrels cannot completely cover their entire odor, so it is going to be a mixture of ground squirrel odor and rattle snake odor. Rattlesnakes can smell with their tongues in a way that they direct odor molecules to their mouth. Based on the high speed and frequency at which the rattlesnake moved its tongue, it was found that the snake smelled the odor of the ground squirrel. What Johnstone scored was the amount of time the snake would have his head over the filter-paper and also the number of tongue flakes that they did over the filter-paper.

However, the sample which was dipped with rattlesnake odor mitigated its attacking position. This could imply only one thing: The snake odor covers ground squirrel odor. The prey has deceived the predator by means of chemical interaction. This has made the snake suppose it was chasing another rattlesnake. By testing the rattlesnakes directly, Johnstone could see

that their hunting behavior was in fact affected by adding snake odor to the squirrel odor and therefore reduces the predation risk for the ground squirrels. Billions of years after the innovation of chemical communications, ground squirrels developed them. In this way, they can deceive their predators and ensure their survival. Communication is the basis of prey and predator interaction. Ground squirrels, by applying the rattlesnakes' odor to their body, manipulate this communication and gain a major over rattlesnakes (Johnstone, 2004).

Olfactory and chemical interaction for insects, mammals and other animals has provided them with the possibility of quick and straight message transition. However, some other ocean animals, as Klump and Shalter (1994) add, benefited from another means of establishing effective communication. Chemical communication may play a key role in sending commands and escaping from predators. However, such message transition would be lost throughout the alternative waves of big seas. Some animals developed a better and more effective way of transmitting their messages for long-distance communication, i.e. sound.

Acoustic Communication

Every year, the residents of the west coast of Florida encounter an inconceivable phenomenon. Sonorous and echoing sounds shake the walls of the houses nearby. The origin of this sound has remained a riddle for years until Burdin, Reznik, Skorniyakov, and Chupakov (1995) discovered the truth about it. They went on the water and put a microphone under water and used a speaker. What they experienced was entirely a different landscape. The sound emanated from a special kind of male fish which is one of the most sonorous fish in the sea. They further knew that such fish do not make those sounds groundlessly; rather, they do it to communicate with each other. They are all male fish advertising themselves to females that will ultimately choose. The sounds of these fish could be heard coming from 100 yards away (Burdin et al., 1995).

However, why has sound turned out to be such a powerful means of communication in the ocean? The provision of light is too difficult under the ocean; moreover, chemicals are scattered fast there. Nevertheless, water is the best conductor of sound waves. Sound signals travel much faster through condense water molecules which act as an electric circuit. Connor, Smolker, and Richards (1992) argue that sound for animals that live under water travels great distances and weakens very little over those distances. So it is no surprise to learn that many marine animals rely on sound as a communication channel. Scientists from long ago knew that fish can make any sound. However, it seems that their common ancestors, the fish that were evolved more than 500 million years ago, couldn't make such sounds (Kaznadzei & Krechi, 1996). Therefore, these fish, according to Kaznadzei and Krechi (1996), evolved special organs which allowed them to establish communication. As fish evolved, they evolved their air bladder inside their body and used it to maintain buoyancy. At first, the fish used such adaptation in order to float on the sea. But as time passed by, it was evolved and turned into a musical instrument with which these fish can make sonorous sounds. They evolved special muscles that contract extremely fast. The rate of their contracting is the fastest among all vertebrate animals in the world. They basically contract their muscles together and beat their bladder like a drum. This adaptation allows the male fish to attract the female one's attention (McCowan, 1995).

Although the sound of these fish is so sonorous, Payne and Payne (1995), it cannot compete with other sea animals that appeared around 50 million years ago, i.e. whales. Not only are whales the biggest sea animals, but also they are the most sonorous ones. Their sound which is even louder than that of a jet engine is echoed all throughout the ocean. How and why did whales use such a cacophonous way of communication? What did they try to communicate? Does it play any role in the survival of these gigantic animals? It is the

beginning of the 21st century. We have only just been listening to the ocean on a proper scale for less than a decade. So human beings are in the early stages of discovering what is actually going on with the communication system of whales (Chu & Harcourt, 1996).

Due to the fact that there are a few number of whales and that they are widely dispersed around the ocean, it is difficult to run a research on them. However, Rendell and Whitehead (2001) were able to decode their messages while they were communicating. In order to fulfill the goal, he had to find a solution to the problem of tracking and eavesdropping on them. They designed and developed some auto-detection buoys, so they could get information back rapidly over the satellite system. The buoys were situated in a way that they could receive all sounds of the whales around 300 miles away. Having collected the buoys, the recorded sounds were sent to the laboratory to carefully track the movements of the whales. For years, scientists believed that whales are kinds of animals that prefer to live individually; therefore, they hardly ever interact with other whales. However, the findings of the above mentioned study led Rendell and Whitehead (2001) to amazing discoveries. Their findings demonstrated that whales are in fact social beings which travel in distinctive groups in order to share their foods and have access to available mates. However, unlike social animals that live in groups close to each other, whales travel long distances in high seas. If you look at whales from a satellite, you see them moving as a cohesive body of individuals. It is an acoustic herd and the herd is spread over 100,000 miles (Rendell & Whitehead, 2001)

In order to establish communication in such long distances, Vogel (1998) argue that whales make loud sounds with low frequency. The sounds of whales, if the condition is appropriate, could travel all throughout the ocean. The sound of a whale is so low and it radiates through the ocean so effectively that travels as if it is a laser. These gigantic animals benefited from

this channel of communication to ensure their survival for millions of years. However, there are other gigantic things which make sounds of the same frequency, i.e. ships.

The question is, will the sounds made by human beings result in whales' extinction? Rendell and Whitehead (2001) states:

"To simulate the situation, if I were a whale, if I only have the chance to communicate with you one at a ten times, how do I tell you where the food is? How do I tell you that I am a qualified man? I evolved to communicate over this scale and now I am forced, not because of anything else other than the noise, to live in the world with bothering noises" (p. 128).

Human beings' nuisance for whales seems to be inevitable and just the lapse of time will demonstrate whether the world's biggest animal can evolve to the extent to overcome this challenge or not. Whales, as Moore and Ridgway (1995) state, use their sounds to conquer the oceans; however, land animals require some other special instruments to ensure their survival.

Wolves are one of the most successful and predators on the earth. They have lived in packs for millions of years to ensure their survival. However, since the time they started searching for foods individually in vaster areas of land, the only thing on which the pack can rely to keep its alliance is auditory communication (Di Paolo, 1997; Guilfordm & Dawkins, 1991). Wolves' howls are heard from even 6 miles away distances and inform the other members of the pack of their location. According to Di Paolo (1997) a pack of wolves is a team working to hunt. Wolves also howl in order to find each other. So, if an individual has left from the pack for some time and is trying to find the rest of them, that individual howls and when gets a response, it that way, it can find the pack. Wolves, in packs, turn around their den-site and howl to communicate to their neighboring packs telling them that they are there and how big they are.

The history of the howl of wolves and all other mammals goes back to 350 million years ago when primitive animals called quadrupeds came from the sea to the land for the first time. It turned out that sound travels a lot better in water than on land. So, when animals moved on the land they had to develop a whole new audio tool-kit and new ways for producing sound (Marino, 1996; Herman, 1994). Life on the land required new auditory equipment, something like an amplifier. What evolved in most animals was a sound box called larynx, i.e. a limb with especial membrane which is vibrated when air goes through it; thus, making sound. These sound boxes allowed land residents to communicate with each other through making sound waves in the air. The sound box was almost created in all land creatures including human beings. Wolves benefited from this equipment in order to be assisted to turn into superior predators. However, there was a species of animals that were inclined to evolve this sound box to such an extent to be superior to other animals, i.e. birds.

Every spring, male singing birds start singing songs all throughout the jungles to attract the female ones' attention. In order to accomplish this goal, according to Marchetti (1993), they are in need of a communicative method which enables them to reecho their sounds in the jungle. Marler (1987) believes that one of the benefits of using sound over using visual signals especially in a jungle area where visual signals quickly get blocked by trees or leaves or other things is that sound can travel throughout the area in a 3-dimensional way. The key to success in birds' communication is hidden in their complex and extraordinary developed sound boxes. Unlike wolves and human beings who possess only one larynx, singing birds benefit from two larynxes which are placed exactly above their lungs. This innovation, called bugle, enables skylarks and other birds to strum different musical notes simultaneously. This will assist them to have a kind of acoustic communication and spread their sounds all around the jungle to look for mates (Goller, 1998; Gentner, Fenn & Margoliash, 2005).

A more complex and developed system of communication has been evolved in chimpanzees, whales, and dolphins. However, recent studies have demonstrated that there is an animal which in terms of language ability have outstripped all other mammals excluding human beings, i.e. prairie dogs.

Klump and Shalter (2004) believe that the language property of prairie dogs is probably the most sophisticated animal language that has been described so far. They have been decoding the language of prairie dogs for 20 years now. They further believe that prairie dogs can describe the code color of a coyote; they can describe the size and shape of it, and even the speed of travel of the coyote. This tonal language system is a kind of like-Chinese and some Native American languages where changing the tone changes the meaning. The question is, are these animals able to communicate in such a complex way together? There are a number of gestures that prairie dogs are amazingly are of them. They live in big societies having numerous underground passages which sometimes extend to several miles. There are a lot of predators of which prairie dogs are afraid; therefore, they respond to each of which in a different way. Figure 1 represents a call for a hawk.

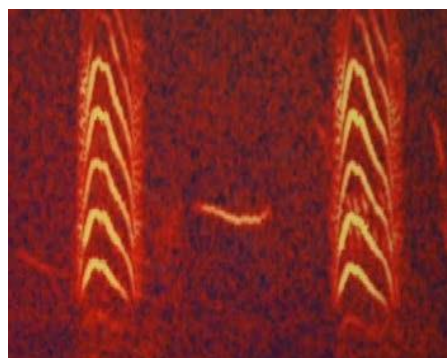


Figure 1. A prairie dog's call for a hawk

Whenever the danger alert of an approaching hawk is sounded, the prairie dogs stand straight and upright. Figure 2 represents a call for a coyote.

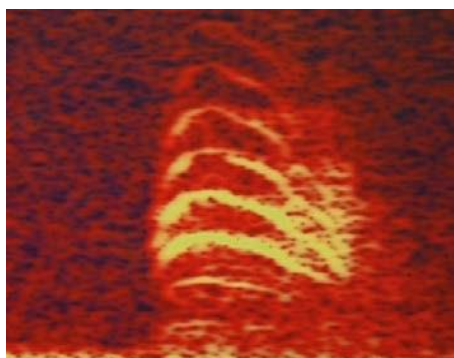


Figure 2. A prairie dog's call for a coyote

These calls are essential for their survival. If prairie dogs hear these calls mistakenly, they will certainly be hunted. The tone of these calls may seem similar; yet, like tuneful languages such as Chinese, minor changes in tone will contribute to big changes in the meaning of that sentence. Klump and Shalter (2004) and their team made a dictionary of prairie dogs' lexicons through simulating the attacks of their predators and recording their alert calls for several years. The sound waves of each call were then turned into audiograms in the laboratory. The call itself is a very complex acoustic form and what we see in the following figures is simply a pictorial representation. When the audiograms were investigated by some special software, the team extended the calls they were familiar with to prairie dogs' dictionary. Some of the calls are called adjective-like calls. In an experimental study, the researcher wore a blue jumpsuit and went walking in the prairie dogs' colony. The prairie dogs call and respond to her wearing a blue jumpsuit, then he changed the clothes into white jumpsuit and the prairie dogs called and responded to the white jumpsuit. The pattern of these calls had minor but significant differences to the eyes of an expert. Figure 3 represents the call for the blue jumpsuit. It is a typical human call but there is a railing edge which denotes the color blue. Figure 4, on the other hand, represents the call for the white jumpsuit which is again a typical human call but it has got a buzz on the upper and lower part.



Figure 3. A prairie dog's call for a blue jumpsuit

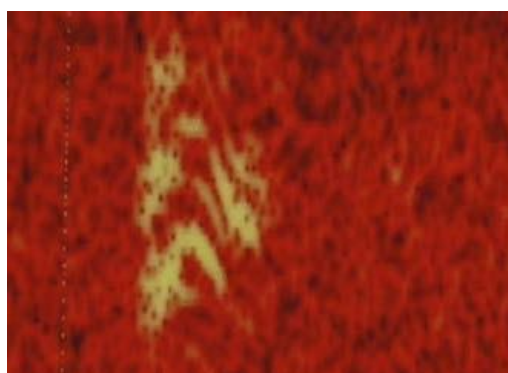


Figure 4. A prairie dog's call for a white jumpsuit

Klump and Shalter (2004) then decided to find out whether prairie dogs are born with their language like talent or, as human beings, they acquired it during their life. If this is the case, it is understood that the real language of animals is the language of prairie dogs.

Therefore, according to Chomsky (1986), it seems that animals used to speak from the beginning of the emergence of life on this planet. Could this be due to the reason that the origin of human language is common with that of their closest relatives? Language has evolved exceptionally rapidly within humans and so human language is probably the key innovation that it allows humans to spread so rapidly across the globe and to dominate the planet ecologically (Bickerton, 1994).

It is important to remember that like lots of other natural things in the world, human language evolved, it didn't just arise. It was

selected for over evolutionary time and the parts of our brain that are involved in language were also selected for Everson (1994). The search for finding the primary roots of human language led Endler (2003) to the use of a fundamental method. He didn't know whether the brain of our closest ancestors could reveal a clue regarding the state of language evolution or not. From the genetic evidence we know that chimpanzees and humans share a common ancestor some 5 million years ago. But what we don't know is really what chimpanzees and humans have in common when it comes to communication (Endler, 2003).

Arcadi (2000) who has been working with chimpanzees for several years, know that they communicate with each other in a way similar to that of human beings. Chimpanzees use sounds, what we call localization, they also use gestures and just make it with their hands by actually extending hand-out or even touching another individual. They make different faces to express either something they want to accomplish or in response to what another individual has done. So in some ways, chimpanzee communication is really similar to human language because it involves the use of all these different things; facial expressions, body postures, and sounds. Arcadi also noticed that chimpanzees use special signs, a kind of language of its primitive form, when they need food. He knew that there is an area in human brain called "Broca's area" which is activated while speaking and using sign language (Bogen, 1997). Do chimpanzees use the same area of their brains for communication as well? If so, does this issue give us any clue regarding language evolutionary steps? Could the source of our biggest evolutionary achievement be found within the brain of chimpanzees? Arcadi started an unprecedented study through scanning the brain of chimpanzees. He just wanted to take some 3-dimensional photos of chimpanzees' brains while communicating through gesticulation to discover whether they have their own specific Boca's area or not. Arcadi (2000) further stated that "this was very exciting

for us because it was really the first time that anyone had looked at what was going on in a chimpanzee brain during their communication (p. 215). Through comparing the photos of human brains and those of chimpanzees, Arcadi found substantial similarities while communicating. Chimpanzees benefited from one area in their brain which was exactly located in the Broca's area in human brains. It has been thought that, these areas that are involved in speech production in language production are in just humans and probably weren't present before we split with chimpanzees. What this tells us is that maybe these parts were early used for communication, even before we had human language. This really changes how we think language may have evolved or how language would have come to be.

Conclusion

Language may originate from the people from whom our ancestors dichotomized around 5 million years ago. However, if both humans and chimpanzees share the same language in their brains, how come human beings were the only species who finally created language. What we still don't really know is why humans set off this unprecedented trajectory. Why did natural selection just keep selecting on bigger and bigger brains, three times as large as a chimpanzee's. Along the course of the evolutionary time, complexity in our communication was selected for, as was increased complexity in our brain. However, we are not really sure find the answer to why this may have happened. What could the pressure be that led our ancestors to language evolution? Was that a kind of adaptation for life in bigger societies with more people or the need for alliance in the belligerent world? Scientist can just hypothesize theories at the moment because although human beings may be on the threshold of the realization of why only they possess the ability to express their beliefs, write down their thoughts and communicate with reason and logic, it is crystal clear that communication, even in its most primitive form, has provided an extraordinary and effective solution for survival for all creatures.

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DEALING WITH MISBEHAVIORS OF YOUNG EFL LEARNERS

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Abstract

Skillful teachers manage their classrooms in a way that students effectively engage in language learning. However, students' misbehaviors seriously can obstruct language teaching and learning process. It becomes a critical issue in teaching English to young learners (TEYL) because they are usually so difficult to control. This study aimed to explore young learners' misbehaviors, teachers' strategies in dealing with them, and learners' reactions to teachers' strategies at language classes in English as foreign language (EFL) context of Iran. Data is collected through observation of teachers' and learners' behaviors in 10 classrooms, 5 male and 5 female, taught by female teachers at language institutes in Tabriz, Iran. Results revealed that most of male and female learners' misbehaviors are classified in verbal category. However, the type of learners' misbehaviors and frequency of them vary according to gender. Male learners' misbehaviors are 4.5 times more than that of female learners. In dealing with misbehaviors, teachers apply strategies differently based on gender of learners. However, they usually use strategies of corrective discipline in all classes. Teachers ignore misbehaviors in male classes around half of the times. Although ignorance leads to continuing misbehaviors or occurrence of other types, too much dealing with misbehaviors can hinder the process of teaching. For a successful class management teachers should be aware of learners' misbehaviors and social and cultural factors effecting young male and female learners' behaviors.

Keywords: class management, misbehavior, students' reaction, teachers' strategy, TEYL, young learner

1. Introduction

Nowadays, the importance of English as a global language has been confirmed in various countries by establishing Language Institutes. The great tendency to learn English from younger ages in recent years has been observable in various institutes in Iran. Due to this fact, the number of teachers trained to teach English to young learners (TEYL) has been increasing.

Skillful teachers of young learners manage their classrooms in a way that students effectively engage in language learning process. One of the key factors in class management is dealing with students' misbehaviors. Many teachers find it very difficult to manage young learners' behaviors (Brachmann, 2011). Misbehavior or behavior problems refer to any behavior by learners that interrupt language teaching and learning process (Patron & Bisping, 2008).

Some forms of misbehaviors are making faces, dropping objects on purpose, throwing things to each other, taping signs to peers' backs, writing inappropriate comments on the board, talking at improper times, and playing with personal belongings (Verial, 2011).

Sometimes, dealing with misbehaviors takes a lot of class time that makes teaching and learning process less effective. Therefore, having enough information about misbehaviors helps teachers to be aware of students' behaviors in different stages of teaching and learning.

This study aims to find the common misbehaviors of young EFL learners and the type of strategies female learners apply to deal with misbehaviors. Furthermore,

learners' reaction to teachers' strategies in dealing with misbehaviors is explained.

2. Review of literature

Sometimes there is not a common agreement on what constitute misbehavior by teachers and students. A behavior may be taught as misbehavior by a teacher, whereas it may be assumed as a normal behavior by young students. Despite this fact, if students convinced that an act is a type of misbehavior they will be less likely to do it again (Patron & Bisping op.cit.).

As stated by Lestari (2008) misbehaviors can be classified in four categories:

The gross motor misbehavior, such as getting out of seat, standing up, tapping feet, clapping hand, and drumming on desk.

The verbalization misbehavior, such as shouting, singing, laughing, and talking with others in the class.

The orienting misbehavior, such as writing on notebook to other classmates during teaching and learning process.

The aggression misbehavior, such as fighting with each other and annoying or hitting each other in the classroom.

The Source of Misbehaviors

It is believed that the growth of TEYL creates some challenges that need to be taken seriously by teachers (Cameron, 2003). These challenges can range from preparing material for students to behaving with them in a manner that motivate them to attend in the language classes. Therefore, teachers need to gain further knowledge about how children think and learn to enable them to conduct teaching process successfully (Cameron *ibid.*).

The critical issue in dealing with misbehaviors is finding out why they occur. If the symptoms of misbehaviors are apparent, try to focus on the cause of misbehaviors instead of stopping them with punishment (Cummings, 2000). Misbehaviors may occur merely because students have forgotten the rules of classroom. The boring process of teaching

may have frustrated them. Even some students may misbehave in class just to show off and attract the attention of teacher and other students (Verial op.cit.). One of another source of misbehaviors is great stress that causes the brain to release certain hormones, which hamper the memory and hinder the learning process (Cummings *ibid.*).

Whether the source of misbehavior is gaining attention or creating a chaos in teaching process, a skillful teacher should notice any misbehavior at the spot and react to it appropriately.

Dealing with Misbehaviors

In order to teach English effectively to young learners, teachers need to be aware of students' behaviors, take appropriate steps to prevent any misbehavior and react to it appropriately, if it occurs (Harmer, 2007). Teachers should be aware of essential issues of teaching English at this level or observe their own classes for any differences as factors of age such as class management, body language, teacher-students exchange, and the relationship conveyed by this exchange (Brown, 2001).

In order to manage teaching to young learners Read (2005) provides a six-item framework for teachers:

Relationships: In order to establish a happy learning environment, it is needed to create and maintain good rapport with learners.

Rules: In order to facilitate teaching process, establish some rules and make them clear for learners. Provide them with the reasons for having such rules in the class to convince them to obey those rules.

Routines: Try to establish an effective classroom routine to demonstrate to learners what is expected of them.

Rights and Responsibilities: Teachers can demonstrate through their own actions and behaviors the rights and responsibilities of both teacher and students in learning process.

Respect: Always treat students respectfully so that they respond in a similar way to you.

Rewards: Reward students by using stars, stickers, smiley faces, or marbles to reinforce appropriate behaviors.

We should bear in mind that the earlier we deal with misbehaviors, the easier it is to change or eliminate them (Brachmann op.cit.). If teachers lose the sight of the whole classroom, they will overlook small problems that are likely to become big ones. Despite the need to use appropriate strategies to help students continue learning process, overreacting to relatively small misbehaviors can hinder the process of teaching and learning.

To deal with misbehaviors, it is helpful to use three types of discipline stated by Charles (2001):

Preventive discipline: It is obviously preferable to other disciplines that focus on dealing with misbehavior after it has occurred. Preventing discipline usually focus on keeping students engaged in activities so that they cannot find any time to misbehave in class. The following tactics can be used to prevent misbehavior. Create a curriculum full of worthy material to teach

Provide learners with funny activities to meet their needs for having enjoyable class time

Be ready to help students whenever they need.

Involve students in providing input to class
Discuss the behaviors appropriate to class environment.

Reward good behaviors in class to increase their occurrence

Model appropriate behavior and respect to class.

Supportive discipline: Sometimes when misbehaviors appear it is most helpful to involve students' self-control by helping them to get back to the task of learning. Helpful tactics for supportive discipline are as below.

Use signals to directed students' attention to task

Create eyes contact with students or use gestures such as shaking head, frowning, and hand signals to get them back to task
Use minimum physical distance to convey students you are aware of them.

Provide challenging tasks for students to involve them in learning process.

Give hints to help students progress
Add fun to activities when students are tired

Remove distractive objects such as toys

Appreciate good behaviors in appropriate ways

Show that you are aware of students' behaviors and moods.

Corrective discipline: Despite teachers' effort to use preventive and supportive discipline, some students may continue to misbehave by violating rules. In this case, you need to deal with misbehaviors by using following tactics.

Ignorance does not always work. It is better to stop misbehavior at the spot

Talk individually with the students misbehaving in class

Change the misbehavior to a positive direction and use it to provoke students to obey the rules of class

If necessary, set other rules for students who refuse to stop misbehaving.

Which discipline we use to deal with misbehavior, it is needed to remember that we should deal with the misbehavior not the students (Harmer, op.cit.). The way we react to students' misbehaviors affects not only those students misbehaving in the class but also the others; therefore, do not deal with misbehaviors by insulting or humiliating the students (Harmer, op.cit.).

In this study, common misbehaviors occurred in Iranian young EFL classes, teachers' strategies in dealing with them, and students reactions to teachers' strategies will be discussed by observing behaviors of students and teachers in language classes.

3. Methodology

Participants

Data is collected through observation of teachers' and learners' behaviors in language classes. For this purpose, 10 classes in three language institutes located in Tabriz, Iran were observed. Half of the classes were consisted of male students and remaining half of female students. All the classes were taught by female teachers.

Instrument

For data gathering, a sheet was prepared based on the categories of misbehaviors and strategies in dealing with them obtained from literature review. The data sheet was used to mark any misbehavior that occurred in class and the types of strategies used by teachers to deal with them. At last, the reactions of students to teachers' strategies were marked.

Data Gathering and Analysis

In order to gather the relevant data, the process of teaching and learning in language classes were observed to record any misbehavior and its consequences. Meanwhile, the process of teaching in classroom was recorded to check for further details. Some field notes were also taken for clarifying some issues. All the data collected in this research by using misbehaviors sheets were analyzed to find out descriptive statistics.

4. Results and discussion

The descriptive statistical analysis of data revealed the frequency of learners' misbehaviors, the common type of strategies teachers applied to deal with them, and the effect that teachers' strategies bear in students' behavior.

The results reveal that: a) Most of male and female learners' misbehaviors were classified in verbal category, b) The type of

learners' misbehaviors and frequency of them varied according to gender, c) Male young EFL learners' misbehaviors were 4.5 times more than female learners' misbehaviors, and d) some of misbehaviors were not common in female classes (Table 1).

Table 1: Frequency of young EFL learners' misbehaviors according to gender

		Frequency	
Type	Form	Male	Female
Verbal	Talk loudly at class	83	4
	Shout when practicing the lesson	31	-
	Talk without permission	28	3
	Whisper to each other	13	16
	Laugh at each other	13	6
	Sing or create noise	10	1
	Repeat with other pronunciation	9	-
	Quarrel with each other	8	5
	Complain about each other	2	3
	Shout and call teacher without reason	3	-
	Laugh and talk loudly with each other	2	-
Motor	Stand up or move in class	17	4
	Pay no attention to lesson	6	6
	Throw objects to each other	6	-
	Open book or cheat	2	4
Total		233	52

Note. Dashes indicate that those misbehaviors were not observed in female classes.

Teachers applied different strategies to deal with misbehaviors depending on the type

of misbehavior and learners' gender. It is assumed that dealing with misbehaviors of males is more demanding than dealing with misbehaviors of females. Male learners are usually more difficult to control; therefore, it is needed to use appropriate strategies to deal with their misbehaviors in appropriate time.

The results show that: a) In order to react to misbehaviors, teachers mostly applied strategies of corrective discipline, b) They applied different strategies based on gender, c) They ignored around half of the misbehaviors in male classes while reacted to 70% of them in female classes, and d) Some of strategies were not used in female classes (Table 2).

Table 2: Teachers' strategies in dealing with misbehaviors according to gender

		frequency	
Discipline	Teachers' strategies	Male	Female
	Ignoring misbehaviors	109	14
Supportive	Creating eye contact with students	42	3
	Using gesture or signals	2	8
	Raising intonation when talking	13	7
	Tapping on desk	2	-
Corrective	Calling students' name	21	3
	Calling name and using gestures	7	7
	Calling name and instructing	7	6
	Shouting at students	5	-
	Saying "be quiet"	23	4
	Warning to be expelled from class	1	-
	Warning to be sent to office	1	-
Total		233	52

Note. Dashes indicate that those strategies were not used by teachers in female classes.

Various strategies affect students' behaviors differently. Results confirm that: a) Most of the times, students stopped misbehaviors when teachers reacted to them appropriately, b) Students' reactions to teachers' strategies varied based on gender, c) Ignoring misbehaviors led male students to continue misbehaving, and d) Applying inappropriate strategies led students to stop misbehavior but do it again during class (Table 3).

Table 3: Frequency of students' reactions to teachers' strategies according to gender

		frequency	
	Students' reactions	Male	Female
	Stop misbehaving immediately	118	36
	Continue misbehaving	91	3
	Stop misbehaving after a while	29	5
	Stop but continue later	15	8
Total		233	52

This study implies that young EFL learners demonstrate different forms of misbehaviors that are usually classified under verbal and motor categories. Misbehaviors are varied according to learners' gender and some of the misbehaviors are totally absent in some classes. Dealing with misbehaviors, depending on the nature and the degree of its interruption to class procedure, demand a special strategy. The kinds of strategies used in dealing misbehaviors vary based on the discipline that teachers usually applied in classes. It is highly recommended that teachers gain knowledge about students' misbehaviors and follow the disciplines appropriately in class to deal with any obstructing behavior. Ignoring misbehaviors cause learners to think that teacher is not aware of their behaviors;

therefore lead them to commit other misbehaviors in class. Inappropriate use of strategies in dealing with misbehaviors can directly lead to continuing misbehaviors by learners. Moreover, it can also make the situation even worse than before that teacher lose the control until the end of the class.

There is some limitations in this study: a) The attendance of observer in classes affected teachers' and students' behaviors and led to what is usually called observer paradox, b) The reason behind students' misbehaviors was not clear, c) teachers' behavior at every stage in dealing with misbehaviors might be effected by other factors such as mood that was not explored, and d) Some misbehaviors might be ignored because the teachers were not noticed them.

In order to gain complete understanding about young EFL learners' misbehaviors and teachers' strategies in dealing with them, it is needed to conduct further researches. As social and cultural factors can affect teachers' and learners' behaviors in language classes, they should be taken as major variables in studying misbehaviors. Other variables such as teacher' age, gender, and education level can also affect the amount and the type of students' misbehaviors in language classes and the kind of strategies applied to deal with them.

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MODIFIED OUTPUT IN EFL CONTEXT

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Abstract

In the field of second language acquisition (SLA), several studies were carried out to find the ways of fostering the language acquisition process. One of the seminal articles which underscored the importance of output production to improve language proficiency was Swain's (1985) work on comprehensible output which was identified as one of the most prominent factors leading to comprehension and thus acquisition. In this regard, the current paper investigated the change of focus from input (Krashen, 1982) toward output and explored the reason for output provision and its functions that language learners may benefit from. Furthermore, this study underscored the fact that non-native students also can provide negative feedback as opposed to the previously common assumption that one of the interlocutors must be a native speaker to have a real and authentic interaction. Finally, a brief investigation of the previously carried out research demonstrated that when learners get involved in interaction via various tasks (e.g., one-way versus two-way, open versus closed), they may use different modification devices (e.g., confirmation checks, clarification checks and so on). Therefore, teachers should bear in mind that involving students in cooperative exchange of ideas to reach mutual benefits using appropriate tasks with proper combinations in classroom is advantageous.

Keywords: Input, Output, Comprehensible Output, Modified Output, Modification Devices

1. Introduction

The history of second language acquisition (SLA) has been characterized by an

unending search for more efficient ways of teaching second or foreign languages. For more than a century, debates and explorations in this regard have often centered on issues such as the role of grammar in language teaching curriculum, the development of accuracy and fluency in language teaching. Deficiencies of the teaching methodologies and syllabi have given rise to the emergence of new insights in SLA concerned with intervening in the process of inter-language development through input manipulation. Krashen (1982), who was the first person to propose an input-based theory, failed to account for the real needs of language learners and underscored the role of input as the mere requisite for development of linguistic capacities. Therefore, an overview of the essentials for learning is provided here.

1.2. Input

Over the past decades the second language research was mainly influenced by the theories proposed for describing the nature of learning and the factors involved in the process of learning. According to Gass (1999) language learning is simulated by communicative pressure that one of its important requirements is 'input'. The precursors of such studies on input are those who define it as auditory or visual linguistic environment that the learner is exposed to (Lightbown, 1985; Watanabe, 1997; Carroll, 1999), or in other terms, the available target language (Ellis, 2006). Different theories were suggested regarding the importance of input such as those which considered input as the only factor leading to learning (Krashen, 1982), and other groups of studies accepted the interaction between learners and the input (as an external sociocultural factor) as requisites for language learning (Carroll,

1999; J. Lee, 2002), while others recognize occurring of learning not because of input alone but also through the interaction learners have with it (Long, 1996).

Input can be described as one of the conditions necessary for creating optimal linguistic environment in which language learning in the context of both first and second languages occurs. Input is the prerequisite of interaction and one of its roles can be its importance in fostering meaningful communicative use in appropriate contexts, but what is appropriate context? Appropriate context that is an idea based on linguistic considerations rests on the argument that provision of sufficient input is prerequisite for language learning, and one of the second language acquisition theories that emphasize the importance of sufficient and efficient quantity of linguistic input is proposed by Krashen (1982).

According to Krashen's 'input hypothesis' (1985), a person can learn language when he is exposed to linguistic input that is comprehensible to him. This 'comprehensible input' is intelligible messages that the learner is exposed to. A message will be intelligible when it is slightly above the level of immediate comprehension of the learner and is referred to as I (interlanguage) +1. In other words, the exposed language should be just far enough beyond their current competence that they can understand most of it but still remain challenged to make progress. The corollary to this is that the input should neither be so far from their level of competence to overwhelm them, nor so close to their stage in a way that it does not seem challenging to them at all (Brown, 2000 ; Basturkmen, 2006). Based on this hypothesis, the most important assumption is that speaking should not be taught in classroom or early stages of language development, because it emerges once a language learner has build up sufficient amount of $I+1$ (Krashen, 1985).

Despite its significant influence on second language studies, this hypothesis has been widely criticized for its lack of supportive

evidence by those believing that a learner's exposure to the target language is not in itself a sufficient condition for second language acquisition (Swain, 1985; Lightbown & Spada, 1990; Long, 1988; Gass, 1988; White, 1987). White (1987) claims that the important factor leading to acquisition is incomprehensibility rather than comprehensibility. For her, comprehension difficulties provide the needed negative feedback that alarms the existing discrepancies in the linguistic message and is necessary for second language acquisition. According to Gass (1988), who distinguishes comprehensible input from comprehended input, the concept of comprehended input should be considered crucially important because it implies that the focus is on the learner and the extent to which the learner understands while in comprehensible input the focus is on the speaker's control of comprehensibility. Swain (1985) also contends that Krashen had not given any importance to the role of comprehensible output which is necessary for target language acquisition. Although Krashen's theory has received a considerable amount of criticism, it is yet the most influential theory on the role of input and many valuable empirical studies on input and interaction generated based on it and attempts were made to verbally characterize the ways of making input comprehensible (Long, 1996).

Therefore, using strategies to enhance input comprehension has attracted second language acquisition researchers' attention because there has been a widespread conviction that input must be comprehended by the learner if it is to assist the acquisition process (Park, 2002). In this regard, in SLA acquisition research, many attempts were conducted to find ways of introducing the factors leading to comprehension facilitating input (or the things that make input comprehensible).

But how is input made comprehensible? Four ways of making the input comprehensible were suggested by Long (1982): (1) by modifying speech; (2) by providing linguistic and extra linguistic

context; (3) by orienting the conversation to the 'here and now' and (4) by modifying the interactional structure of the conversation. Other researchers such as Ellis and He (1999), and Pica, Young, and Doughty (1987), who made observations about the different types of linguistic environment available to the L2 learner, called Long's first type of comprehensible input "premodified input". As Mackey (1999), and Ellis and He (1999) define it, premodified input can be operationalized as the input that has been intentionally targeted at the level of the learner to facilitate his comprehension by making it more redundant and less grammatically complex. There is no need for negotiation as there is no chance to misunderstand. Problems or difficulty sources are predicted beforehand and linguistic structures are presented in a supposed hierarchy in the textbooks starting from the least problematic. There are examples of premodified input in conversational interactions such as partially scripted role plays that may yield better comprehension as learners do not need to make adjustments. This process of modification can be conducted in two ways that are (a) simplification and (b) elaboration of input. Simplification is referred to as controlling the text targeted to second language learners by removing unfamiliar linguistic items, such as unknown syntactic structures and lexis, in order to enhance comprehension. Moreover, the process of elaboration is defined as adding redundant information to the text through the use of repetitions, paraphrases, and appositionals (Urano, 2000).

Besides, some researchers draw a distinction between "baseline or unmodified input", and "premodified input or non-negotiated input" (Ellis & He, 1999; Krashen, 1998; Long, 1996; Park, 2002; De La Fuente, 2002). Baseline input is defined as the kind of input native speakers hear when listening to other native speakers (i.e. the raw spoken or written materials without any further elaboration or modification for enhancing comprehension).

Baseline version: Everybody knows that Tom is industrious and kind to others.

Simplified version: Everybody knows that Tom is hardworking and kind to others.

Elaborated version: Everybody knows that Tom is industrious, or hardworking, and kind to others.

The second type of linguistic environment chosen as the potential source of comprehensible input available to the learner is the one produced by the last way of making input comprehensible proposed by Long and is termed "interactionally modified input" that is produced when the interlocutors try to negotiate the messages they hear by the help of each other. As Pica et al. (1987) characterized it, interactionally modified input is the product of a linguistic environment in which a native speaker (NS) or a more competent speaker interacts with a non-native speaker (NNS), and where both parties modify and restructure the interaction to arrive at mutual understanding.

Both of these input sources have been investigated by researchers (e.g. Ellis & He, 1999; Pica et al., 1987; De La Fuente, 2002) as potential facilitative types of learning environment that help to promote comprehension and foster second language acquisition.

1.3. Pre-modified Input

As noted earlier in this chapter, current flow of second language research had made attempts to determine the factors that make input comprehensible to the learner by investigating input comprehension in different types of linguistic environment. Premodified input is characterized as the input simplification before learner's seeing or hearing it. This can be in forms of word-level or sentence-level paraphrase, reduction of sentence length and complexity, and repetitions, omissions, and replacements. These modifications are considered to make speech simple specially when addressing a child or a second language learner such as the use of motherese, foreigner talk, or teacher talk. Another way of input modification, which relates to the premodified input, is referred

to as elaboration which changes the semantic and structural density of a text by expanding or adding redundancy to it.

Even though the notion of providing the learner with such input is attractive for the researchers, fairly little is figured out about the type of modified input which potentially facilitates or hinders comprehension. In this regard, some studies were carried out to investigate the issue (Oh, 2001; Chaudron, 1983; Blau, 1982) and their findings were similar. For instance, Blau (1982) found that elaborative adjustments which increased the redundancy of a linguistic message and hence resulted in greater explicitness while retaining syntactic complexity, tended to facilitate comprehension. In a similar vein, Chaudron (1983) stated that repetition of the simple noun was most effective on recognition and recall, at least on immediate language intake. In relation to longer language samples, Oh (2001) was one of the researchers who looked at the potential effects of simplified and elaborated texts on comprehension. Based on her study, she suggested that reducing the complexity of a text and simplifying it does not ensure its comprehensibility more than elaboration, and also input should be modified in elaborative ways so that its native-like qualities can be retained. Pica et al. (1987) made a similar argument by comparing premodified input and interactionally modified input. They stated that a decrease in the complexity of input did not seem to be a crucial factor in comprehension; while interaction led to more complexity it had better results in the sake of comprehension.

However, elaborations are not beneficial all the times. Chaudron's study (1983) revealed that vocabulary elaborations made by teachers led to student confusion in some cases about what was alternative and what was additional information. In another study by Chaudron and Richards (1986), it appeared that modifications that contained macro-markers, that signal major propositions within the lecture, were beneficial in improving the listeners' comprehension and retention while micro-

markers signaling intersentential relations, framing of segments and pause fillers did not help learners about the retention of the lecture.

The research findings reported by Chiang and Dunkel (1992) also showed that the learner type can influence the way in which different modifications affect those learners. For example, learners with different proficiency levels showed differential amounts of comprehension: for advanced learners, being provided with redundant information in extended strings of language significantly improved their comprehension, while it did not appear to aid students at lower-level listening proficiency. In line with these findings, it is pointed out that "no single form of simplification would be an appropriate method of presentation for a group of learners including a range of proficiency levels" (Chaudron, 1983, p. 451).

To sum up, it seems that premodified input (whether simplified or elaborated) is beneficial in the sake of promoting comprehension. But the findings cannot be considered clear cut and not easily generalizable as those studies were carried out with respect to far differing modalities (i.e., written or spoken), approaches to modification (i.e., simplification or elaboration), word-level or sentence-level or longer strings of language, and different ways of assessment (i.e., dictation, multiple choice, cloze-test, etc.).

1.4. Interactionally Modified Input

As evidenced earlier in this chapter, another type of linguistic environment available to the second language learner is called interactionally modified input that is characterized by opportunities for NS-NNS interactions in which both interlocutors try to reach a mutual perception (Pica et al., 1987, p. 739). The role of interaction in the field of second language acquisition (SLA) was underlined by Hatch's (1978, 1983) works on the importance of conversation to developing grammar (as cited in De La Fuente, 2002; Mackey, 1999). As Hatch (1978, p. 404) stated: "one learns how to do conversation, one learns how to interact

verbally, and out of this interaction syntactic structures are developed" (cited in Park, 2002, p. 6). In 1982, Long, influenced by Hatch's works and trying to criticize the famous Input Hypothesis of Krashen, proposed his idea regarding the difference between modified input (here it is called premodified input) and modified interaction that was emerged out of the modified structure of the conversation itself rather than being modified and then directed to the learner. Long (1983) recognized the strategic devices that speakers use while trying to make meaning out of a conversation and finding their way through that discourse. Those strategic devices included comprehension checks, clarification requests, topic shifts, and self and other repetitions and expansions or elaborations. He witnessed that when two communicators face some problems as trying to convey their intention to their interlocutor, they employ these devices (Long 1983).

Later on in 1996, inspired by his and others' previous studies (1980, 1983, 1988, 1990), Long proposed his "interaction hypothesis" that can be summarized as:

Learners can only learn what they are ready to learn (they have their own internal syllabus).

Linguistic input is necessary for learning.

Learners negotiate the meaning of input to make it more comprehensible to themselves.

Through negotiation of meaning, the input becomes increasingly useful because it is targeted to the specific developmental level of the individual learner.

Thus input negotiated to fit the needs of the individual learner can become intake (cited in Basturkmen, 2006).

As summarized, Long emphasizes the role of interaction in connecting 'input, internal learner capacities, particularly selective attention, and output in productive ways' (1996: 451-2). Therefore, interaction

hypothesis envisages a crucial role for input particularly negative input as the corrective feedback. Long (1996) considered that negative feedback provided during negotiation plays a facilitative role with regard to language learning at least for some aspects of language such as vocabulary and morphology because it focuses interlocutors attention on new or partially learned linguistic forms. Various empirical studies carried out in this vein tried to check the dependability of Long's statements and different findings were obtained. To arrive at concluding remarks, the researchers chose to explore the effects of two input-based linguistic environments on comprehension, and consequently on acquisition.

1.5. Premodified Input or Interactionally Modified Input?

Evidences, obtained from various researches (Pica et al., 1987; Ellis, 1995; Ellis & He, 1999; Park, 2002, De La Fuente, 2002), revealed differential results about the advantages of these two types of modified input exposed to L2 learners. A particularly important and related study is the one conducted by Pica et al (1987) that investigated the effects of two types of modified input on comprehension: premodified input, as linguistically simplified and more redundant version of a short lecture, and interactionally modified input as linguistically non-modified lecture about which listeners could seek clarification in one-to-one interaction with the speaker in NS-NNS dyads. They found that getting involved in negotiation for meaning in order to make input comprehensible was more effective than just premodification since requests for modifications made by NNSs were a key factor leading to comprehension. In a similar vein, Ellis, Tanaka, and Yamazaki (1994), found a very clear effect of input type. In their study that compared the effects of three types of modified input: baseline input, premodified input, and interactionally modified input, on vocabulary acquisition, it was revealed that the interactionally modified group acquired more new words than the premodified group, which in turn acquired more than

the baseline group in a posttest administered immediately after the treatment. Conversely, Ellis (1995) by analyzing the findings reported by Ellis et al. (1994) showed that they did not take the time variable into consideration whereas premodified input was more efficient regarding words acquired per minute of input. Another study that evidenced the advantage of interaction based modification over premodification is Mackey's (1995). She observed the impact of these two processes on acquisition of English question formation patterns and understood that those involved in interaction gained more benefits in terms of development of forming questions.

Moreover, as De La Fuente (2002, p. 102) argued that "learners' comprehension of instructions and the target words contained in these instructions was greater when they had the opportunity to negotiate than when they were exposed to premodified, nonnegotiated input". Concerning receptive acquisition, she has the same assertion that the learners attained greater receptive acquisition when they had the opportunity to negotiate and produce the target vocabulary than when they were exposed to premodified input.

Besides, De La Fuente (2002) supported the findings of Ellis and He (1999) about the effect of output production as the most beneficial linguistic environment on learners' acquisition. They, (Ellis & He, 1999; De La Fuente, 2002), considered that most studies on interaction in that decade focused just on input (Varonis & Gass, 1982; Ellis et al., 1994; Pica et al., 1987). As an example, Long who initially just paid attention to input, did not take the role of output into account (1982, 1983) while later on he (1996) developed his hypothesis by considering the notion of output. Before Long, other studies (Gass & Varonis, 1989, 1994) have addressed the necessity of looking at the ways in which learners' modification of interlanguage take place and how these modifications lead to the expansion of their interlanguage system as they interact using target language discourse patterns. This stemmed from the

emphasis on negotiation which was an appropriate source for output which in turn has an essential role in the process of negotiation. The previous body of research neglected the fact that input provided by NSs (or any competent interlocutor in the course of communication) to NNSs was itself output for them. While NNSs receive linguistic information as input, it serves as output for NSs. Since this process of reception and production goes on until the conclusion of conversation, as Park (2002) stated: "negotiated interactions may be seen as a continuum of input-output cycles where the output of a participant serves as input for the interlocutor, which again triggers output from the same interlocutor" (p. 9).

1.6. Output

The contemporary thinking of 1990s and body of research had this dominant speculation that interaction was merely a tool for provision of input to learners (Park, 2002). This mainly stemmed from Krashen's input hypothesis (1985, p. 48) which asserted that "only comprehensible input is consistently effective in increasing proficiency". His assertion did not give any role to output for fostering the process of acquisition and took output into account as just the outcome of acquisition. The opponents of Krashen's hypothesis believed and stressed that his hypothesis ignores the actual values of mental processes which are helpful for gleaning linguistic information that is present inside the input and are obtained by different mental processes such as feedback and interaction (Brown, 2001). The Interaction Hypothesis of Long (as cited in Basturkmen, 2006), which was evolved out of criticism of Krashen's Input Hypothesis, is one of the models characterizing the nature of second language learning through interaction. Similar to Krashen, Long (1983, 1996) initially viewed input rather than output as the source of acquisition but, unlike the input hypothesis, he gave more constitutive role for learner output. He (as cited in Basturkmen, 2006) asserts that "negative feedback obtained during negotiation of meaning contributes to acquisition", i.e., "it is highly unlikely if not possible for the

learners to acquire second language communicative competence without engaging in meaningful interaction". He emphasizes the role of input as a factor providing samples of positive evidence (by means of requests for clarification or confirmation checks) of how the language system works since their involvement in interaction provides the interactionally modified input for them and thus they can comprehend the input and focus their attention on new or partially learned vocabulary items and language structures which in turn enables their acquisition.

However, Long (1996) in his later developed hypothesis recognized that "meaning negotiation can induce learners to modify their own output and this, too, may promote acquisition" (Ellis & He, 1999, p. 286); therefore, any negative feedback, explicit or implicit, including recasts, can provide learners with necessary information they need to notice the gap between their own output and the native-like language forms.

Long's work directed the focus toward Swain's seminal work. Swain (1985), in his seminal article, emphasizes the importance of dialogues as joint or inter-personal activities which enable learners to verbalize their target language knowledge and argues that the success in a foreign language cannot be attributed to comprehensible input alone and for non-native speakers having opportunities to produce comprehensible output are also necessary.

Swain conducted several studies in immersion contexts in Canada, and based on these studies, she made her conclusions. She found that providing immersion students merely with great amount of comprehensible input did not help them to abandon their off-target performance and they were clearly identified as non-native speakers or writers (Swain, 1985). Especially, she perceived that "the expressive performance of these students was far weaker than that of same aged native speakers" (Shehadeh, 2003, p.156). For example, they had less knowledge and

control of complex grammar, they were less precise in use of vocabulary and morphosyntax, and their pronunciations were less accurate. Therefore, based on the facts she witnessed, Swain proposed a new hypothesis, in relation to the second language learners' production, comparable to Krashen's comprehensible input hypothesis and termed it "comprehensible Output Hypothesis" (Swain, 1985, p. 249). Swain argued that "comprehensible output (CO) is the output that extends the linguistic repertoire of the learner as he or she attempts to create precisely and appropriately the desired meaning" (Swain, 1985, p.252). She further argued that the role of learner production of CO is independent from the role of input and in this way; she tried to emphasize the importance of CO as well.

Later on, Swain (1995) refined her CO hypothesis and extended her arguments. According to Swain (1995), while the comprehension of a message can take place with little syntactic analysis of the input, production forces learners to process language more deeply and pay more attention to morphosyntax; the active engagement of the learners in learning process must not be ignored.

Swain (1995) stated that, the act of producing output in a target language (TL) will lead to second language development because of three factors that include noticing, hypothesis testing and internalizing metalinguistic information (as cited in Adams, 2003). Several studies examined the noticing function of output in target language learning (Iwashita, 1999; Izumi, 2000, 2002; Swain and Lapkin, 1995; Shehadeh, 1999b, 2001). Through these studies, it is demonstrated that the activity of producing the target language is a mechanism that enables learners to notice a gap in their existing language performance which they may pay attention to by external feedback or internal feedback. Schmidt contends that "more noticing leads to more learning" (see Adams, 2003; Basturkmen, 2006).

As mentioned before, noticing can take place by consciousness-raising activities of the teacher to help students notice specific language features or forms (Basturkmen, 2006) or when learners, in the process of generating output, get to know that they do not know how to express their intended meaning. But when interlocutors ignore a source of problem (Shehadeh, 2001), the breakdown in comprehension or communication cannot be detected and as a result, the learner who has made a mistake cannot notice that the gap between his output and the TL output. In other words, negative feedback on unclear ideas pushes the learner to reformulate the incomprehensible messages by trying out new structures. Thus, "pushed output may assist the learner in acquiring L2" (L. Lee, 2002, p. 276).

Therefore, an EFL learner needs the interlocutors' 'scaffolding' which can be defined as the supporting of a more knowledgeable individual working with the learner and offering supportive dialogue to the learner as they work on a task together (Basturkmen, 2006, p.105). As a result, the learner realizes that successful transmission of the message will require a reformulation or modification of output toward comprehensibility (Shehadeh, 2001) using modification devices that are defined as strategies or tactics for negotiation that learners employ to adjust incomprehensible messages (L. Lee, 2002). Modified Output (MO) can, therefore, be used to make an initial utterance or part of an utterance more accurate in response to some kind of initiation. This suggests that output plays a useful role in both helping learners in identifying the linguistic features they need and facilitating subsequent learning of those features, as Hanaoka (2007) calls it "the positive domino effect" of output on learning.

2. Empirical Studies on Modified Output

Swain's (1985, 1995) pushed output hypothesis has formed the basis for trigger of a special line of research studies focusing on modified output in different aspects.

In 1989, Pica, Holliday, Lewis, and Morgenthaler investigated the learners' processes of modification of ungrammatical output in response to the feedback from NSs. The main purpose of their study was to investigate the amount of modified output in response to types of interactional moves such as clarification requests and confirmation checks. They found that the effect of modification moves on modified output was greater and more significant than task types. In a similar vein, Nobuyoshi and Ellis (1993), who carried out a really small scale study with 3 learners, got to know that two of their participants showed permanent accuracy improvement when pushed by the clarification requests. However, Linnell (1996) claimed that clarification requests lead to more modified output than confirmation checks.

Mackey (1995) compared the effects of three learning conditions on development of question forms. She found that only when learners participated in interaction and modified their responses during the interactive exchanges benefited most.

In a comprehensive study, Iwashita (1999) investigated the difference between the effect of one-way and two-way tasks on modified output production in 12 dyads. The results of the study revealed that one-way tasks led to more modified output than two-way tasks as they called for more extended negotiation. Furthermore, her study also disclosed that one-way tasks were better for lexical modification (42.2 %) but two-way tasks produced more syntactical modifications (78.9%).

Considering task types used in various studies, it is worth to report the findings of a study by Pica, Lincoln-Porter, Panios, and Linnell (1996). Pica et al. compared the amount of modified output provided in 10 NS-NNS and 10 NNS-NNS dyads while performing two jigsaw tasks, namely house sequence and story. Of the 10 NNS-NNS and 10 NS-NNS dyads, 5 of them interacted using house sequence task that asked students to sequence pictures of houses by exchanging verbal descriptions of their own

uniquely held proportions of the sequence and the rest of the dyads were involved in second task which was retelling a story by putting events of the story in the correct order. The results show that NNS-NNS dyads produced 31% of modified output in house sequence task while NS-NNS dyads modified 44% of their output. Concerning the second task, NNS-NNS dyads modified 64% of their output while NS-NNS pairings modified only 47% of their output. Although it can be inferred that these differential results can be attributed to tasks, the difference between modified output production of learner-learner dyads and NS-NNS dyads.

In addition, Foster and Ohta (2005), who explored the frequency of modified output as a consequence of initiating negotiation for meaning in the speech of 20 intermediate-level English young adults, found that only 11% of the modified output episodes were prompted based on the signals that other interlocutors provided and the rest were self-initiated. They found that when also there was not meaning negotiations, students themselves could modify their own output; therefore, they concluded that the design of task (one-way in that study) could not be considered as faulty.

In another study, McDonough (2005) found similar results regarding the scarcity of other-initiated modified output. The study which was carried out by 16 Thai students, demonstrated that of the 77 produced modified output only 53% (41/77) was of target form conditional clauses, and of those 41 instances, 83% (34/41) were self-initiated. Of the total self-initiated modified output only 21% lend to provision of opportunities to respond to peer feedback by modifying their output.

Shehadeh (2001) examined the issue of self- and other- initiations in greater detail. He found that both self- and other-initiations result in ample opportunities for modified output. In his study, he worked on the interactions of 35 adult intermediate-level participants using 3 communication tasks named picture description, opinion

exchange and group decision making. He found that 81% of other-initiated indicators resulted in modified output and self-initiations led to 93% of modified output.

In another interesting study, Oliver and Mackey examined the amount of production of modified output of teacher-student interactions in 4 contexts of language exchange based on content, communication, management and explicit language (2003). The study showed that teachers provided the most amount of feedback when their exchanges with learners focused on explicit language and content, 85% and 61%, respectively, and also students produced highest amount of modified output (85%) in explicit language context. This study suggested that the focus of exchange can influence the amount of produced modified output.

Another similar study by Mackey, Oliver, and Leeman (2003) investigated the difference between frequency of feedback, provision of opportunities for modified output, and rate of produced modified output considering the offered opportunities based on the interlocutor types; child versus adult, and native versus nonnative interlocutor. Their study proved that participants in adult NS-NNS dyads provided the most feedback (47%) and adult NNS-NNS dyads provided the least amount of feedback (32%). However, it became clear that adult NNS-NNS dyads offered the greatest amount of opportunities (98%) while child NNS-NNS dyads offered least opportunities (86%), and for modified output, child NNS-NNS dyads took the biggest share (41%).

3. Conclusion

Recently, interaction research has come to play a more important role in the studies of the second language learning and teaching. The aim of the present study is to further contribute to the body of research on different aspects of interaction and its characteristics in exploration of how second language is learned, used, and taught. This study supports the theoretical perspective that considers that input as a positive evidence may not be sufficient for certain aspects of L2 acquisition and that negative

evidence is necessary for the learners for language acquisition to occur as they notice the gaps in their interlanguage and as a result try to pace toward target language more easily and fast. Therefore, this study showed the line of investigation on incorporation of negative evidence (Lyster, 1998, 2002; Lyster, Lightbown & Spada; 1999) and specifically (pushed) modified output (e.g. Swain, 1985, 1995; Long, 1996; Mackey & Abbuhl, 2005 in Sanz, 2005; Sheen, 2007) as a kind of practice used in EFL classes to improve language learners' language performances (oral or written) since it is considered that output has a number of benefits, including (a) promoting fluency, (b) drawing learners' attention to linguistic problems, (c) foster the processing of L2 syntax as well as its semantic, and (d) linguistic hypotheses testing (Swain, 1995, 2005).

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EFFECT OF DISAPPEARING DIALOGUE ON VOCABULARY LEARNING AND RETENTION OF EFL LEARNERS

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1.1. Introduction

If you desire to teach vocabulary to Iranian EFL students in an effective way, you may aware that "reciting new vocabulary words individually and mechanically is not effective as a long-term teaching strategy." (Wang Chengqian, 2009). Thus, teachers may need to design a sufficient teaching method to master their students in learning vocabulary. This paper explores an effective teaching vocabulary method based on a sufficient treatment that can be done in classrooms, so that teachers need to compare a control group versus an experimental group in order to find the best technique in teaching vocabulary.

1.2. Vocabulary learning

According to Camille L. Z. Blachowicz, Peter J. Fisher (2005) difficulties in learning meanings of words depend on characteristics of word learners, characteristic words, and levels of word learns.

"Different task require different levels of word knowledge" (Camille L. Z. Blachowicz, Peter J. Fisher (2005). The process of word learning involves tests of word knowledge for conceptually complex words (Nagy& Scott, 2000). Researchers support the hypothesis that in vocabulary learning we should consider different steps in vocabulary knowledge: (1) unknown word ("I have never seen that word"), (2) exist knowledge of a word ("I have seen that word"), (3) not complete knowledge ("I

have a vague or I find out of the word generally"), and (4) complete knowledge ("I know enough words for using them in speaking ,writing, and so forth") (Dale,1965;Chall,1987:Stahl,1999).

1.3. Significance of vocabulary learning

Vocabularies refer to words recognition, and teaching vocabularies refer to teaching vocabularies in appropriate ways that students understand them. Vocabulary knowledge is very important for reading skill achievements (Davis, 1944, 1968; National Reading Panel, 2000). Students need to know vocabularies in both social and academic conditions. In this regards, finding an effective vocabulary instruction method is so critical. According to Camille L. Z. Blachowicz, Peter J. Fisher (2005), the report of the National Reading Panel (2000) supports the fact that vocabulary instruction is important to age and ability of learners for learning new vocabularies.

1.4. Teaching vocabulary

Traditionally, teaching of vocabularies limited to present new items as they appeared in readings or listening texts (Solange Moras, Sao Carlos, Brazil, and July 2001). This indirect teaching of vocabularies could not provide enough practice for vocabulary learning through language skills to ensure vocabulary expansion (Solange Moras, Sao Carlos, Brazil, and July 2001).

As Steven Stahl (2005) puts it, "Vocabulary knowledge is knowledge; the knowledge of a word not only implies a definition, but also implies how that word fits into the

world."According to Solange Moras(Sao Carlos, Brazil, July 2001) "Nowadays it is widely accepted that vocabulary teaching should be part of the syllabus, and taught in a well-planned and regular basis".

1.5. *Effective vocabulary teaching techniques*

In April 2000 National Institute of Child Health and Human Development(NICHHD) presented the National reading panel's(NRP), researchers try to find out the most effective way in teaching vocabulary in the mini society of students which is called classroom such as using clues within words , analyzing root words, using around words , or using references like dictionaries. However the researchers try to find a new technique for teaching vocabulary, an effective way, in order to increase the pleasure of vocabulary learning against tiresome strategies in vocabulary learning.

2. Review of related literature

During the decades, the effects of different methods of vocabulary teaching/learning have investigated. The key in mastering a language is vocabulary. Vocabulary has the same significance as structure of a language. By knowing lots of practical vocabularies, we may have perfect fluency in speaking and reading smartly. However, memorizing and recalling words is a big or hard deal for learners so many researchers try to answer this issue to help learners in order to master a language in an easy and an effective way (Wang Chengqian (Frank) 2009).

Ronald Carter (1987) argued that "for many years vocabulary has been the poor relation of language teaching" (p. 145). Nowadays, however, teachers focus on teaching of vocabulary increasingly. Nevertheless, some students have less confidence in learning vocabularies because they find this boring for themselves to learn a language in this way, and sometime they become indifferent in learning a language.

Likewise, Millis (as cited in Jacob, E., Rottenberg L., Patrick S. & Wheeler E., 1996) thinks for teaching students vocabularies; teachers start a good

communication and cooperation between themselves and students (p. 260).

2.1. *Vocabulary learning and teaching*

"Vocabulary is a vital foundational thread in the tapestry of reading; it should be woven into the fabric of everything that is being studied" (Tankersley, 2005, p66).Vocabulary has two characteristics, an oral vocabulary meaning and a print vocabulary meaning. The oral refers to usage of vocabularies in speaking and listening skills. The print refers to vocabularies that are understandable in texts; these words are essential for students for comprehending texts successfully.

In addition, Marzano, Pickering, and Pollock (2001) argued that indirectly teaching vocabulary should be done by teachers in order to help vocabulary teaching such as: (a) students need to be exposed word in context,(b) new words in context need to be instructed,(c) use items such as pictures, charts and so forth in order to associate learning vocabulary.

Nevertheless, according to NRP report (2000), indirect vocabulary instruction is effective, even though direct vocabulary instruction is as effective as indirect vocabulary instruction. Learners learn vocabulary directly when teachers teach them individual word directly.

Furthermore, according to Kuceer (2005) when students encounter different concepts and texts in different science such as math, and social sciences they require different reading styles from the forms such as literacy and personal narrative. Furthermore students require learning adequate vocabularies in order to become a typical reader. Research presents that lack of adequate vocabulary knowledge intensifies in later years of students' age, if it is ignored by the teachers. "A high-performing first-grade student knows roughly twice as many words as the low performing first-grade student, and the gap only increases over the years. By twelfth-grade, high-performing students know approximately four times as many words as their low-performing peers" (as cited in

Tankersley, 2005, p.67). Hart & Risley said (as cited in Jacob, et al., 1996), "primary school children have different levels in mastering vocabulary words".

According to Blachowicz and Fisher (2005) four types of words are appropriate in explicit instruction of vocabularies: comprehension words, useful words, academic words, and generative words. Teachers need to teach all types of words to their students explicitly. Many teachers focus on the students' background knowledge for choosing the effective types of words for instruction.

Based on this vocabulary gap, Cunningham and Stanovich claimed that for unlocking the gap (as cited in Jacob, et al., 1996), "Reading aloud to pupils, such as telling a story, is an effective way for giving students opportunities to widen their vocabulary. When the children are listening to the stories, they will be given the chance to review their oral vocabularies. Meanwhile, new and advanced words can be introduced effectively" (p. 532).

"Control of the lexicon involves two domains", according to Nuessell (1994).that is, understanding meanings from context as well as skill in "encoding specific lexical items" (p. 118). In other word, learners learn meanings of words from their contexts (Blachowicz, et al., 2006).

"Effective vocabulary study occurs daily and involves more than memorizing definitions" (as cited in Tankersley, 2005, p.74). The Texas Education Agency (2000) presented learning strategies in vocabulary instruction such as dictionary, word parts (prefixes, suffixes, roots, and compounds), and context clue use (Laura Ferguson, May, 2006). Ryder said (as cited in Blachowicz, C., Fisher, P., Ogle, D., & Watts-Taffe, S., 2006).

"There are two things to be examined in the current development of vocabulary education; the first is the amount and depth of research done emphasizing the importance of vocabulary in relationship to school performance; the second issue is the

degree to which teachers have been able to interpret and apply the research in their classrooms" (p. 524).

Beck presented (as cited in Blachowicz et al., 2006) the ways that teachers can find the suitable words for teaching to their students such as (a) frequency of words that is vital for future use, (b) the words that related to subjects that students learn,(c) ability for using words for learning other words(p.530).

Also, Nan Jiang (2004) investigated that what words should be chosen while teachers try to teach vocabularies that could apply for all ages .She noted that learners need contexts to learn vocabularies in order to master in a language, and they also learn the concepts of words.

For adult learning, it is true that "acquisition is accompanied by little conceptual or semantic development" (Nan Jiang (2004), p. 417). That means that learners learn vocabularies of a second language easily, if instructions accompany by learning their L1 semantic structures. On other hand, "teachers teach vocabulary that has the closest word-for-word exchanges between the native language and target language in concepts for beginners" (Wang Chengqian (Frank) 2009, p.6).

For teaching primary schools according to McKenna (as cited in Herman, P. A. & Dole, J., 1988) teachers need to provide contexts of story books ,or students listen to words by using multi-media for learning vocabularies through the contexts of the story books.

Richards said (as cited in Herman & Dole, 1988) "When vocabulary words are being taught to pupils, teachers need to consider how to teach these words to pupils based on the levels of ages, educational background and field of interest. The teachers also ought to recognize such sociolinguistic variables in which the words will be used" (p. 73).

Furthermore, Herman & Dole (1988) believe that if a teacher require to improve their

students' skills in mastering a language ,especially reading and listening , they need to train vocabulary separately and early to their students.

2.2. Dialogue in vocabulary instruction

Many authors agree significances of correct verbal interactions in classrooms (Vygotsky, 1986; Mercer, 1995; Wells, 1999). In these classrooms teachers play important role in engaging their students through developing their languages (Gibbons, 2002, 2006, 2009; Pavlenko & Lantolf, 2002; Wong Fillmore & Snow, 2002; Haneda & Wells, 2008). Teachers may help their students to master in a language, if they focus on languages and interactions of their students (Lee & Fradd, 1996; Elbers & de Haan, 2005).

Barnes and Todd (1977), in their main book *Communication and Learning in Small Groups*, noted that interactions in a classroom through dialogues, discussions or debates need explicit teaching of teachers about conversations of people. They claimed that if teachers try to share vocabularies relevant to the subjects of interactions, students can improve their languages and maintain their interactions effectively.

Mercer and Littleton (2007), agree with this view. They claimed that through effective interactions students can use their knowledge such as vocabularies that teachers presented to them as a social interaction in "mini-society" (B. Kumaravadivelu, 2006) which is called classrooms.

"talk and social interactions are not just the means by which people learn to think, but also how they engage in thinking" (Resnick, Pontecorvo & Säljö, 1997, as cited in Mercer & Littleton, 2007:29) .

Likewise, there are creative dialogues' ideas for teachers that they can refer their students to a dialogue for teaching subjects. Teaching vocabulary in dialogues is a motivation strategy for teaching this element of languages.

Typically a dialogue has a situation in relation with a specific topic. Teachers can use dialogues for activate new vocabularies, while they receives their students' feedbacks of using new vocabularies. Barnes and Todd (1977:127) noted that these preparations help young people in preparing responsible adult life, and such learning improve students' social relationships.

Furthermore teachers introduce new elements of vocabulary such as unknown words, phrasal verbs, or idioms in dialogues, while teaching vocabulary to their students according to their knowledge in order to reach the best vocabulary instruction.

In 1989 Laura and Richard Chasin, Sallyann Roth and their colleagues at the Public Conversations Project in Watertown, Massachusetts, dealt with public disagreements and arguments and they presented family therapy in order to solve the problem of students in interacting with other people in society (see Chasin and Herzog, 1992). Over years in investigating they conclude that students that interact with their families, having dialogue with their families, can interact with people in society better than other students.

Henry (1996) argued that students practice speaking and listening skills through oral dialogue journals. He believed that students through dialogue journal emphasis on "pronunciation, communicating personal needs, introducing elements of their personal lives, overcoming oral communication problems, grammar, vocabulary, and self-evaluation"(p.15).

Through oral dialogue journals, students record their speech on a tape freely and receive feedback from their instructors on the same tape. The purpose of this technique is engaging students in interactions that students use their previous knowledge like vocabularies effectively without being upset about their teachers criticize and evaluations. This task results in positive relation between teachers and

students in using elements of languages effectively (Dr.Elahe Sutude nama , Akram Ramazanzadeh, Year53 No. 222).

According to McGrath (1992), students find out their identity because they can have dialogues on a special topic that they can present their own idea and opinion about different topics individually and freely (Henry, 1989).

Brown (2000) argued that students can discuss orally through oral dialogue journals, and can interact perfectly between themselves and their teachers and receiving appropriate feedbacks about their mistakes in using elements of languages such as vocabulary words so that students can master in a language effectively.

Other researches that vocabulary words require dialogue for learning is dialogue journal writing. It is "a type of written interaction between teachers and students that focuses on meaning rather than form and is a means of developing students' linguistic competence, their understanding of course content, and their ability to communicate in written English" (Peyton, 1990, p. ix).

Students can interact with their teachers through dialogue journal writing outside the classroom for one semester or one year without any fear for error corrections and evaluations. This task is the way that students can use their knowledge like vocabularies through meaningful and effective interactions.

2.3. Disappearing Dialogue

According to Jack C. Richards, after conversations, teachers write all or part of the conversations on the board and then ask student to practice the dialogues in their groups. Meanwhile teacher erase words from the board repeatedly. Gradually students can practices the dialogues without support.

On the other hand, Learners practice a dialogue; words are progressively hidden or erased, until students call their memory

without any support to practice the dialogue.

"As ever with these disappearing dialogues, it was amusing to see them still looking to the board for reminders, even though hardly any of the script remained. It was also pleasing to see them putting effort into the acting side with their facial expressions, tone of voice and body language all in use" (Dodgson D., 2011).

2.4. Reflections of a Teacher and Learner

Scott Thornbury author of How to Teach Speaking cited in Speaking: Awareness, Appropriation, and Autonomy:

"The text of a dialogue is written on the board (or is projected using an overhead projector). Learners practice reading it aloud in pairs (either open or closed), and then the teacher starts erasing sections of it. Initially these sections may simply be individual words, but then whole lines can be removed. By the end of the activity, the dialogue has "moved" from the board into the learners' memory. They can then be challenged to write it out from memory. Finally, learners need to be able to marshal their newly acquired skills and deploy them unassisted and under what are called real operating conditions" (Scott Thornbury, 2007).

3. Methodology

3.1 Participants

The participants in this study were 55 Iranian native speakers learning English as a foreign language in one institute's semester in Mashhad, Iran. All of the participants were homogenous. Their levels were intermediate. They were both male and female. They were teenagers. Participants, males and females are same, are assigned randomly to their control and experimental groups. Participants were not informed about the research study, serial tests, the treatment and so forth. They supposed that they participate in a natural institute's semester.

3.2 Instruments

3.2.1 The Pre-Test, Post-Test and Delay Post-Test

A test of English vocabulary was designed from Interchange 2 learning English text book, third edition, by Jack c. Richards with Jonathan Hull and Susan Proctor to examine the participants' Vocabulary Learning and Retention of EFL Learners. The vocabularies were adapted from unit one to seven of the book. The test was validated by the APSS 16 Software. Also the reliability of the test was trusted of the APSS 16 software. The test made by the author of the study. It has 40 questions' items. It has 20 multiple choice and 20 true/false questions' items. The duration of each exam was 40 minutes. The test was same for pre-test, post-test and delay post-test. Delay post-test was required for evaluating the participant's retentions. The participants were not allowed to use dictionaries during the each exam. The sample of the test is presented in Appendix A. However, before using the test for the purpose of data collection, it was piloted on a small group of subjects to estimate its reliability. The result of the reliability analysis is given below:

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.704	40

3.2.2. Sample TOFEL Test

The study examined the homogeny of the participants with a sample TOEFL test in order to have the participants who are all of the same knowledge and level of proficiency before the pre-test. The sample of the TOFEL test is presented in Appendix B.

3.2.3. APSS 16 software

The study used the software for analyzing data and the results of the pre-test, post-test, delay post-test and the sample TOFEL test. It was used for thrusting the validity and reliability of the tests.

3.3 Procedure

This study was conducted within five months. The participants became homogenous with a sample TOFEL test.

The participants were randomly assigned to two groups: experimental and control groups. Sex was controlled randomly for assigning participants in their groups. Participants were not informed about the research study, serial tests, the treatment and so forth. Each group studied the conversations of the Interchange 2, third edition, by Jack c. Richards with Jonathan Hull and Susan Proctor. Participants studied the conversations from unit one to unit seven. After completing the conversations, participants in both groups received pre-test. Then participants in experimental group received treatment one week later. The treatment is disappearing dialogue which the conversations were written on the board and participants work them in pairs. They took turns practicing the conversations on the board repeatedly. As they practiced, Vocabularies of the conversations were erased from the board. Participants continued to practice the conversations. Gradually participants were able to practice the conversations without supports. The control group received no treatment. The participants in experimental and control groups received post-test one week after the treatment. After one month, the participants received delay post-test for evaluating their retentions. The pre-test, post-test, and delay post-test are same vocabulary tests from the unit one to unit seven conversations' of the Interchange 2.

4. Data Collection and Analysis

The results for the descriptive analysis of the pretest and posttest are shown in tables 1 and 2.

Table 1. Mean score and Standard deviation for pretest

Group Variables	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Control Group	29	11.654	0.458
Experimental Group	26	10.954	0.527

Table 2. Mean score and Standard deviation for posttest

Group	N	Mean	Std.	Std.
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Variables			Deviation	Error Mean
Control Group	29	12.351	0.963	0.193
Experimental Group	26	14.101	0.707	0.151

ones in control group in vocabulary learning.

To compare the group means for the study, an independent t-test analysis was employed for posttest phase (see table 3). As shown in this table, the difference is considered to be statistically significant between the two experimental and control groups ($P < 0.0157$). That is the candidates in experimental group have outperformed the control group. Table 3. Independent Sample T-Test

		F	.Sig	T	df	Sig.(2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Writing Test	Equal variance assumed	1.238	0.254	2.255	44	0.0127	0.630	0.623	0.128	0.132
	Equal variance not assumed			2.255	43.13	0.0127	0.630	0.623	0.139	0.135

This confirms that use of disappearing dialogue improved vocabulary learning of Iranian EFL learners to a great extent. Three weeks after the experiment the students of both groups were asked to participate in a delayed posttest again. The purpose of this test was to see which method of instruction had more impact on the students' vocabulary retentions and could improve their vocabulary learning for longer period of time. Interestingly enough, here again the participants of the experimental group could performed better than the control group (See table 4).

Table 4. Mean and standard deviation for both groups after three weeks

Group Variables	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Control Group	29	13.453	0.656
Experimental Group	26	16.987	0.821

5. Results and discussions

Many learners regard language learning as synonymous with knowing a large number of words by heart. Although it stands to reason that this is not a valid assumption, it should not be forgotten that words constitute a major part of a language

(Bogaards, 2001). Morimoto and Loewen (2007) also point to the mastery of approximately 3000 words and cite five other scholars who hold the very same opinion. Besides, vocabulary is the most sizeable and unmanageable component in the learning of any language (Nation, 1997). With this in mind, there will be the responsibility of helping learners to effectively store and retrieve words in the target language (Sokmen, 1997), and this necessitates the use of effective pedagogical methods in teaching vocabulary. The other incisive dilemma, which one might face when reflecting on vocabulary instruction, is whether explicit instruction is worth the effort we put into it or not. This basic concern gets more noticeable when taking into consideration the benefits of implicit vocabulary learning as reported in the literature. Although the dichotomy of incidental versus explicit vocabulary learning has, at least for some time, been a controversial issue, now many believe that first of all, it is not really safe to think dichotomously in this regard, and that explicit learning is efficient enough. This dichotomy is not a totally valid one because incidental learning occurs along side with explicit learning, and most of implicit learning is out of control (Morin & Goebel, 2001).

In disappearing dialogues, as a method of teaching vocabularies, after conversations are done by the students, teachers write all or part of the conversations on the board and then ask student to practice the dialogues in their groups (Richard, 2010). Meanwhile teacher erase words from the board repeatedly. Gradually students can practices the dialogues without support.

On the other hand, Learners practice a dialogue; words are progressively hidden or erased, until students call their memory without any support to practice the dialogue.

"As ever with these disappearing dialogues, it was amusing to see them still looking to the board for reminders, even though hardly any of the script remained" (Dodgson D., 2011). As discussed earlier,

the candidates in experimental group have outperformed the ones in control group in vocabulary learning. This confirms that use of disappearing dialogue enhanced vocabulary learning of Iranian EFL learners to a great extent. The purpose of the second delayed test was to see which method of instruction had more impact on the students' vocabulary retentions and could sustain their vocabulary learning for longer period of time. Again the participants of the experimental group could perform better than the control group.

6. Conclusion

Although some teachers may think that vocabulary learning is easy, learning new vocabulary items has always been challenging for the learners. Different ways of learning vocabularies are usually utilized by the students such as using flash cards, notebook, referring to bilingual and monolingual dictionaries to decipher the meaning, or giving some synonyms and antonyms to name but a few. In spite of these efforts and invariably experiencing so many difficulties vocabulary is by far the most sizable and unmanageable component.

Generally speaking, vocabulary can be taught in different ways each of which with its own merits and demerits. Learning vocabulary from context or 'incidental learning' as opposed to 'direct intentional learning' are two different ways of learning vocabulary. On the other hand, vocabulary can be learnt 'intentionally' through some strategies and plans. There exist conflicting views among language professionals concerning the relative superiority of two approaches of 'contextualized' and 'de-contextualized' ways of learning.

The results and findings of the present study confirm the significance of instructional method of vocabulary teaching and foremost it supports the use of disappearing dialogues in the vocabulary learning and retention.

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Appendix A

Choose the best answer.

A: I raised my children alone all these days.

B: I see, your children without their mother.

checked up b. grown up c. looked up
d. ran up

Mr. Anderson and their families to their new house by their car.

proved b. wound c met d. moved

A: Hi smith, are you from Brazil?

B: No, I am not. I am from England. What about you?

A: I am from USA.

occasionally b. sufficiently c.
originally d. appropriately

Nancy should buy a new shirt but she doesn't have enough money so she tries to find a in neighboring town.

bank b department store c. beach
d. restaurant

A: hello, I am your new instructor today.

B: hello, my name is Anna Lopez; I don't know anything about skating.

A: no problem., I forgot to say; my name is Ted Blues.

It is lovely b. by the way c. I am
fine d. sure I'd do

Dallas order before his main dish in a restaurant.

desert b. bill c. appetizer d.
extra food

A: Hey, Steve .your mouth smells bad. Do you eat for lunch?

B: oh really, I have to brush my teeth.

rice b. carrot c. potato d. garlic

There are too many road here, I can't find my correct way.

tests b. signs c. abstracts d. trips

A: Hey son, why you come late? It is 10 P.M

B: Sorry mom, I know I should be home before as I promise.

midnight b. dawn c. dusk d.
night

Julia is so untidy she always spread her stuff of her room.
 all over the floor b. in the apartment c. in the hall d. all around the home

Nancy and Julia went to seashore and they decided to there.
 do karate b. go horseback riding
 c. go surfing d. do yoga

A: hi, Jack. I buy lots of things here, but I don't have enough money to pay for the tax.
 B: poor, Jack. Don't you know you must buy your goods from the near your house.
 a. department store b. barber shop
 c. greengrocery d. duty-free shop

Julia is so sad because she cannot provide..... for her children nowadays.
 a. room and board b. indifferent life
 c. poor life d. airplane's board
 14. A: excuse me could you tell me where is the here? I need to change the tickets of my trip.
 B: it is right down the hall.
 a. bank b. transportation counter
 c. beauty salon d.gym
 15. What is a small soft creature that moves very slowly and has a hard shell on its back?
 a. kangaroo b. sailfish
 c. alligator d. snail
 16. A: hello, John. Where is your mother?
 B: hello, Mrs. Green. She is calling her friend right now.
 A: Do you mean she is right now?
 In the kitchen b. in the bedroom
 c. on the phone d. on the car

17. What do you need for relaxing at the beach?
 a. snowboard b. skateboard
 c. surfboard d. blackboard
 18.A: our house is duplex; my brother and I live at the second story.
 B: so you are live at the of this house.
 upstairs b. downstairs c. basement
 d. hall way
 19. Who is the child of your uncle or aunt?
 a. nephew b. baby sister
 c. niece d. cousin
 20 .A: today is my luck day. I number 10 is the winner.
 B: sound like fun, but I think number 12 is the winner.
 ride b. guess c. lend
 d. shake

Answer to these definitions with true or false.
 Neither am I = either am I
 Restroom= lavatory ...
 Turn down ≠turn up
 Delicious ≠ disgusting
 Follow= look after
 Hung up≠ pick up
 Loud ≠quiet
 Definitely=certainly
 Still= yet
 Wish ≠hope
 help around= assist
 leave≠ desert
 I am afraid so= I am sorry
 expect≠ await
 Loud=noisy
 favorite =hated
 wish≠ dislike
 goodness≠ wickedness
 parent= mother or father
 lesson≠ assignment

SUBMISSION GUIDELINES

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Title page: Including the topic of the article, the names of the authors as well as the department or organization they are working for in English, address, telephone number, e-mail and fax.

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Body: Including introduction, review of the related literature, methods of research, results and discussion.

Acknowledgements: (If necessary)

References

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