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THE EFFECT OF ETYMOLOGY INSTRUCTION ON IDIOMATIC CAPABILITY OF IRANIAN INTERMEDIATE EFL LEARNERS

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ABSTRACT
THE PRESENT STUDY ENDEAVORS TO INVESTIGATE THE IMPACT OF ETYMOLOGICAL TREATMENTS ON LEARNING IDIOMS AMONG ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS. FORTY INTERMEDIATE STUDENTS AT ISLAMIC AZAD UNIVERSITY IN TONEKABON WERE SELECTED FROM AMONG A TOTAL NUMBER OF 64 LEARNERS BASED ON THEIR PERFORMANCES ON THE NELSON PROFICIENCY TEST TO FULFILL THE PURPOSE OF THE STUDY. THE STUDENTS WERE THEN ASSIGNED INTO AN EXPERIMENTAL GROUP AND A CONTROL GROUP. INITIALLY, A PRE-TEST OF IDIOMATIC EXPRESSIONS INCLUDING 36 IDIOMATIC ITEMS WAS ADMINISTERED TO THE PARTICIPANTS IN ALL GROUPS. DURING THE INSTRUCTIONAL PERIOD, THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP WAS TAUGHT A GROUP OF ABNORMALLY DECOMPOSABLE IDIOMS THROUGH DIFFERENT TREATMENTS ELABORATION. AT THE END OF THE INSTRUCTIONAL PERIOD, THE PARTICIPANTS IN ALL GROUPS WERE GIVEN A POSTTEST WHICH WAS THE SAME AS THE PRETEST. THE DESIGN OF THIS STUDY IS QUASI-EXPERIMENTAL. THE FINDINGS OF THIS STUDY HAVE IMPLICATIONS FOR EFL TEACHERS, STUDENTS, AND MATERIALS DEVELOPERS.

KEYWORDS: ETYMOLOGICAL TREATMENTS, ETYMOLOGICAL ELABORATION, IDIOMATIC EXPRESSION

Introduction

Failing to remember previously studied idioms serves as one of the most commonly reported difficulties in idiom learning. This article makes an attempt to resolve this complex matter through a practical lesson, which is based on the etymology of the word *hermetic*. This sample lesson is examined both theoretically and practically through teaching it in an advanced class and gathering the students" opinions about it, using a short questionnaire. These opinions show a positive attitude toward the lesson on the part of the students. The importance of idiom learning can be perceived by looking at the body of research done in this regard (e.g. Singleton, 2008), the type of teaching techniques and materials developed (e.g. Gairns & Redman, 1998), and also the number of word lists offered for different purposes (e.g., West, 1953; Nation, 1990; Laufer, 1992; or Cobb, 2002).

Research Questions

In order to investigate the effects of the etymology approach for vocabulary learning, the following research question was generated:

Q1. Does etymology instruction have any significant effect on idiom learning of university EFL students?

Materials and Methods

Participants

The population of the present study included 40 male EFL students at intermediate level of language proficiency who were selected out of 64 learners from Islamic Azad University, Tonekabon branch. After conducting the proficiency test, the participants whose scores were one standard deviation above and below the mean were selected. Due to the existing limitations, no randomization was used in selecting the participants.

Instruments

The following instruments were employed in the present study: a) a standard proficiency test (Nelson Proficiency Test), b) a researcher-made pre/posttest of idioms, and c) some idiomatic pictorial clues.

Nelson Proficiency Test

The first instrument used in this study was an English general language proficiency test adopted from a Nelson Proficiency Test to measure general language proficiency level of the participants and to ensure that they all belonged to the same population. Originally, the test comprised four sections including speaking, listening, reading, and writing. Each of the writing and reading sections had three parts (sign interpretation, two reading texts, and a vocabulary cloze for the reading part; and paraphrasing, letter writing, and story writing for the writing part). The reliability estimate of the test (r=0.78), calculated through Kuder-Richardson formula (KR-21), indicated that the test had a relatively high reliability index and showed that there was an acceptable internal consistency among the items of the test.

Pre/Posttest of Idioms

The pretest consisted of 35 items assessing knowledge of idioms at the level of comprehension. The students were free to elaborate on the meaning of idioms in Persian or in English. A pilot study was done on 14 students and the reliability analysis of the test was confirmed through test-retest method as .76. The same test was administered to the participants at the time of post testing.

Data Collection and Procedure

In order to ensure the homogeneity of the participants and determine the participants' language proficiency, the researcher administered the Nelson Proficiency Test to 64 students. Forty students were selected as intermediate level learners. Intact group method was used in selecting the participants. In other words, the students were non-randomly selected and then randomly assigned to a control group and an experimental group. Initially, the researcher provided the participants with some introductory information about the objectives of the course, the importance of learning idioms, the difficulties of learning and memorizing idioms through verbal definitions, and finally different methods of treating idioms along with the other tools. The participants were administered a proficiency test before being exposed to the treatments. A pretest including the target idiomatic expressions was administered to the target population to assess the students' degree of familiarity with the target items in the second instructional session. The participants in the experimental group followed a procedure different from the one pursued in the first group. They were provided with some handouts including the etymology of the idioms. In the thirteenth session, the participants in the three groups had to review the idioms they had learned during the instructional period. Finally, a posttest was administered to the participants in the ultimate session to assess the students' degree of achievement.

Results & Findings

Results of Pretest

The major question addressed in this study was whether the use of etymology strategy would improve Iranian EFL learners' idiom learning at the upper-intermediate level of language proficiency. Before the implementation of treatment (i.e., etymology instruction), the researcher administered a researcher-made idiom pretest to experimental and control groups in order to compare the two groups' means obtained from the pretest. To capture the initial differences between the two groups' means on pretest, a t-test was applied. The results appear in Tables 1 and 2. Based on Table 1, the means of experimental group and control group are 39.06, 37.23, respectively. Based on Table 2, the results obtained from t-test revealed that the two groups did not differ significantly in their performance on the pre-test at .05 level of significance. The degree of structural significance .050 is more than α=.05. So there is no significant difference between experimental and control groups from their overall performance point of view.

Table1. Descriptive Statistics for Pretest Results on Vocabulary Test for Both Groups

Group	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Experimental	39.06	30	4.107	.878
Control	37.23	30	3.971	.798

Table2. Independent Sample T-Test

Pretest Difference	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Confidence interval of difference		T	df	sig(2-tailed)
				Lower	Upper			
Exp and Control	2.13	7.541	1.163	-.12	4.27	1.43	27	0.050*

Results of Posttest for Both Groups

In order to see whether the treatment given to the experimental group had caused any significant change in this group and to see if the participants in this group had performed significantly different on the posttest, another independent t-test was run. The results obtained from this statistical test are presented in Table 3 below. The independent sample t-test demonstrated in Table 4 indicated that the mean difference between the experimental and control groups' scores measured at the time of posttest was significant. There is, in fact, a mean difference of 4.43 points between the means of the two groups. As Table 4 shows, the level of significant .026 is greater than the probability value, P-value = 0.026> α =.05. This indicates that the experimental group outperformed the control group. In other words, it reveals that the treatment given had affected the experimental group.

Table3. Descriptive Statistics for Post-test

Group	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Experimental	42.93	30	5.247	.860
Control	37.70	30	5.630	1.021

Table4. Independent Sample T-Test

Pretest Difference	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Confidence interval of difference		T	df	sig(2-tailed)
				Lower	Upper			
Exp and Control	4.43	7.709	1.407	.25	7.11	2.187	27	0.026*

Discussion

Idiomaticity has recently attracted considerable attention in linguistics, psycholinguistics and psychology (Cacciari & Tabbosi, 1993). In other words, languages contain many formulaic phrases and expressions that every speaker must learn. According to Bobrow & Bell (1973) and Boers et al. (2004), languages contain many phrases and expressions that every speaker should learn. Because language production concentrates on an ability to string multi-word expressions, people don`t seem proficient speakers of the foreign language until they master many idioms that are used in every day discourse. The results of the study suggest that reference to the idiom origin in the presentation stage can facilitate the acquisition of both idiom meaning and their linguistic form. Etymological background is likely to have promoted the creation of mental images for the target expressions that were stored alongside their verbal forms, facilitating their retention and recall. However, it is important to remember that the mnemonic effect of etymological input varied depending on the nature of the task (receptive vs. productive knowledge) and the stage of the experiment (immediate vs. delayed post-test). The data from this study indicate that students in experimental group significantly outperformed the students in control group in idiom learning through the etymology method. The results obtained via this experiment can be a source of motivation for both teachers and learners to take advantage of etymological awareness to deal with this aspect of language. These results reveal that figurative aspect of many idioms is not arbitrary; rather, there is an origin or story behind many of them, and reviving such stories can be a crucial factor in learning idiom. There is a correlation between this study and findings.

Conclusion

When undergraduates embark on the study of a particular discipline in second language acquisition, they must absorb a core English idioms specific to an academic discipline. For this, it is imperative that they become literate in the jargon, the technical terms, and specialized idioms of the field. They

must absorb a core English idiom specific to an academic discipline. Each day that students progress in a target discipline, they are encountering this core idiom which conveys the intellectual flow of discipline.

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USING EXPLICIT FLUENCY TRAINING TO IMPROVE THE READING COMPREHENSION OF SECOND GRADE CHINESE IMMIGRANT STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT
THIS STUDY EVALUATED THE EFFECTS OF EXPLICIT FLUENCY TRAINING ON THE READING COMPREHENSION OF FOUR 2ND GRADE ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS (ELLS). THE STUDY CONSISTED OF TWO EXPERIMENTAL CONDITIONS: GROUP INSTRUCTION (GI) AND GROUP INSTRUCTION WITH FLUENCY READING TRIALS (GI&FRT). GI CONSISTED OF SMALL GROUP READING INSTRUCTION INVOLVING VOCABULARY DISCUSSIONS, ROUND ROBIN READING, SILENT READING, AND ORAL READING. THE SAME PROCEDURES WERE USED DURING THE GI&FRT, EXCEPT THAT INSTEAD OF BEING ASKED TO READ THE PASSAGE THREE TIMES SILENTLY PRIOR TO READING ORALLY, STUDENTS WERE ASKED TO READ THE PASSAGE ALOUD THREE TIMES AS QUICKLY AND ACCURATELY AS THEY COULD PRIOR TO THE ORAL READING ASSESSMENT. THE RESULTS SHOWED A STEADY INCREASE IN ORAL READING FLUENCY UNDER BOTH EXPERIMENTAL CONDITIONS. HOWEVER, THERE WAS AN INCREASE IN COMPREHENSION DURING EXPLICIT FLUENCY TRAINING (GI&FRT) CONDITIONS ACROSS ALL FOUR STUDENTS.

The Center for Immigration Studies (Center) in Washington DC reported that more than three million new legal and illegal immigrants in the United States in 2014 and 2015, a 39 percent increase over the previous two years. The number of legal and illegal residing in the US is higher than during the 2007 economic recession and may match levels in 2000 and 2001 (Camarota, 2016). The Center also found that, in 2016, the total immigration population in the US is estimated at approximately 43 million. Recently, there has been a surge of immigrants, both legal and illegal, from the regions of Latin American countries other than Mexico, South Asia (e.g., India and Pakistan), and East Asia (e.g., China and Vietnam) (Camarota, 2016).

According to the U.S. Census Bureau's most recent data, of 291.5 million people aged 5 and over in 2011, 60.6 million people (21 percent of US population) spoke a language other than English at home (Ryan, 2013). The number of children enrolling in American schools who take English as a second language is rapidly growing (Cartledge, Gardner, & Ford, 2008; Conger, Schwartz, & Stiefel, 2003; National Center for Education Statistics, 2016). In fact, the percentage of public school students in the US who were English language learners (ELLs) was higher in the 2013-14 school year, an estimated 4.5 million students, than in 2003-04, an estimated 4.2 million. ELLs represented

approximately 9.3 percent of the national public school population in 2013-14 (National Center for Education Statistics, 2016). ELLs are students who come from homes where a language other than English is spoken, and who score below a state-designated proficiency level on a test of English language skills (New York City Department of Education, 2015).

In 2013-14, 139,843 students were designated as ELLs in New York City (NYC) schools, making up about 14.3 percent of the city's public school student population (New York City Department of Education, 2015). Approximately 49 percent of all ELLs are foreign born, or have parents who are foreign born. In 2013-14, 43.3 percent (or 423,189 students) of all New York City Department of Education students reported speaking a language other than English at home (New York City Department of Education). Nationally, Spanish is the home language for the majority of ELLs (Gollnick & Chinn, 2013), followed by Chinese (Ryan, 2013). In NYC schools, 14.2 percent (22, 170 students) of ELLs speak Chinese in their homes.

Chinese ELLs have not always received the same level of focus from educators and researchers as ELLs of other minority groups (Asian American Legal Defense and Education Fund, 2008). This could be attributed to the widespread stereotype of academic success among Asian and Asian-American students that may engender less concern for the special needs of struggling learners from Asian families (Doan, 2006; Lee, 2009; Tam, 2002). Moreover, there has been a distinct dearth of educational programs and services designed specifically for this group of students (Ramanathan, 2006; Yau & Jimenez, 2003).

English Language Instruction

The increasing number of immigrant children has generated interest among educators, and has led to a growing body of research on how students from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds acquire English in schools (Institute of Education Science, 2007, 2014; Gersten & Baker, 2000). The fact remains that ELLs comprise one of the largest groups of students who have difficulty developing English literacy, in general, and vocabulary and comprehension, in particular (August, Carlos, Dressler, & Snow, 2005; Denton, Anthony, Parker, & Hasbrouck, 2004; McMaster, Kung, Han, & Cao, 2008).

The purpose of English language instruction is to promote the rapid acquisition of English language skills for students who enter school with limited English (Connell & Resnick, 2004). The two basic programs for promoting English language instruction for ELLs are bilingual education and English as a Second Language (ESL) program (Gollnick & Chinn, 2013). Bilingual education programs accept and include native language instruction in the educational process. English as a Second Language (ESL) programs only utilize English for instruction (Gollnick & Chinn, 2013). The dominant English acquisition program in the U.S. has been ESL (Gollnick & Chinn, 2013; Pang, 1995).

Reading Instruction

An important initial step in becoming literate in English is the ability to read accurately with understanding. While there is a growing body of literature focused on the instructional language for ELLs, there is less known about the instructional components most critical to the development of reading skills for these students (Mathes, Pollard-Durodola, Cardenas-Hagan, Linan-Thompson, & Vaughn, 2007).

If immigrant students are to experience success in American schools, educators must develop effective reading strategies for these students. English reading proficiency is the single most important skill required for success in American schools. The National Reading Panel (NRP)'s extensive review of reading research (2000) identified phonemic awareness, phonological awareness, fluency, vocabulary, and text comprehension as essential components for developmental reading programs. Additionally, the NRP identified key directions for further research to examine the relationship between guided oral reading instruction and the development of fluency. In particular, the NRP identified a need for research into specific components of instructional practice (e.g., oral reading, guidance, repetition) most responsible for improved fluency. The panel noted a pressing need for rigorous experimental research on the impact of specific elements of instructional programs on different student populations (NRP). Reading "fluency" consists of speed, accuracy and prosody (Bursuck & Damar, 2015; Chard, Vaughn, & Tyler, 2002). Fluency is a critical but often overlooked component of reading programs (Kame'enui & Simmons, 2001). The U.S. National Research Council's Committee for the Prevention of Reading Failure noted that:

. . . because the ability to obtain meaning from print depends so strongly on the development of word recognition accuracy and reading fluency, both the latter should be regularly assessed in the classroom, permitting timely and effective instructional response when difficulty or delay is apparent. (Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998, p. 7)

Fluency

While there is some debate as to the nature of the relationship between fluency and comprehension, research generally indicates that an increase in one leads to an increase in the other (Stevens, Walker, & Vaugh, 2016). Many struggling readers have not developed automaticity or fluency in reading (Bursuck & Damer, 2015). LeBarge and Samuels' automaticity theory generated interest among researchers about the influence of reading fluency on overall reading achievement (Fuchs, Fuchs, Hosp, & Jenkins, 2001). The theory of automaticity suggests that slow reading consumes working memory and prevents the individual from actively thinking about the text meaning while reading (Chard et al., 2002; LeBarge & Samuels, 1974).

Kuhn and Stahl (2003) reviewed the literature on fluency and reading, they found that teachers should engage in fluency training more frequently because it improves both reading accuracy and comprehension. Fluency serves as a connector between decoding and comprehension that allows students to increase their overall reading achievement (Carnine, Silbert, Kame'enui, & Tarver, 2009). Researchers have found oral reading fluency to be a strong indicator of reading competence (Kame'enui & Simmons, 2001). Good, Simmons, and Kame'enui (2001) found fluency-based indicators to be effective predictors of reading success for elementary school students.

Breznitz (1987) conducted four experiments on first grade students in both Israel and the United States to determine the effects of accelerated reading rates on students' ability to decode mistakes and to comprehend altered and unaltered test passages. In a fast-paced condition in all four experiments, students were required to maintain their own maximal oral reading rates. When presented with texts at students' maximal reading rates, students made fewer oral reading errors and attained higher reading comprehension scores compared to text presented at slower rates. In these experiments, poor readers, in particular, showed improvements when they experienced reading conditions that required and encouraged them to read faster.

Repeated reading is one strategy that has demonstrated effectiveness in improving students' oral reading fluency and comprehension (Chard et al., 2002; Gorsuch & Taguchi, 2010; Therrien & Kubina, 2006). Therrien, Gormley, and Kubina (2006) recommended combining fluency training and question asking in order to boost students' overall reading achievement.

Using a multiple baseline across subjects experimental design, Tam, Heward and Heng (2006) examined the effects of an intervention program consisting of vocabulary instruction, error correction, and fluency building on the oral reading rates and reading comprehension of five ELLs who were struggling readers. There were two intervention conditions in which ELLs received vocabulary instruction, error correction and fluency training. During the first fluency training condition, each student was asked to read a new passage as quickly and accurately as possible for three consecutive trials in each experimental session. In the second fluency training condition, the same passage was used across sessions until individual students reached a predetermined number of words read correctly per minute (repeated readings). All the students improved their oral reading rates and reading comprehension during the two intervention conditions, as compared with their performance in the baseline phase. All students performed at their highest level of reading accuracy rate and comprehension during the second fluency training condition (repeated reading). Repeated readings helped four of five students reach the predetermined fluency criterion of 100 correct words per minute. There was also improved reading comprehension during the fluency training condition on comprehension of untaught reading passages.

The purpose of this study was to continue to investigate the effects of fluency training on improving the reading comprehension and oral reading rate of immigrant children, specifically Chinese second graders in a public school bilingual class.

The three research questions were:

1. What effect will Group instruction and Group instruction with fluency training have on the reading comprehension of immigrant Chinese students?
2. What effect will Group instruction and Group instruction with fluency training have on the reading comprehension of novel reading passages?

3. What effect will Group instruction and Group instruction with fluency training have on the oral reading fluency of immigrant Chinese students?

Method

Setting and Participants

This research project was conducted in a public primary school in a major metropolitan area in the U.S, in an area known as Chinatown. The school has a diverse student population, comprised predominantly of Chinese students with smaller numbers of African-American, Hispanic and Caucasian students. The particular school was chosen because of its sizable population of new immigrant students, many of these students were struggling to learn English as a second language. One month before the start of the research project, the teacher-researcher (who is fluent in both English and Chinese) began daily visits to the school for the purpose of developing relationships with the students in the classroom. The class was a bilingual class comprising 23 first and second graders. The teacher-researcher took responsibility for the daily reading instruction for the second graders while the classroom teacher taught the first graders.

Four immigrant Chinese students in the bilingual class were identified for the project. The four participants had strong mathematics skills but they were struggling to learn English language skills. Instructional sessions with the four 2nd graders were held in a quiet area near the students' home room. The four participants were identified for the study because: (a) each participant was formally identified by the local educational agency as an ELL, (b) the principal and teacher recommended each participant for additional reading instruction, and (c) parental consent was obtained for the student.

At the time of the study, all the participants in the project were new immigrants who had lived in the U.S. for a period ranging from one year to two-and-a-half years. An initial reading assessment was completed for each participant using the *Brigance Diagnostic Inventory of Basic Skills* (Brigance, 1983). All four participants attained lower first grade level in the word recognition, oral reading and reading comprehension subtests (see Table 1).

Alice. Alice was a 7-year-old girl who was born in Mainland China. Her first language was Fukinese/Chinese. Alice had one older brother and one older sister. She lived with her parents in Chinatown. Alice attended an after-school program for children who lacked academic supervision at home.

Dexin. An 8-year-old boy born in Mainland China and the only child in the family, Dexin's native language was Fukinese/Chinese. He lived in Chinatown with his grandparents. Dexin's parents worked in a Chinese restaurant in another state, and were only able to spend time with him during his summer holidays and during the Chinese New Year holidays. Dexin attended an after-school program for children who lacked academic supervision at home.

Rui. Rui was an 8-year-old boy who was born in Mainland China. His first language was Fukinese/Chinese. Rui had no sibling and his biological father stayed in China. He lived with his mother and stepfather in Chinatown. Rui attended an after-school program for children who lacked academic supervision because his mother worked long hours every day.

Wing. Wing was an 8-year-old girl who was born in Hong Kong. Her first language was Cantonese/Chinese. She had no sibling and her parents were divorced. Wing's mother went back to Hong Kong and she stayed with her father in Chinatown. As with the other three children, Wing attended an after-school program for children who lacked academic supervision at home.

Dependent Variables

The number of correct and incorrect responses to comprehension questions from passages read during reading group was the primary dependent variable. The number of correct and incorrect words participants read per minute, as well as responses to comprehension questions from novel reading passages were also analyzed.

Comprehension. Reading comprehension was defined as the child's ability to respond correctly to comprehension questions about the selected reading stories. Comprehension was measured as the number of correct answers to literal and inferential comprehension questions drawn from the reading passage used in the study. Pupils were given five seconds to answer orally each comprehension question. For each passage, six comprehension questions were developed, comprising two inferential (e.g., what does this story teach us? What is the main idea of this story? If you were the character, what would you do to help Tabby?) and four literal comprehension questions (e.g., What type of plane does Mr. Putter like most? What did John's mother do after she was told about John's

trouble?). There was only one correct answer to each literal comprehension question, and although a little more thought was needed before responding to inferential comprehension questions, similar responses to those on a prepared answer key were accepted.

Novel passages. Reading comprehension was also measured on novel or untrained passages. Novel passages were written text that had not been used during instruction and were not available to a participant prior to the time the participant was asked to read the text silently and respond to comprehension questions. The same data collection procedures used for the trained passages was used for the novel passages.

Oral reading fluency. Oral reading fluency was defined as the number of words read correctly in one minute. Words read correctly per minute were defined as the number of words a participant pronounced correctly that corresponded to the words in the printed passage, during the 1-minute timing. Five types of oral reading errors were recorded: omissions, substitutions, repetitions, insertions and reversals. The participant would sit at the table with the first author (i.e., teacher-researcher). Both the teacher-researcher and the student would have a copy of the reading in front of them. The teacher-researcher would start the tape-recorder. When the participant began reading the first word, the teacher-researcher would start the timer. The teacher-researcher would mark each reading error. When the timer sounded after 1 min., the teacher-researcher would put a vertical line after the last word read by the participant. The teacher-researcher then counted all of the unmarked words from the beginning of the story to the vertical line as the correct words read.

Research Design

A multiple baseline across subjects research design was used to analyze the effects of intervention on the dependent variables (Cooper, Heron, & Heward, 2007). The multiple baseline is an effective design for evaluating the effects of intervention on target behaviors in which the withdrawal of the effective intervention is not required to demonstrate experimental control (Cooper et al., 2007).

Procedures

Initial Reading Assessment. At the start of the study, a reading assessment for each participant using the *Brigance Diagnostic Inventory of Basic Skills* (1983) was conducted. The teacher-researcher shared the assessment data with the classroom teacher. The teacher-researcher and classroom teacher then determined the reading materials to be used in the study. Reading passages selected from commercial reading materials (e.g., Reading for Understanding by Taught Fair, Inc.) were used for the project. The beginning level second grade reading materials were selected for all participants based on the assessment data. The passages contained 90 – 110 words. All passages were typed, double-spaced in 16-point Times New Roman font on 8 1/2" x 11" sheets of paper. Accompanying pictures or titles of reading passages (if any) were deleted so that students had to obtain answers to the comprehension questions from the text itself (Vargas, 1984).

Baseline-Group Instruction (GI). In order to examine the effects of fluency trials on learner oral reading rate and reading comprehension, the teacher-researcher used GI as the baseline condition in which the learner did not receive any fluency training. GI comprised two segments: (a) group instruction, and (b) individual practice. During GI, participants were instructed to read an instructional passage silently twice and underline words they could not pronounce and/or define. Each participant raised his or her hand when he or she had finished reading the passage. The teacher-researcher then read the passage to the participants and required them to follow along by pointing to each word as the teacher-researcher read. The teacher-researcher would periodically look-up when he was reading the passage and praise children for following along with their fingers or redirect them to point to each word if they were not doing so. The teacher-researcher instructed and modeled oral reading skills: reading with expression and reading at an appropriate rate, pronouncing word endings, and pausing at periods and commas. After hearing the passage read, participants were asked to define the words they underlined. Participants were also encouraged to define words by using context clues. The teacher-researcher verified the accuracy of participants' definitions, praising participants for correct definitions as well as crediting effort even when definitions were inaccurate. Incorrect responses were immediately corrected with the teacher-researcher supplying the correct definition. The teacher-researcher then read the passage a second time followed by a review of the vocabulary words. Participants were asked about words they did not know or could not pronounce. If participants still could not define a word, the teacher-researcher would again define the word. Round-robin reading

then followed. The participants were randomly called on to read to increase their focus during instruction (Bursuck & Damer, 2015). The entire passage was read using this method. The same round-robin reading procedure was conducted again, but the second time, participants were asked to read multiple sentences (i.e., 2 to 3 sentences). Participants were given the opportunity to raise questions, if any, about the passage.

Following the round robin reading during GI, individualized practice was conducted for each participant. Each participant read a passage silently three times, after which the participant were given another opportunity to raise questions about the passage. The teacher-researcher audio-taped each participant reading the passage orally.

During individual instruction, the teacher-researcher called a particular participant over to a designated individual-instruction table. For each session, the order in which different participants were called upon for individual instruction varied. The remaining participants were assigned independent seatwork at a separate group table in an unrelated subject (i.e., math). At the group table, participants put on headsets and listened to soft background instrumental music while they worked on their assignments. The music decreased the possibility that they could overhear their classmate's oral reading and responses to comprehension questions. A behavioral management plan for the participants at the group table was also implemented. Each participant received stickers when he or she completed an independent assignment and behaved appropriately while the teacher-researcher was working with another participant.

At the individual instruction table, the teacher-researcher turned on the tape recorder and this signaled the beginning of the session as the teacher-researcher gave the participant an instructional passage to read. The participant was praised for his or her efforts during individual instruction (i.e., oral reading and comprehension questions), after which the participant returned to work on independent seatwork assignments at the group table. Another participant was called upon for individual instruction and the process continued until all four participants completed individual instruction.

Intervention-Group Instruction and Fluency Reading Trials (GI&FRT). In the Group Instruction and Fluency Reading Trials condition, explicit fluency reading was introduced as part of the reading program. During GI&FRT, the same procedures used in GI condition were implemented. As part of the individualized instruction, each participant was asked to read aloud an instructional passage three times. Before each reading, the participant was told to read as quickly and accurately as possible, and to omit words he/she did not know. Before the second reading, the participant was informed of the speed of the first reading and encouraged to improve on the number of words read correctly. The third reading proceeded in the same fashion, with the participant being encouraged to improve on the speed of the second reading. The audio-taping of each participant's oral reading occurred following these three readings.

Generality Probes. Generality probes were administered throughout the study to examine whether transfer of training occurred. A new untaught passage at each participant's instructional reading level was used for each probe. The purpose of the probes was to find out if improvement in reading comprehension would transfer to novel reading passages. Participants did not have to read the passage aloud during the probes. They were given five minutes to read a passage, after which they were asked six questions on the passage. Each participant's response to each comprehension question was recorded.

Monitoring Intervention Procedures to Enhance Believability of the Data

Each participant's oral reading and responses to comprehension questions were audio-taped to provide a permanent product for recording reading rate as well as to obtain interobserver agreement (IOA) data. After each reading session, the tape was replayed and all words incorrectly read were marked. The number of correct and incorrect words read, the total amount of time each participant engaged in reading the passage, as well as correct responses to comprehension questions were noted.

Interobserver Agreement on Dependent Variables

A random sample comprising 20% of all reading sessions was selected. A word-by-word and answer-by-answer comparison was made. The homeroom teacher served as the second observer in the computation of the IOA. Mean IOA for words read correctly per minute for all four participants was 95.8% (with a range from 90.4% to 98.7%). The mean agreement for correct answers to comprehension questions was 100% for all four participants for all observed sessions.

Procedural Reliability

The homeroom teacher who served as the independent observer completed a procedural checklist which contains the specific sequence of instruction and feedback statements for 20% of each experimental condition. A step-by-step score was calculated based on the observations for the required elements of each session. Procedural reliability was 100% for all sessions observed during GI, GI&FRT and generality probes.

Results

Tables 2 and 3 summarize the mean number and range of words read correctly per minute, as well as the correct responses to comprehension questions by each ELL participant across the two experimental conditions.

Reading Comprehension

There was an improvement in reading comprehension once GI&FRT condition was implemented across all four participants. All participants showed an increase in comprehension scores on GI&FRT as compared to baseline condition of GI only (see Figure 1 and Table 2). Alice, Dexin, Wing and Rui registered an increase in the mean number of correct responses to comprehension questions, with increases of 1.7, 1.7, 1.4, and 1.6 more correct responses, respectively. On average, participants registered an increase of 1.6 more correct responses. For generality probes on novel, untaught passages, Alice, Xin, Chun and Riu registered increases of 0.5, 0.7, 0.3, and 0.1 more correct responses, respectively. The average increase across participants was 0.4 more correct responses (see Table 3).

Oral Reading Rate

A functional relationship between reading fluency training and oral rate was not found, although all the participants did experience increased reading fluency. There was a steady increase in reading fluency across both experimental conditions for all 4 participants. Figure 2 presents the steady increase in the oral reading rate of one of the ELL participants, Dexin.

As compared to GI, GI&RFT led to an increase in the mean number of correct words read per minute for all four participants, with increases of 27.6, 38.2, 36.7, and 37.4 words for Alice, Dexin, Wing and Rui, respectively. The average gain across participants is 35 more correct words read per minute (see Table 3).

Discussion

This study analyzed the effects of fluency reading trials paired with group instruction on the comprehension and oral reading rate of elementary ELLs. Specifically, this study involved four 2nd grade Chinese immigrant students who were reading below grade level. This is an ethnic population often overlooked in research studies of academic difficulties. It is well-documented, however, that when children have reading deficits in elementary school, they will continue to experience reading difficulties throughout their schooling unless teachers provide direct and systematic instruction to develop the needed reading skills (Bursuck & Damer, 2015; Vaughn et al., 2000)

While there was steady improvement in reading comprehension for all for participants during Group Instruction (GI) the introduction of explicit reading fluency trials prompted an immediate increase in the ability of the participants to respond to comprehension questions. This is consistent with other researchers' findings about the relationship between fluency and comprehension (Breznitz, 1987; Stephens et al., 2016; Vaugh et al., 2000). Figure 1 shows in the GI condition that each participant was making gradual process in his or her ability to respond to comprehension questions. However, with the implementation of fluency trials, there was an immediate sequential improvement in text comprehension across the four participants. The data shows a correlation between the implementation of the fluency trials and improved correct responding to comprehension questions. The data indicates that the GI condition only was effective in providing a gradual improvement in text comprehension, possibly due to the direct instruction of vocabulary. Fluency trials, however, accelerated the students' abilities to respond to accurately to comprehension questions. Interestingly, the questions that were most frequently missed during the GI condition were inferential questions. Intuitively, it seems that inferential questions would require more thinking time. In other words, increasing the oral reading speed would seem to decrease the amount of time participants would have to think about inferences in the passages. However, the increased oral speed seemed to promote a better understanding of the text, including inferences. This study did not analyze why this phenomenon might have occurred, but this study seems to provide further validation for LeBarge

and Samuels (1974) theory of automaticity. Hence, as oral reading accuracy becomes more automatic, the individual is able to focus more on other reading tasks, such as understanding the text.

Additionally, this study lends some empirical support to the effectiveness of vocabulary instruction, round-robin reading, and fluency reading trials for teaching ELLs, and contributes to the limited work in this area (Foorman, Goldenberg, Carlson, Saunders, & Pollard-Durodola, 2004; Gersten & Baker, 2000; Mathes et al., 2007; Nixon, McCardle, & Leos, 2007). The study also adds to the small body of experimental studies that show ELLs benefit from direct, structured and systematic instruction (e.g., Rousseau & Tam, 1991; Rousseau, Tam, & Ramnarain, 1993; Tam et al.,, 2006).

When participants were encouraged to read faster during the GI and GI&FRT conditions, participants did so without decreases in accuracy. Participants were able to read over 100 correct words per minute in most sessions during the GI&FRT conditions. The fact is that there was a steady increase in reading fluency across all four participants across both experimental conditions. The increase was steady and consistent, seemingly unaffected by introduction of the fluency trials during the multiple baseline experimental design.

Markell and Deno (1977) stated that oral reading performance is a reliable indicator of reading comprehension and that "only when the oral reading scores increase by a substantial amount—perhaps 15 to 20 words read correctly—can improvement be confidently predicted" (p. 249). The reading scores of all participants in this study increased to more than 20 words read correctly after they began to receive group instruction. Moreover, as one study pointed out, prompting participants to read faster than their normal pace increases their comprehension, whereas a slower than normal pace decreases comprehension (Breznitz, 1987). Poor readers, in particular, improved their reading accuracy and comprehension significantly when they were in fast-paced reading. The results of this study show that fluency training improved comprehension scores.

Transfer of Learning

Although all participants increased their oral reading rate and number of correct responses to comprehension questions on taught passages, there were only modest gains in comprehension on untaught passages. Participants registered notably fewer correct responses to comprehension questions in the generality probes on untaught passages as compared to scores on taught passages, and showed greater difficulty on inferential (as compared to literal) comprehension questions. This suggests that ELLs might need to be purposefully instructed to promote reading generality. This points to the need for teachers to use proven generality strategies to promote students' ability to better comprehend novel readings.

Classroom Implications

This study's results show that teachers can improve ELLs' ability to comprehend text through explicit and systematic instruction that includes vocabulary instruction and high levels of active student responding. The results further demonstrate that the use of fluency trials in effective reading instruction can rapidly boost students' comprehension skills. Fluency trials are relatively easy for teachers to implement and are also easily implemented by student peers.

Fluency trials can be developed using the materials that already exist in the classroom and require a minimal amount of time during the school day. This low investment strategy, however, seems to provide a great benefit to students, including ELLs. Fluency training may have its greatest benefit for those students experiencing reading difficulties or at risk for reading problems. Therefore, making it an effective supplement to the regular school reading instruction

Limitations

Although the present reading program helped all the participants improve their reading fluency and reading comprehension on taught passages, the external validity of this study is limited since the number of participants is small and all of the participants are Chinese immigrants.

This study does not show a functional relationship between oral reading rate and fluency trials. Instead, there is a steady improvement of oral reading rate across the experimental conditions. Possibly different results would have been obtained on reading rates if criterion for oral reading rates were included in the study.

There is a possible ceiling effect for comprehension questions as only six questions per passage were used in this study. It is not known if the participants would have been able to demonstrate even more progress with an increased number of comprehension questions.

Lack of pre-post reading assessments in a limitation that prevents the possible demonstration of student improvement on standardized achievement test. Future research should include a comparison of reading achievement before and after intervention.

Summary

The present study showed that a reading program comprising group instruction and fluency reading trials led to increases in the oral reading rate and reading comprehension scores of four ELL students. Similar to the reading activities developed by Tam et al (2006) for ELLs, all participants in this study were offered opportunities to participate in meaningful literacy activities such as adequate feedback and practice, and opportunities to read and to experience success (Yoon, 2007). The study has contributed to the limited body of research on teaching ELL students, and has made recommendations for the use of explicit fluency training to improve reading comprehension for a small, relatively marginalized group of struggling readers.

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Table 1
Demographic school-related data for student participants.

Student	Gender	Age	Ethnicity	Native Language	Entered School	Grade	WR[1]	OR[1]	RC[1]
					in US (no. of yrs.)				
Alice	F	7	Chinese	Chinese (Dialect)	2 years & 5 months	2nd	1st	1st	1st
Dexin	M	8	Chinese	Chinese (Fukinese)	2 years	2nd	1st	1st	1st
Wing	F	8	Chinese	Chinese (Cantonese)	1 year American	2nd	1st	1st	1st
Rui	M	8	Chinese	Chinese (Fukinese)	1 year American	2nd	1st	1st	1st

Notes:
1 = Brigance Inventory of Basic Skills administered prior to study; WR = word recognition; OR = oral reading; RC = reading comprehension.

Table 2
Mean number of comprehension questions answered correctly by each ELL student in each experimental condition

Student	Group Instruction	Group Instruction & Fluency Reading Trials
Alice	3.7	5.4

MJLTM

	(0.8)[a]	(1.3)
Dexin	3.9	5.6
	(1.6)	(2.3)
Wing	4.4	5.8
	(2.3)	(2.6)
Rui	4.3	5.9
	(3.0)	(3.1)
Group Mean	4.1	5.7
	(1.9)	(2.3)

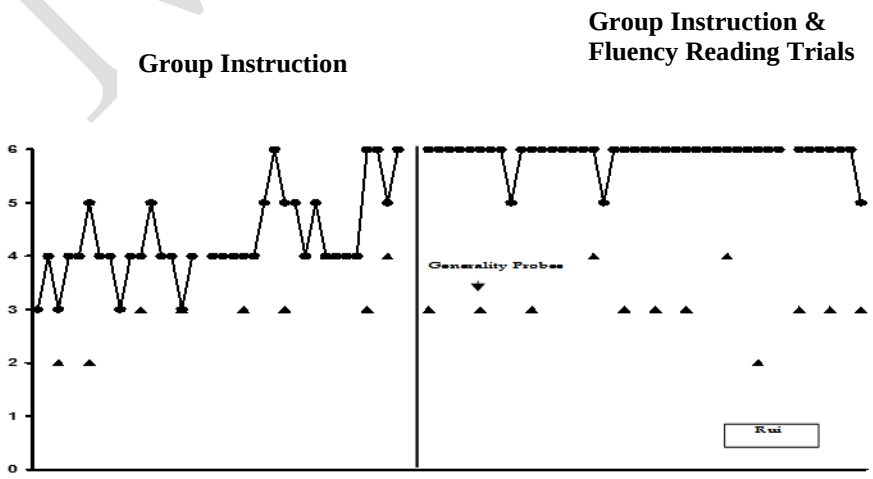
Note:
a = Generality Probes

Table 3
The mean number and range of words read correctly per minute in each experimental condition by each ELL students

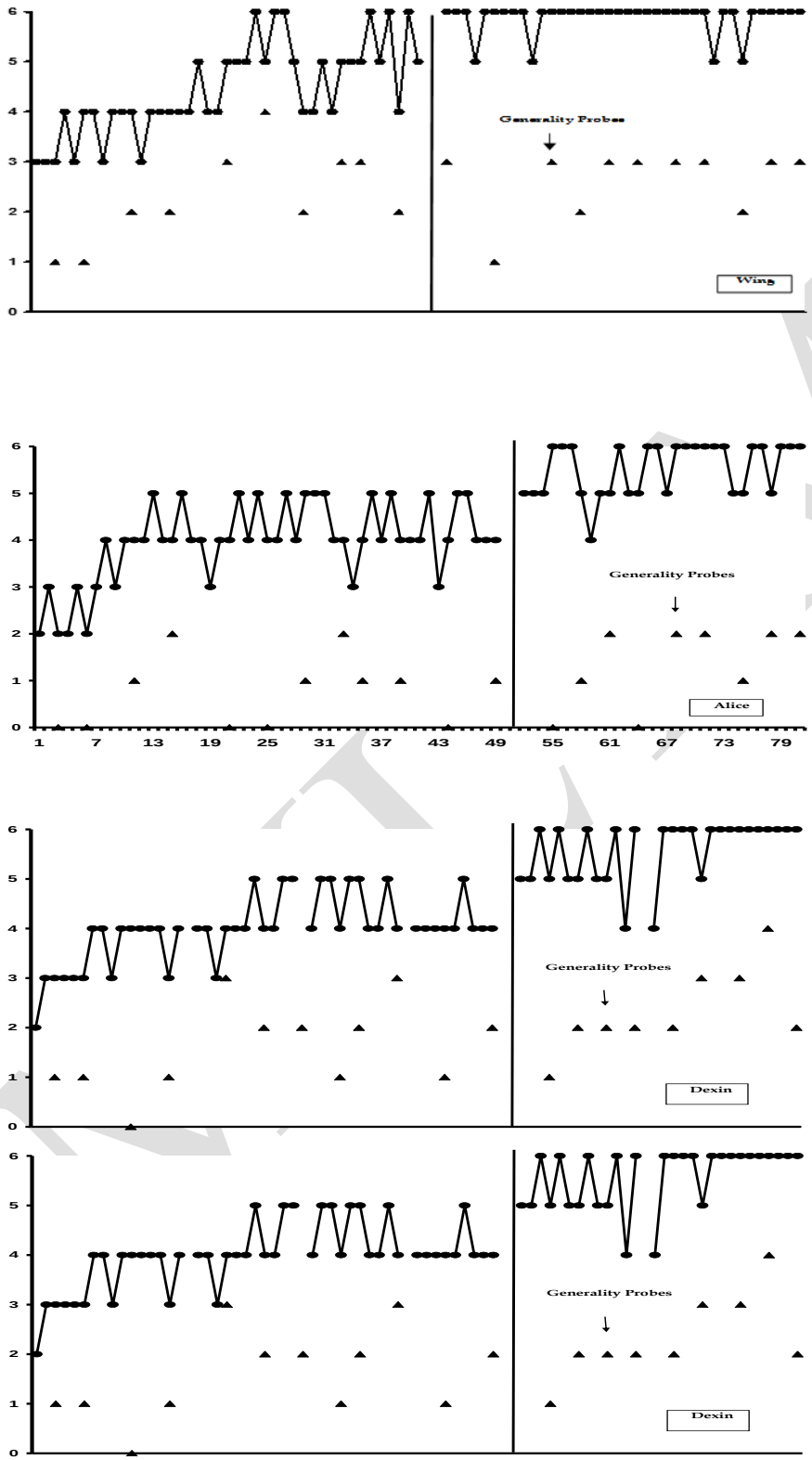
Student	Group Instruction	Group Instruction & Fluency Reading Trials
Alice	72.8[a]	100.4
(46-88)[b]	(87-113)	
Dexin	71.5	109.7
	(45-89)	(91-123)
Wing	82	118.7
	(58-96)	(98-132)
Rui	84.1	121.5
	(61-96)	(98-133)
Group Mean	77.6	112.6

Notes:
a = The mean number of words read correctly per minute.
b = The range.

Figure 1. Number of correct answers to comprehension questions by four second-grade English language learners per experimental session.



Number of Correct Answers to Comprehension Questions



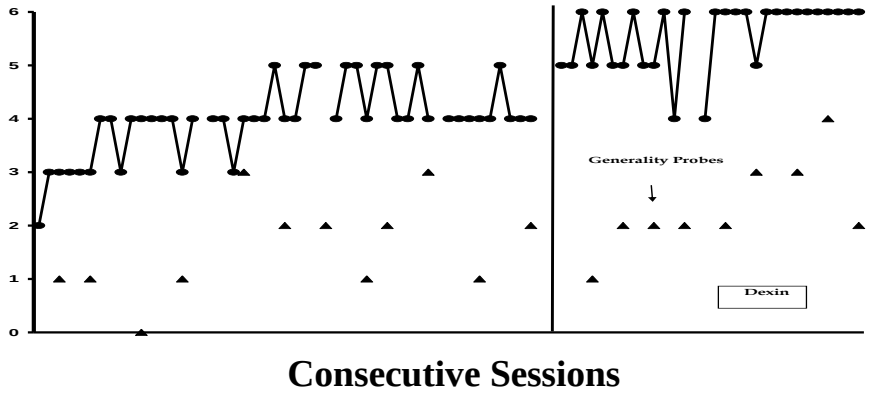
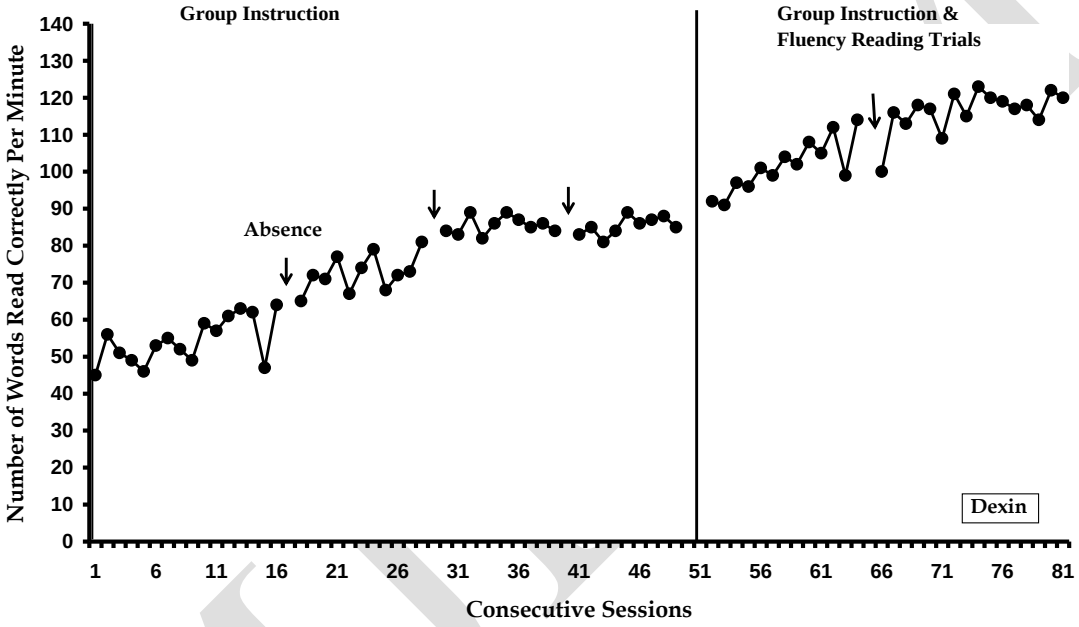


Figure 2. Number of correct words read correctly per minute by Dexin.



THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN BELIEFS ABOUT LANGUAGE LEARNING, GENDER, AND THE USE OF LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES OF IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS

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ABSTRACT
THIS STUDY AIMED AT INVESTIGATING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN BELIEFS ABOUT LANGUAGE LEARNING, GENDER, AND THE USE OF LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES. TO THIS END, TWO QUESTIONNAIRES WERE ADMINISTERED TO STUDENTS. THE QUESTIONNAIRES WERE STRATEGY INVENTORY FOR LANGUAGE LEARNING AND BELIEFS ABOUT LANGUAGE LEARNING INVENTORY. IN TOTAL, 305 STUDENTS OF JAHROM, KAZERUN, AND SHIRAZ UNIVERSITIES PARTICIPATED IN THIS STUDY, 74 MALE STUDENTS AND 231 FEMALE STUDENTS RANGING FROM 18 TO 30 YEARS OF AGE. THE DATA WERE ANALYZED USING STATISTICAL PACKAGE FOR THE SOCIAL SCIENCES (SPSS) VERSION 19. THE RESULTS SHOWED NO STATISTICALLY SIGNIFICANT RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LANGUAGE LEARNING BELIEFS AND THE USE OF LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES. THE RESULTS ALSO SHOWED THAT THERE WAS NO STATISTICALLY SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MALES AND FEMALES WITH REGARD TO THEIR LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES, BUT THERE WAS A STATISTICALLY SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MALES AND FEMALES IN TERMS OF THEIR LANGUAGE LEARNING BELIEFS. THE IMPLICATIONS ARE DISCUSSED AT THE END OF THE STUDY.

KEYWORDS: LANGUAGE LEARNING BELIEFS, GENDER, LANGUAGE LEARNING ANXIETY

1. Introduction

Language learning beliefs are defined by Victori and Lockhart (1995) as general assumptions which students have about themselves as language learners, about the nature of language learning, and about factors which affect language learning and teaching. These beliefs are shaped either through personal experience or influenced by other people (Wenden, 1991).

Recently, researchers who study learner beliefs have found that affect plays a significant role in language learning. Beliefs are defined as "psychologically held understandings, premises, or propositions about the world that are felt to be true' (Richardson, 1996, p. 103) and act as strong filters of reality (Arnold, 1999). Research suggests that the belief systems, social cognitions and meta-

cognitions of individuals have influence on their intellectual performance, which includes learning of foreign languages (Schoenfeld, 1983). Learners' beliefs can affect their experiences and their actions (Horwitz, 1987) and it has been shown that learners' self-beliefs are a leading factor of their learning behavior (Bandura, 1986; Pintrich & DeGroot, 1990). Learners who have high self-efficacy will exert more effort at a learning task and even when they fail in learning, they will try harder.

Since beliefs about language learning have influence on learning a foreign language, researchers have recently focused their attention on the factors that affect beliefs such as individual learner differences and contextual diversity (Bernat & Lloyd, 2007). Learner beliefs are closely related to factors such as self-concept and self-efficacy, personality traits, and other individual differences (Bernat, 2006; Langston & Sykes, 1997; Siebert, 2003). Some studies have investigated the relationship between learners' beliefs about language learning and factors such as strategy use (Yang, 1999); anxiety (Kunt, 1998; Tsai, 2004), and gender (Bacon & Finnemann, 1992; Siebert, 2003).

1.1. Self-efficacy and beliefs about English learning

Self-efficacy which is an important concept in psychology has been discussed in many studies. Self-efficacy is considered as an individual's belief about the possibility of doing well in a specified field of interest (Uebuchi, 1995). Mori (2003) found that students who have high self-efficacy use more cognitive strategies in learning English. Studies suggest that self-efficacy might have influence on the use of learning strategies. Moreover, some researchers believe that self-efficacy has the interaction effect on students (e.g., Pintrich, 2002). Self-efficacy is closely related to students' academic achievement (Huang & Chang, 1998; Pajares, Miller, & Johnson, 1999, Pajares & Valiante, 1997). Bandura (1977) states that individuals who have a high degree of self-efficacy will set challenging goals and try hard in order to achieve those goals. According to self-efficacy theory, the amount of endeavor an individual makes in a particular field is determined by their perceived self-efficacy and the degree that the individual tries to overcome the obstacles (Bandura, 1977). Bandura (1986) maintains that learners do the tasks they think are able to do well and avoid doing tasks which they believe they do not have the ability to do properly.

To sum up, studies on self-efficacy clarify second language motivation research further through establishing a connection between students' learning behaviors, their efforts and their perseverance to accomplish language learning tasks.

1.2. Second Language Learning Strategies

Oxford (1990, p. 8) defined language learning strategies as "… specific actions, behaviors, steps or techniques that students use to improve their progress in developing L2 skills. These strategies can facilitate the internalization, storage, retrieval or use of the new language". Several classifications have been made with regard to language learning strategies. The most comprehensive one belongs to Oxford (1990) who developed the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL).

Oxford (1990) classified strategies as direct and indirect, which are also divided into subcategories including memory strategies, cognitive strategies, meta-cognitive strategies, compensation strategies, social strategies and affective strategies. Direct strategies encompass "strategies that directly involve the target language" meaning that they "require mental processing of the language" (Oxford, 1990, p. 37); whereas the indirect strategies "provide indirect support for language learning through focusing, planning, evaluating, seeking opportunities, controlling anxiety, increasing cooperation and empathy and other means" (Oxford, 1990, p. 151). Oxford's classification is used in this study because it is systematic and comprehensive. However, many more strategies may be identified in the future which might be more complete than those of Oxford's.

1.3 Gender and second language learning strategies

Learning strategies have been studied from different angles. Several variables such as gender, age, motivation, maturity level, cognitive learning style, etc. affect the use of second language learning strategies. Cohen and Dörnyei (2002) believe that the most important individual differences among learners are related to age and gender.

1.4. Gender and second language learning beliefs

In the past two decades, Horwitz's (1897) Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) has been widely used to examine the relationships between beliefs and proficiency, the effect of culture on beliefs, and the dimensions which underlie language learning beliefs. The present study intends to investigate the influence of gender differences on beliefs of students learning English as a foreign language. Although the influence of gender has been investigated by several researchers with regard

to foreign language learning anxiety, motivation, strategies, and foreign language learning, few studies have been conducted on the influence of gender on language learning beliefs (e.g. Bernat & Lloyd, 2007; Mesri, 2012; Sotoudehnama & Heidari, 2011).

2. Literature Review

2.1 Language Learning Beliefs

Beliefs about language learning refer to preconceived notions or ideas about the issues which are related to second or foreign language learning (Horwitz, 1987). Not many studies have been done on language learners' beliefs (LLB); therefore, LLB conceptual framework is mostly based upon notions taken from social psychology and includes the definitions of beliefs, types of beliefs, the difference between attitudes and beliefs, and belief formation (Zhong, 2012). Some studies were done on learner beliefs in SLA in the 1980s by Horwitz (1985, 1987, 1988). She developed four versions of Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) and she had a profound influence on the studies done in the field of language learning beliefs. The first version of the BALLI developed in 1985 had 27 Likert-scale items and was used to investigate teachers' beliefs in foreign language aptitude, language learning strategies, and the nature of language learning.

In 1987, she designed the ESL/EFL version of the BALLI in order to measure students' beliefs about the nature of language and the process of language learning (Horwitz, 1987). There are 34 Likert-type items which are related to the nature of language learning, language learning difficulty, foreign language aptitude, motivation, and learning and communication strategies.

The third version of BALLI was developed in 1988 by Horwitz to assess the beliefs of American students who were learning foreign languages. And finally, the recent version was the BALLI ESL version used in ESL settings. In this study, the 1987 version of BALLI has been used to assess learners' beliefs about foreign language learning. Nikitina and Furuoka (2006) re-examined the BALLI and showed that it is an appropriate tool for assessing beliefs about language learning in different contexts.

Some studies have been done using the BALLI. For instance, Siebert (2003) studied the relationship between students' beliefs, their origin/ethnicity, and gender. The results showed that all students had similar beliefs about foreign language aptitude and the importance of vocabulary learning. In that study, there was a significant difference between males and females. Male students believed that their ability was high and they were more positive about the length of time they spent in learning English than female ones.

In another study, Diab (2006) investigated the relationship between gender and language learning beliefs. The result of the study showed that female students had stronger motivation and confidence to learn French than their male counterparts.

Another study was done by Horwitz (1988) in which 241 foreign language learners at the University of Texas participated. Horwitz compared three language learning groups including Spanish, French, and German. The study showed that there was similarity of beliefs among the different target language groups although it did not reveal any statistically significant differences in beliefs. However, some small differences were seen in beliefs among the groups. For example, 96 % of Spanish students believed that some languages are easier than others, whereas 86% of French and 88% of German students had such a belief. But as Horwitz explained, these small differences were probably due to error of measurement, nature of the target language, differences in populations, or instructional content of classes.

Bernat and Lloyd (2007) explored the effect of gender on EFL learners' beliefs about language learning and found that overall males and females had similar beliefs about language learning with only one item being statistically significant and another one being marginally significant. In another study, Tercanlioglu (2005) investigated the language learning beliefs of a group of pre-service EFL teachers with regard to gender and found no significant difference between males and females.

In Iran, Sotoudehnama and Heidari (2011) investigated the role of English language proficiency level and sex on Iranian students' beliefs about language learning and found no significant difference between males and females with regard to their language learning beliefs. In another study, Mesri (2012b) explored the effect of gender on Iranian university learners' beliefs about language learning and found no significant gender effect on Iranian university EFL learners' beliefs about language learning.

2.2 Language learning beliefs and the use of language learning strategies

Language learning strategies (LLS) are considered as a very powerful learning tool (O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Kupper, & Russo, 1985). Rubin (1975) and Stern (1975) emphasized the importance of strategies which are utilized by learners in the process of language learning rather than the methods of teaching that the teachers use. Research indicates that learners' beliefs about language learning have influence on their choice of strategies (Abraham & Vann, 1987; Horwitz, 1987, 1988; Wenden, 1987). However, in spite of growing interest regarding language learning strategies, it is still too difficult to provide a clear definition of language learning strategies (Ellis, 1994; O'Malley et al., 1985; Stern, 1975; Tarone, 1980). Different researchers have provided different definitions for learning strategies. For instance, Rubin (1975) defined learning strategies as the techniques that learners use to acquire knowledge. She (1981) introduced two types of learning strategies: direct and indirect. Direct strategies into six groups: monitoring, deductive reasoning, memorization, clarification/verification, guessing/inductive inference, and practice. She classified indirect learning strategies into two groups: production tricks and creating opportunities for practice (Rubin, 1981). Rubin (1975) believed that communication strategies are subcategories of learning strategies.

However, Brown (1989) saw these two concepts as two separate manifestations of language learning behavior. He drew a distinction between communication strategies and learning strategies (Brown, 1980) claiming that learning is the input modality whereas communication is the output modality. Brown (1980) claimed that even though learners use the same fundamental strategies to communicate in a language, there are some communication strategies like topic avoidance and message abandonment which do not lead to learning. On the other hand, Ellis (1986) claimed that even successful use of communication strategies might hinder language learning because compensating for the lack of linguistic knowledge may hamper learning.

Oxford (1990) defined language learning strategies as special actions used by learners in order to make learning more enjoyable, faster, easier, more effective, more self-directed and more transferable to other situations. A major interest in studies about language learning strategy has been investigating the relationship between beliefs about language learning and language learning strategy use. Some studies were conducted to discuss this issue. For instance, Wenden (1987), Yang (1992, 1999), and Brown (1996) claim that beliefs about language learning can be among the strong factors which influence language learning strategy use. In Wenden's study, a close relationship was found between LLS and learners' perceptions about language learning beliefs (Wenden, 1987). The results indicated that students who value language usage used the language mostly in natural settings and tried to use the language and practice it whenever they had the chance to do so. On the other hand, students who value learning the language were more likely to focus on taking courses to learn grammar and vocabulary. Another significant finding of the study was that there was a close connection between communication strategy and beliefs about using the language and also there was a strong relationship between cognitive strategies and beliefs about using the language.

In another study, Yang (1992, 1999) examined the relationship between learners' beliefs about language learning and the use of strategy by Taiwanese university EFL students. In her study, Horwitz's (1987) BALLI and Oxford's (1990) SILL and self-developed open-ended questions were used to get more in-depth data from her participants. Five hundred and five students took part in her study. The findings indicated that self-efficacy beliefs were correlated to their use of various strategies. Students with high self-efficacy were more likely to use more strategies than those with lower self-efficacy. Also, the students who had high self-efficacy practiced English outside classroom and exposed themselves to English than those who had low self-efficacy. Yang (1992, 1999) claimed that there was a close relationship between learners' beliefs and strategy use. She stated that "appropriate strategy use will lead to an enhanced self-perception of language proficiency and, in turn, increases motivation" (Yang, 1999. p. 531).

Park (1995) conducted a study examining the relationship between Korean students' beliefs and their choice of language learning strategies. Three hundred and thirty two university students were asked to fill out the BALLI and SILL. The Korean students had four groups of beliefs: motivational beliefs and beliefs about formal English, beliefs about learning spoken English, self-efficacy and beliefs about social interaction, and beliefs about foreign language aptitude. The results of the study showed that students used more meta-cognitive and memory strategies than communication-affective strategies. Also, the students had a desire to have English-speaking friends to learn English. Park's study also showed that the relationship between learners' beliefs and their strategy use was dependent upon the specific types of beliefs strategies.

Kim (2001) carried out a study on 60 Korean university students to investigate the relationship between their language learning beliefs and the use of learning strategies. He used the BALLI and the SILL and concluded that there was a strong relationship between students' language learning beliefs and their use of learning strategies. Also, Penhani (2006) conducted a study on 280 male university students in Iran and found that learners' total belief score had a significant influence on cognitive, metacognitive and social strategies.

In another study by Sioson (2011) in which the relationship between learners' beliefs and their strategy use was examined in the Philippines, using the BALLI and the SILL, the researcher found out that language learning strategies in general had a negative correlation with language learning beliefs. Also, Abedini, Rahimi, and Zare-ee (2011) examined the relationship between strategy use and language learning beliefs of 203 Iranian undergraduate learners of English using two questionnaires (BALLI and SILL). The results indicated that learners who had more positive beliefs used learning strategies more than other students in learning.

2.3 Language Learning Strategies

Language learning strategies (LLSs) have been defined as the steps or operations which are used by a learner to facilitate acquisition, storage, retrieval, or the use of information (O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Kupper, & Russo, 1985). LLSs have the potential to be a powerful learning instrument which can lead to the betterment of proficiency and self-confidence (Oxford, 1990). Although several scholars have been working on language learning strategies, it is not easy to define and classify them clearly. Scholars are not unanimous regarding the meaning of learning strategies. Griffiths (2004) (1981) identified two types of learning strategies: those contributing directly to learning, and those contributing indirectly to learning. She divided direct strategies into six types: memorization, monitoring, deductive reasoning, guessing/inductive inferencing, practice, clarification/verification, and the indirect strategies into two types: production tricks, creating opportunities for practice. Oxford (1990) expanded that definition and classified learning strategies into six groups: cognitive strategies which are related to the way students think about their learning, metacognitive strategies which are related to how students monitor their learning, compensation strategies which enable students to compensate for their inadequate knowledge, affective strategies which are concerned with students' feelings, memory strategies which are related to the way students remember language, and social strategies which are concerned with students' learning through interaction with others. Oxford's classification is almost the most widely accepted classification. However, it is still impossible to consider it as the most complete classification (Dörnyei,2005). Further explanations will be provided on Oxford's classification later.

2.3.1 Factors determining the choice of strategies

Some of the factors which affect individuals' choice of strategies are personality traits, task requirements, awareness, age, state of learning, teacher expectations, motivation level, gender, purpose for language learning, nationality, general cognitive style, etc. (Oxford, 1990). Some of them are elaborated below.

The level of awareness can influence the choice of strategies in that learners who are aware of their own learning process make use of strategies more efficiently (Oxford, 1990). Task requirements can determine the choice of strategies as well. When students practice a grammar rule, they use different strategies. Also, teacher expectation can vastly influence the choice of strategies. For instance, when teacher focuses on grammar rules, students develop the learning strategies which involve reasoning and analysis rather than communication strategies and vice versa. Another significant factor is age. Depending on age, individuals utilize different strategies. The cognitive level of students plays a significant role in the choice of strategies as it is interrelated with social experiences and biological development (Oxford, 1990). Some research studies are provided below regarding the factors influencing the choice of strategies.

2.4 Gender differences regarding the use of learning strategies

Several studies have indicated that gender has a major influence on the use of strategies. Women tend to use learning strategies more often than men (Dreyer & Oxford, 1996; Lee & Oh, 2001). Results of the research carried out by Oxford and Nyikos (1989) show that gender has a significant impact on the frequency of strategy use. This study showed that women more frequently used memory, cognitive and social strategies. They examined the use of learning strategies on a sample of 1200 adult French, Spanish, Italian and German language students and showed that gender played a major role in the choice of strategies. The results of this study indicated that women tended to use all types of

strategies more frequently than men, which is in line with the results of previous studies on the role of gender in learning foreign languages.

These findings also corresponded to the research carried out by Ehrman and Oxford (1989) on 78 adult learners, including students and professors at the faculties of philological studies. The languages covered by the study included Turkish, Indonesian, Hungarian, Italian, and Arabic. In line with the previous studies, gender differences in terms of the choice of strategies were revealed. It was found that female learners used general learning strategies more often than males, and also females used authentic strategies, self-direction strategies, and strategies of getting and communicating meaning, more frequently than males.

The research carried out by Zimmerman and Martinez-Pons (1990) revealed that females use metacognitive strategies as planning and monitoring strategies. With regard to gender differences in the use of learning strategies, some studies suggest that the relationship between the use of strategy and gender seems to be vague (Dadour & Robbins, 1996).

Kaylani (1996) discovered that males are different from females in terms of their use of language learning strategies. She found that female learners use cognitive, memory, affective, and compensation strategies more frequently than male learners.

In another study by Dongyue (2004) on the relationship between language proficiency, strategy use, and gender, it was found that there were statistically significant gender differences with regard to memory, affective and overall strategy use in favor of female learners. The findings indicated that females are better at managing and controlling their emotions than their male counterparts. The researcher also mentions the fact that some other variables such as cultural background, ethnic background, and language learning environment might influence the difference in the frequency of the use of strategies between male and female learners.

In the Iranian context, Zeynali (2012) explored the effect of gender on EFL learners' learning strategies and found significant differences between men and women regarding their use of learning strategies. She also found important differences between males and females in the use of social / affective strategies with females using them more often. In another study, Salahshour, Sharifi and Salahshour (2013) explored the relationship between choice of learning strategies and frequency of their use and learners' gender and level of proficiency in English and found that females used learning strategies more frequently than males.

However, some studies (e.g. Chang, 1990; Chou, 2002) found no significant differences between males and females regarding their use of language learning strategies.

3. Method

3.1 Participants

In order to collect the required data, three Iranian universities were selected using cluster sampling. The universities included Shiraz, Jahrom, and Salman Farsi Universities in Shiraz, Jahrom and Kazerun, respectively. The participants were female and male students of English language. In total, 305 students participated in this study, 74 male students and 231 female students ranging from 18 to 30 years of age. All of them were native speakers of Persian studying English as a foreign language at university.

3.2 Instruments

Two questionnaires were used in this study namely, Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) and Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL). The items were scored on a 5-point Likert scale from Strongly Disagree (1) to Strongly Agree (5). Each questionnaire will be discussed below.

3.2.1 Strategy Inventory for Language Learning

The second instrument used in this study was the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) developed by Oxford (1990). There are two versions of SILL first of which is used for learners whose native language is English consisting of eighty items. The second version of SILL is used for learners whose first language is not English comprising fifty items. The second version was used in this study.

According to Oxford and Burry-Stock (1995) this questionnaire is a very reliable instrument. They reported a reliability of .86 with 156 students. The content validity of the SILL was found to be very high as calculated by them. The English version of this instrument was used in this study.

The SILL is comprised of six subcategories and each part of it shows one of the six categories of Language Learning Strategies (LLSs). The categories include compensation strategies, memory

strategies, social strategies, meta-cognitive strategies, affective strategies, and cognitive strategies The students were required to respond to the items on a 5-point Likert scale from 'Never or almost never true of me' (1) to 'Always or almost always true of me' (5). Tahmasebi (1999) calculated the Cronbach's alpha reliability of this questionnaire to be 0.91. The reliability coefficient of the SILL in this study was .954.

3.2.2 Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI)

The third instrument used in this study was Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) developed by Horwitz (1987). This inventory assessed students' beliefs about language learning in five areas: (1) learning and communication strategies, (2) foreign language aptitude, (3) the nature of language learning, (4) the difficulty of language learning, and (5) motivation. It consisted of 34 items on a 5-point Likert Scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. Abedini, Rahimi, & Zare-ee, (2011) reported the Cronbach's alpha reliability of this questionnaire as 0.68. In this study, the reliability coefficient was calculated to be .763.

3.3 Data Collection and Analysis Procedures

First, the students were informed about the objectives of the study. Then, they were given the instructions regarding how to answer the items of the questionnaires. They were asked to answer open-ended questions such as gender and academic level as well. They were also assured about the confidentiality of the information that they were supposed to provide.

Having received the questionnaires from the students, the researcher scored, and entered the data into a spread sheet in the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 19. Then, descriptive statistics were computed and reported. The data underwent some descriptive statistics such as frequencies, mean, and standard deviation together with correlational analyses. Then, further inferential analyses were performed to find answers to the research questions.

To investigate the relationship between language learning strategies and language learning beliefs, Pearson Product-Moment correlation was run.

In order to examine the differences between male and female Iranian EFL learners with regard to their language learning strategies and language learning beliefs, independent- samples t-tests were used.

4. Results

4.1 The relationship between language learning beliefs and the use of language learning strategies

According to Table 1, there was no statistically significant relationship between students' beliefs about language learning and their use of language learning strategies.

Table 1. Results of Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient for BALLI, and SILL

		Language Learning Belief	**Language Learning Strategies**
Language Learning Belief	Pearson Correlation	1	.025
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.667
	N	305	305
Language Learning Strategies	Pearson Correlation	.025	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.667	
	N	305	305

Table 2. Independent-Samples t-test for BALLI, and SILL

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		**t-test for Equality of Means**					
	F	**Sig.**	**T**	**Df**	**Sig. (2-tailed)**	**Mean Difference**	**Std. Error Difference**	**95% Confidence Interval of the Difference**

									Lower	Upper
Language Learning Belief	Equal variances assumed	.170	.680	2.326	302	.021	.10176	.04374	.01568	.18784
	Equal variances not assumed			2.376	127.932	.019	.10176	.04283	.01702	.18650
Language Learning Strategies	Equal variances assumed	1.314	.253	-.224	302	.823	-.01914	.08528	-.18695	.14867
	Equal variances not assumed			-.216	115.993	.830	-.01914	.08873	-.19488	.15659

4.2 Gender differences with regard to the learning strategies

According to Table 2, there was no statistically significant difference between females (M = 3.1813, SD = .62557) and males [M = 3.1622, SD = .67577, t (302) = -0.224] in terms of their learning behaviors. This finding is in stark contrast to that of Dongyue (2004), Kaylani (1996), Oxford and Nyikos (1989), Salahshour et. al (2013) Zeynali (2012). However, it is in line with the finding of Chang (1990) and Chou (2002) who found no significant difference between males and females in terms of their language learning strategies.

4.3 Gender differences with regard to language learning beliefs

As shown in Table 4.2 there was a statistically significant difference between females (M = 2.3239, SD = .33047) and males [M = 2.4257, SD = .31716, t (302) = 2.326, Sig (2-tailed) = 0.021] regarding their language learning beliefs. This finding is in line with that of Diab (2006). However, it is not in line with the findings of Bernat and Lloyd (2007), Mesri (2012b), Sotoudehnama and Heidari (2011), and Tercanlioglu (2005).

5. Conclusion

Thus far, an overall picture of the study has been presented. Now, it is time to recapitulate briefly on the research questions and the findings derived from the data. With regard to the relationship between language learning beliefs and the use of language learning strategies, no statistically significant relationship was found.

The next finding of the study was concerned with the role of gender with regard to the use of language learning strategies. The result showed that there was no statistically significant difference between males and females with regard to their use of language learning strategies. Concerning gender differences with regard to language learning beliefs, the result of the study showed that there was a statistically significant difference between males and females. Several factors such as events, episodes, and personal experiences might affect students' beliefs about language learning. For instance, due to having more opportunities to practice using English, students studying at private language institutes might possess some skills, abilities, and beliefs that university students might lack.

6. Implications

7. Findings of this study can be beneficial for teachers and learners as well as educational psychologists. The findings of this study can prove helpful for teachers to pay more attention to the affective factors of learners. These findings can also help instructors to predict their learners' anxiety, beliefs, and behaviors. Teachers can adjust their teaching plans according to their students' characteristics to facilitate their learning.

8. Limitations and suggestions for further research

There were some limitations to this study. Inferences drawn from the results of this study cannot be generalized to other contexts because of cultural differences. Another limitation was that the sample was not evenly distributed since there were 74 males and 231 females and this could affect the results of the study. Therefore, generalizing the findings of this study to other contexts and situations should be exercised with caution. Since this study was a quantitative one and just made use of questionnaires, more longitudinal and qualitative studies with in-depth interviews are needed to understand individual differences in greater detail.

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Appendices
Appendix I: Strategy Inventory for Language Learning

1. Never or almost never true of me
2. Usually not true of me
3. Somewhat true of me
4. Usually true of me
5. Always or almost always true of me

		1	2	3	4	5
1	I think of relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English.					
2	I use new English words in a sentence so that I can remember them.					
3	I connect the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the word to help me remember the word.					
4	I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used.					
5	I use rhymes to remember new English words.					
6	I use flashcards to remember new English words.					
7	I physically act out new English words.					
8	I review English lessons often.					
9	I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign.					
10	I say or write new English words several times.					
11	I try to talk like native English speakers.					

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12	I practice the sounds of English.					
13	I use the English words I know in different ways.					
14	I start conversations in English.					
15	I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English.					
16	I read for pleasure in English.					
17	I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English					
18	I first read over an English passage quickly then go back and read carefully.					
19	I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English.					
20	I try to find patterns in English.					
21	I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand.					
22	I try not to translate word for word.					
23	I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English.					
24	To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses.					
25	When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures.					
26	I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English.					

Appendix II: Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory

		SA	A	N I	D	SD
1	It is easier for children than adults to learn a foreign language.					
2	Some people have a special ability for learning foreign languages.					
3	People from my country are good at learning foreign languages.					
4	It is easier for someone who already speaks a foreign language to learn another one.					
5	People who are good at math or science are not good at learning foreign languages.					
6	I have a special ability for learning foreign languages.					
7	Women are better than men at learning languages.					
8	People who speak more than one language are very intelligent.					
9	Everyone can learn to speak a foreign					
10	Some languages are easier than others.					
11	English language is a very difficult Language					
12	If someone spends 1 hour a day learning a language, it would take them to speak the language					
13	It is easier to speak than to understand a foreign					
14	It is easier to read and write English than to speak and understand it.					

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15	It is necessary to learn about English speaking cultures to speak English.					
16	. It is best to learn English in an English speaking					
17	The most important part of learning a foreign language is learning new words.					
18	The most important part of learning a foreign language is learning grammar.					
19	Learning a foreign language is different from learning other academic subjects.					
20	The most important part of learning English is learning how to translate from my own					
21	It is important to speak English with an excellent pronunciation.					
22	You shouldn't say anything in English until you can say it correctly					
23	I enjoy practicing English with the native English					

MJLTM

CREATIVE WRITING: COMPOSING AND ENJOYING HAIKU IN THE EFL CLASSROOMS

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ABSTRACT
THE PRIMARILY GOAL OF THIS PAPER IS TO THROW LIGHT ON THE CONTRIBUTION OF ENGLISH HAIKU COMPOSITION TO ACADEMIC LITERACY DEVELOPMENT IN AN IRANIAN EFL CONTEXT. THIS PAPER EXPLORES IN WHAT WAYS COMPOSING HAIKU CAN CONTRIBUTE TO THE DEVELOPMENT OF STUDENTS' WRITING SKILLS FROM BOTH THEORETICAL AND PRACTICAL STANDPOINTS. IT SEEMS THAT VERY FEW STUDIES HAVE INVESTIGATED THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CREATIVE WRITING AND ACADEMIC WRITING. EVEN IF SOME FEATURES OF CREATIVE WRITING CAN CONTRIBUTE TO ACADEMIC WRITING, IT IS WORTH INDEED TO ENCOURAGE CREATIVE WRITING IN COLLEGE COMPOSITION CLASSROOMS. THE THEORISTS AND RESEARCHERS WHO SUPPORT THE TEACHING OF CREATIVE WRITING IN LANGUAGE CLASSROOMS BELIEVE THAT STUDENTS WHO START TO WRITE CREATIVELY LEARN HOW TO EXPRESS THEMSELVES IN THEIR OWN WRITING. THE APPLICATION OF LITERARY LEARNING IN EFL CLASSROOM HAS NEVER BEEN SO POPULAR AS IT IS IN L1. IN AN EFL CLASSROOM READING AND COMPOSING POETRY SEEMS TO BE A TIME-CONSUMING ACTIVITY. HOWEVER THIS ARTICLE THROWS LIGHT ON USING HAIKU AS A TEACHING STRATEGY THAT CAN INCREASE STUDENTS VOCABULARY ACQUISITION AND IMPROVE THEIR CREATIVE WRITING SKILLS. IT ALSO PROVIDES A STEP-BY-STEP PROCEDURE FOR WRITING HAIKU.

KEY WORDS: COMPOSING HAIKU, IMPROVING CREATIVE WRITING SKILL, EFL CLASSROOMS

1. Introduction

Many college freshmen who study English as a Foreign Language (EFL) in Iran have little idea how to use the English they learned in middle school and high school. They have learned basic English grammar rules and improved their reading skills, *enlarged their vocabulary* in preparation for university entrance examinations, but the focus on error reduction and memorization of forms cannot help them when they have to use English in real-life situations. Iranian EFL students, in general, have difficulty in expressing themselves particularly in written forms. This is partly due to the fact that a grammar-centered curriculum in middle school and high school provides very little opportunity to write papers in English. They are not capable of expressing their inner thoughts, feelings and emotions. They have not taught how to describe the feelings that boil inside of them. In order to develop students' written communication skills, however, it is crucial for EFL teachers to seek for effective strategies and methods to encourage students how to discover and verbalize their inner thoughts in the EFL writing classroom. Many language scholars and researchers believe that reading and composing literature and poetry helps English learners develop their reading, writing, speaking and listening skills. Lazar (1993) summarizes the benefits of using literature in the language classroom in the following manner:

- it is very motivating
- it is authentic material
- it has general educational value
- it is found in many syllabuses

- it helps students to understand another culture
- it is a stimulus for language acquisition
- it develops students' interpretative abilities
- students enjoy it and it is fun
- it is highly valued and has a high status
- it expands students' language awareness
- it encourages students to talk about their opinions and feeling (p.19)

Povey (1972) in summarizing the aims of using literature in language classes, argues that "literature will increase all language skills because literature will extend linguistic knowledge by giving evidence of extensive and subtle vocabulary usage, and complex and exact syntax" (p.187). Many language researchers have also claimed that poetry can increase student motivation. A remarkable number of EFL teachers do have faith in poetry as a motivator. Little, Devitt, and Singleton (as cited in Peacock, 1997) believe that poetry is more "interesting" and "stimulating" than exercises found in course books and supplementary materials because poetry "bring learners closer to the target language culture, making learning more enjoyable and therefore move motivating" (p. 144). Aladini, *et al.* (2015), in using poetry with Iranian students, found that they "were all very motivated and enthusiastic to improve their English, and participated in the class activities and discussions eagerly. Indeed, poetry helped students to develop their reading, writing, listening, and speaking skills." In spite of all these advantages, however, English poetry is often excluded from an EFL/ESL curriculum. Often language instructors consider poetry as one of the most sophisticated literary genres and hence too challenging and difficult for EFL/ESL learners. Several views have been expressed about the reason why poetry is seen distant to EFL and ESL contexts. Linguists such as Topping (1968) argues that "literature should be excluded from the ESL curriculum because of its structural complexity, lack of conformity to standard grammatical rules and remote cultural perspectives" (p.95). Cook (1986) makes a similar point when he claims that the study of English literature "has little relevance to the learners' aim of understanding and producing more functional forms of the language" (p.150). The solution suggested by some experts in this field is to select materials that are suited to maturity level of the language learners. As Lazar (1993) points out: "A poem may elicit a powerful emotional response from students. If the materials are carefully chosen, students will feel that what they do in the classroom is relevant and meaningful to their own lives" (p.18). One simple literary form that is free from any complex or compound figures is haiku. The main purpose of this paper is to illustrate how the practice of composing English haiku helps Iranian EFL college students to develop their academic writing skills. Unfortunately very little research on the use of Haiku in EFL/ESL writing classrooms has been conducted.

2. Haiku and Creative Writing in EFL Contexts

It seems that very few studies have investigated the relationship between creative writing and academic writing. Even if some features of creative writing can contribute to academic writing, it is worth indeed to encourage creative writing in college composition classrooms. The theorists and researchers who support the teaching of creative writing in language classrooms believe that students who start to write creatively learn how to express themselves in their own writing. A series of creative writing practices puts students at the center of writing and helps them to express themselves in their writing process. In other words, a principal purpose of creative writing is to empower students and make them feel confident enough to regard themselves as writers (May, 2007). The number of teachers, language researchers, and scholars who advocate the use of poetry in creative writing has been increasing. Bizzaro (2009) emphasizes the use of poetry as a creative genre in a composition classroom:

We must develop methods that enable us to find out from an array of sources, including 'professional writers' stories, anecdotes, aphorisms, and other forms of self-report'—and we must include poems here—whatever we can about writers and writing and to use what we find in those sources to help our students become better writers. (p. 269)

Young (1982) is another researcher who in his theory focuses on the poetic function of language. He argues that poetic writing is a place for "play, imaginative thinking, developing personal knowledge"

(p. 84). Young's finding which particularly refers to "the relatively high inverse correlation between students who did well on the poems and those who did well on essay exams" (p. 91) provides the justification for using poems in writing courses. A poetry-across-the-curriculum project at Clemson University (Connor-Greene et al., as cited in Iida, 2011) illustrates a new approach to using poetry writing in academic disciplines. The application of poetry was as "a means of emphasizing creativity, new perspectives, and a wider range of ways for students to engage with course materials" (Connor-Greene et al., 2006, p. 5) in a various disciplines. The project revealed that the practice of writing poems allowed students to develop their critical thinking skills which consisted of their reflections of academic knowledge or theory in a course. Students did not have to write great poems nor were they expected to be successful poets in each course. There are other scholars who also describe poetry writing as a tool for learning, as a creative writing to express the writer's inner thoughts and emotions in a brief but meaningful way. Hanauer (2004) defines poetry writing as producing "a literary text that presents the experiences, thoughts and feelings of the writer through a self-referential use of language that creates for the reader and writer a new understanding of the experience, thought or feeling expressed in the text"(p. 10). Iida (2011) in his dissertation explores the interaction between composing haiku and L2 academic literacy development. Participants were 20 college freshmen at a Japanese private university. Data were collected from multiple sources: pre- and post-essays, the books of haiku, weekly journals, self-reflections, and face-to-face interviews. His study demonstrated that, for the participants, haiku composition had positive effects on the development of the language learners' academic literacy skills. For instance, from grammatical aspects, "statistical data illustrated an increase in the use of verbs, passive forms, perfect forms, impersonal pronouns, and transition words and a decrease in the use of negations in the post-test" (Iida, 2011, pp. 179-180).
Lee (2011) summarizes the advantages of using haiku in second and foreign language classrooms in the following ways:

- Learners can explore their language through trying to express their thoughts and feelings within the constraints of a simple literary form; through doing this, they will discover whether their linguistic knowledge is sufficient to express their thoughts and feelings or not.

- Through the experimental process of trying to stretch their language boundaries, learners can consolidate and develop their language.

- Since poetry depends on the appropriateness of the words and phrases chosen, learners have to be attentive to, and consciously reflect on, the form of the language itself.

- A further advantage is that the language the learners have produced in their haiku will be easily remembered, and this will help with the acquisition process.

- Language learners can easily remember their haiku, and no doubt this will help with the language acquisition process.

3. A Brief History of Haiku

Haiku originated in Japan about six to seven hundred years ago. It was originally called *haikai* appeared in the sixteenth century and thus is one of the world's oldest surviving poetic forms (Henderson, 1958). It was popularized by a famous poet, Matsuo Basho in the seventeenth century. However, the English-speaking world did not learn of its existence until after 1868 when Japan opened its shores to the West and envoys from England started to translate this type of Japanese genre (Giroux, 1974). According to Higginson (1985), the approach for composing haiku, at that time, was restricted to a simple observation and description of natural phenomena. In the late nineteenth century, haiku was established by Shiki Masaoka for the purpose of highlighting the significance of individual creativity as a modern art. The modern haiku is not restricted to a simple observation of natural phenomena, but rather it is integrated to the writer's personal feeling or thought. In short, haiku is "writers' voices reflecting cultural contexts" (Iida, 2011, p. 28).

4. Definition of Haiku

We all have special moments in our lives, times that are meaningful and important to us. Naturally we try to immortalize those precious moments, we capture them, in a photograph, a video, or simply an *unforgettable* memory, so that we could recall them, and often share what made those moments special. Haiku does the same thing; it captures a unique and deep moment and immortalizes it. Just as we capture a special moment in our lives, haiku captures a moment in time, creating and sharing the joy, the wonder, the profound emotional experience that exists within that moment. Haiku is a three line poem with seventeen syllables in which the first line contains five syllables, the second line seven syllables and the third line has five syllables. A haiku is usually written in present tense, with a pause at the end of the first or second line, and usually doesn't rhyme. Haiku also includes *kigo*, which refers to seasonal references. *Kigo* is a word or phrase which can be associated with a particular season. For instance, "cherry blossom", "plum" and "skylark" represent spring and "hot sun", "sunflower" and "cicada" are used as a seasonal reference for summer. Furthermore, haiku has a *kireji* which literarily means cutting words. This function divides haiku into two parts with an imaginative distance between the two sections: a scene and a message, but both sections remain, to some degree, independent of each other. Using these strategies can allow readers to have their own interpretations. Since haiku is a means for expressing the writer's voice, there never exists the notion of right or wrong in haiku (Iida, 2011).

5. Examples of Haiku

Basho (1644 – 1694) is perhaps the most famous of all the Haiku poets. His haiku is notable for its simple and natural style. The most famous haiku is about the old pond, of which there are many different translations. A traditional Japanese haiku is a 3-line poem with 17 syllables, written in a 5-7-5 syllable count, however since Japanese is a character-based language, when it is translated into English which is a letter-based language the syllable count evaporates, take for instance Matsuo Basho's well-known haiku:

An old pond!
A frog jumps in ---- (*kireji*)
the sound of water
The temple bell stops.
But the sound keeps coming
out of the flowers
Butterfly -
Wings curve into
White poppy
The first snow
the leaves of the daffodil
bending together

Buson (1716-1783) was not only a great poet, but also a painter. The rich, eloquent language and impressive visual imagery of Buson's poetry prove that his haiku was closely influenced by his experience as a painter.

On the great temple bell
stopped from flight and sleeping
the small butterfly
Clinging to the bell
he dozes so peacefully
this new butterfly
Before the white chrysanthemum
the scissors hesitate
a moment
A flash of lightening!
The sound of drops
Falling among the bamboos

Kobayashi Issa (1762-1826) is the third of the four haiku masters. He wrote many haiku about smaller creatures like grasshoppers, sparrows and cicadas.

Young sparrows get out of the way!
get out of the way!
A great horse is coming by!
Don't get alarmed
you corner spiders
I won't touch your webs
Come with me,
let's play together, swallow
without a mother

6. The Practice of Haiku Writing in EFL Classrooms

In order to practice haiku writing effectively in EFL language classrooms, a specific plan is necessary. This lesson plan is written and reviewed by scholars using current research and the best instructional practices.

6.1 The First Stage: Reading and Discussing Haiku

At the beginning of the class, it is helpful to read a few haikus. Before providing a formal definition of what haiku is, the instructor should give students opportunities to experience reading haiku and feel the syllables coming alive with the whole of their being. Giving examples of haiku poems written by famous poets is an excellent way to become familiar with this form of poetry. They illustrate what a haiku poem looks like and a little about their history can be helpful too. As it was mentioned in the previous section the three masters of haiku from the 17th and 18th century were Basho, Buson and Issa. Their works are still the model of haiku writing today.

The next step is for the students to make their own interpretations. The instructor encourages them by asking the following questions:

- What is the theme?
- What is the context?
  - What is happening in the poem?
  - What does the writer want to tell you in the haiku?
  - What is your impression from this haiku? (Iida, 2010, p. 32)

At first students responds individually, then they form small groups to share and discuss their comments and interpretations. Remember that there is no right or wrong way of responding to a haiku. There are no correct or incorrect comments. The instructor is to welcome any possible interpretation made by students. The aim of this step is to review the nature of haiku and digest the basic features of this type of Japanese poem. It can help the students when they start writing haiku in English.

6.2 The Second Stage: Guidelines for Writing Haiku

The aim of this stage is to help the learners to gain a better understanding of the nature of Haiku. The instructor reads aloud the poems. The poems should be read slowly. Then the instructor asks the following questions about the haiku:

- How many syllables are used in each line?
- What is the seasonal reference?
  - Where do you see a cutting word in this haiku? (Iida, 2010, p. 31)

The instructor allows a few minutes for each student to think about these questions and then discusses them in class. The learners are asked what common features the poems have. The instructor's role in this activity is to lead the discussion and help learners understand the special guidelines that dictate the form of haiku. The common characteristics will be written on the board as the students mention them. Finally the instructor completes the list so there will be a comprehensive list of the features of haiku for later use.

- Traditional Japanese haiku had a total of seventeen syllables divided into three lines.
- It can be written in the traditional pattern of 5-7-5 syllables but they do not have to be.
- It contains sensory images and seasonal references (*kigo*).
- It avoids figurative language (metaphor, simile, personification …)
- It avoids complicated language or high sounding words.
- It does not have to rhyme.

- It pictures simple ordinary subject matters in everyday language.
- It contains two juxtaposed ideas (two seemingly unrelated things). This juxtaposition arouses powerful responses in the readers.
- A haiku has usually one strong break in meaning (a division in thought between the earlier and later parts of the poem. It may come at the end of the first or second line. In Japanese it is called *Kireji* (cutting word). In English this division may be indicated by dash, colon, semi-colon or ellipsis.

6.3 The Third Stage: Brainstorm for Ideas

Now it is time to offer our students a chance to start writing haiku. The instructor is to help the learners to collect material for their poems**.** It can be done in the classroom. Beautiful landscapes drawings and pictures of natural scenes can stimulate creativity. When students form mental pictures with their mental eyes, when they are still in the right mood, encourage them to record their inner thoughts and feelings in their haikus.

Some instructors suggest taking students outdoors or even to art exhibitions. You should find a place that can spark students' imaginations and inspire them to write poetry. Ask the students what they saw, heard or felt at that particular inspiring moment. They can start by making a list of seasonal images, and emotional responses. This list can be very helpful when they start writing their haikus. Iida (2010) believes that it works if the instructor asks them to spend 10 to 20 minutes there to answer the following questions:

• What do you see and hear?
• What do you smell and taste?
• What do you feel?

This activity allows students to situate themselves to a specific time and collect as many impressions as possible by answering the above questions.

6.4 The Fourth Stage: Start Writing Haiku

The aim of this stage is to help students understand how to write haiku in English. Now it is time to use their collected impressions to write haiku. However, in spite of reading and reviewing the nature of haiku in the previous stages, our language learners may still feel confused when they are asked to start writing their first haiku. Therefore the instructor is to guide the students' thought process by asking specific questions. For instance, first of all, students may be asked to consider the main idea that they intend to convey to the readers of their poems. Now students can write three lines. In order to adjust to the traditional structure of haiku, the instructor should help students by encouraging them to search among synonyms, and rewrite the poem that fit into the 5-7-5 syllable pattern.

6.5 The Fifth Stage: Small Group Reading Activity

Having students work in small *groups* to improve *writing* skills is just smart. When all the students have written their haiku, they can share their works with other learners in small groups. While reading their haiku aloud to each other, students can recognize whether the flow of the language in their haiku is natural or it is necessary to bring some changes. Kramsch suggests that each student who is in the listening role can write down something "he or she particularly liked about the poem" or suggest the points "he or she would have said differently" (p. 171). Feedback from friends can be very helpful. The students can exchange their haiku and try to formulate themes for those poems. If the interpretation of the readers matches with the main idea that the writer has tried to convey, the haiku can be assumed to be written appropriately. If in vain the readers attempt to guess what was on the writer's mind, he or she needs to revise the work. This activity can incorporate several *language skills* simultaneously such as *reading, writing,* listening and speaking. Thus, "if the student author's friends cannot understand his or her haiku, he or she should explain its meaning in the target language, a process which will enhance the learners' communicative competence" (Lee, 2011).

7. Examples of Haiku Composed by EFL Students

Lee (2011) used haiku written by poets such as Basho Matsuo, Eric W. Amann, Jack Cain, Sydell Rosenberg, and Cor van den Heuvel as models. The participants were first-year students of the University of Tokyo. The following haiku poems were composed by those students.

the silent wind . . .
birds are flying in the sky.
the sea in the morning.

lively voices
hope and a little apprehension:
the eve of a school festival

learning philosophy . . .
looks like space
broad and unseen place

After raining
there is a spider web
shining with drop of rain

one rainy day
I feel only wet air
in my warm room

a summer day
a ball flying over
in the blue sky.

A cold autumnal wind blowing
along the row of trees
I am alone . . .

At the top of a mountain
rocks covered with orange snow
as the sun rises.

a child in the snow
how did he get here?
one silent night

White breath
appears and disappears
on a winter's night

Victoria Harbor
Shining light standing behind the sea
in front of him and me

8. Conclusion

This article aims to throw light on using haiku as a teaching strategy that can increase students' motivation and improve their proficiency in English language. Researchers (Apol, 2002; Cheney, 2002; Higginson, 1985; Iida, 2010, 2012; Lee, 2011; Reichhold, 2002) have proved that composing haiku can help language learners to improve their English. Creating haiku helps EFL students learn to write fluently and acquire vocabulary because this highly structured form requires close attention to the choice of the appropriate words to convey specific feelings (Iida, 2010). Indeed, writing haiku acts as good stimuli to bring out creativity and originality. Students can use their own past experiences, memory and imagination to write their poems. Our experiences as teachers in EFL classrooms have supported these theories. Haiku brings up powerful emotional responses to the classroom. Language learners gain pleasure from reading, discussing, and even composing haiku. Students' haikus are personal and unique because they could relate their own real lives to the poems. Language learners can easily remember the

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haiku, because they spring from their deepest part of their own souls. No doubt writing haiku will speed up the language acquisition process. Of course we are not recommending the exclusive use of haiku in the language curriculum; however, it can play a valuable role in a balanced EFL programme which has been specially designed to incorporate several language *skills* simultaneously such as *reading, writing,* listening and speaking.

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THE EFFECT OF ORAL AND WRITTEN INSTRUCTION ON DEVELOPING EFL LEARNERS' STRESS RECOGNITION AT THE INTERMEDIATE LEVEL

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ABSTRACT
THE PRESENT STUDY INVESTIGATED THE EFFECTS OF ORAL AND WRITTEN INSTRUCTION ON DEVELOPING ENGLISH AS FOREIGN LANGUAGE (EFL) INTERMEDIATE LEARNERS' STRESS RECOGNITION. TO ACHIEVE THIS PURPOSE, A LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY TEST WAS ADMINISTERED TO ONE HUNDRED AND TWENTY LANGUAGE LEARNERS MAJORING IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING AT AZAD UNIVERSITY OF ABADAN, IRAN. AMONG THEM, SIXTY LANGUAGE LEARNERS WERE NON-RANDOMLY ASSIGNED TO TWO EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS OF ORAL AND WRITTEN CLASSES THROUGH CONVENIENCE SAMPLING METHOD. EACH GROUP HELD WITH THIRTY PARTICIPANTS. THEN THEY TOOK A PRE-TEST ON WORD STRESS RECOGNITION. THE PARTICIPANTS IN THE ORAL GROUP WERE INSTRUCTED WITH THE USE OF ORAL LANGUAGE ACTIVITIES IN LEARNING WORD STRESS PATTERNS WHEREAS THE PARTICIPANTS IN THE WRITTEN GROUP RECEIVED RULES OF WORD STRESS THROUGH WRITTEN INSTRUCTION FOR A WHOLE ACADEMIC FALL SEMESTER, 2015. FINALLY, THE PARTICIPANTS TOOK A POST-TEST ON WORD STRESS RECOGNITION. CONSEQUENTLY, THE PERFORMANCE OF ORAL GROUP SHOWED BETTER RESULTS THAN THE WRITTEN GROUP. STATISTICAL ANALYSES WERE CONDUCTED THROUGH INDEPENDENT SAMPLES AND PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST. PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST SHOWED THAT INSTRUCTION OF ORAL GROUP FOR INTERMEDIATE LANGUAGE LEARNERS WAS EFFECTIVE COMPARED TO THE WRITTEN GROUP ($P<.05$). INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST ANALYSES EXHIBITED THAT THERE WAS A SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE BETWEEN ORAL GROUP AND WRITTEN GROUP ($P<.05$). THE FINDINGS SHOWED THAT EFL INTERMEDIATE LEARNERS OF ORAL GROUP GAINED BETTER RESULTS THAN THE WRITTEN GROUP. THE STUDY SUGGESTS THAT ORAL INSTRUCTION ACTIVITIES FOR TEACHING WORD STRESS RECOGNITION SHOULD BE TAKEN INTO ACCOUNT AT INTERMEDIATE LEVELS TO ENHANCE THE LEARNERS' RECOGNITION OF WORD STRESS.

KEY WORDS: ORAL AND WRITTEN INSTRUCTIONS, INTERMEDIATE LEARNERS, WORD STRESS RECOGNITION

1.Introduction

Stress recognition plays a considerable role in expressing the meaning of words and language perceptions. Misplacement of primary stress in words may lead to misunderstanding and having another meaning (e.g., /ˈdezəret/ and /dezəˈret/). When the speakers talk to listeners in real life, the pronunciation is the first thing noticed by the addressee. If the pronunciation is weak, the meaning may be misunderstood the communicators (Bian, 2013). Stress recognition may be one of the main causes of weak misconception among EFL learners since they may not pay attention to the exact place of word stress (Mart, 2012). The most problematic area of pronunciation maybe word stress recognition. Therefore, it seems necessary to help learners and teachers with the use of proper instruction in developing stress recognition of vocabularies.

According to Kawai and Hirose (2000), speech recognition technology is used to measure the durations of each phone and shows the learners how native speakers understand the learners'

utterances. Lambacher (2001) argued that there are variety of activities and resources to develop pronunciation including 1) education (both formal and informal); 2) self-studying; 3) membership in professional organizations; 4) attending and presenting at conferences; 5) reflection upon educational issues; and 6) familiarity with computer assisted instruction and the Internet programs. Jenkins (2002) examined pronunciation syllabus for English as an international language among non-native speakers. In the study, three sets of data drawn from non-native speakers' interaction were provided in order to exemplify the phonological intelligibility in English as an international language. Finally, he argued that it is important to develop learners' accommodation skills as an integral part of teaching pronunciation for English as an international language. Therefore, it is better to promote both regional appropriateness and intelligibility among English as international language interlocutors.

Many researches (e.g., Roach, 2009) have been conducted on the perception of stress, and it is clear that many different sound characteristics are important in making a syllabus recognizably stressed. From his perceptual standpoint, all stressed syllables have one peculiarity in common, and that is called prominence; stressed syllables are recognized as stressed because they are more prominent that unstressed syllables. Roach maintained that loudness is a component of prominence. In a sequence of identical syllabus (e.g. ba:ba:ba:ba), if one syllable is articulated louder than the others, it will be heard as stressed. Prominence is produced by four main factors: (i) length (ii) pitch (iii) loudness and (iv) Experimental studies (e.g., Roach, 2009) have shown that these four factors are not equally important, the strongest effect is produced by pitch and length but loudness and quality have much less effect. As Roach identified, there are two levels of stress: tonic strong (or primary) and non-tonic strong (or secondary). The third level which could be called unstressed, regarded as being the absence of any recognizable amount of prominence. According to Roach (2009), the following information is required to decide on stress placement: (i) whether the word is morphologically simple or complex as a result of containing one or more affixes. (ii) The grammatical category the word belongs to (noun, verb, adjective, etc). (iii) The number of syllables in the word, and (iv) The phonological structure of those syllables. He also stated some rules for placement of stress as follows: in Two-Syllable words, if the second syllable of the verb consists of a long vowel or diphthong, or if it ends with more than one consonant, the second syllable is stressed. (E.g. "allot" /əˈlät/). If the final syllable contains a short vowel and one (or no) final consonant, the first syllable is stressed. (e.g., "enter" /ˈentə/). A final syllable is also undressed if it contains əʊ (e.g. "follow" /ˈfɑləʊ/).

Nouns have a different rule. If the second syllable contains a short vowel, the stress will usually come on the first syllable. (e.g., "money" /ˈmʌnɪ/). In the Three-Syllable words, if the last syllable contains a short vowel and ends with not more than one consonant, that syllable will be undressed, and stress will be placed on the penultimate syllable. (e.g., "encounter" /ɪnˈkaʊntə/). If the final syllable consists of a long vowel or diphthong, or ends with more than one consonant, that final syllable will be stressed (e.g., "entertain" /entəˈteɪn/). Nouns have a different rule: if the final syllable contains a short vowel or əʊ, it is unstressed; if the syllable preceding the final syllable consists of a long vowel or diphthong, or it ends with more than one consonant, the middle syllable will be stressed (e.g., "mimosa" /mɪˈməʊzə/). If the final syllable consists of a short vowel and the middle syllable contains a short vowel and ends with one consonant, the first syllable is stressed but both final and middle syllables are unstressed. Such as "quantity" /ˈkwɑntətɪ/. As cited in Bian (2013), over the last thirty years little attention has been given to second language stress. Word stress plays an important role in intelligibility and comprehensibility which poses problems for EFL learners. He suggested that the transfer of mother tongue sound systems is one of the major reasons for foreign language pronunciation errors. He examined the differences between Chinese and English stress. The study investigated the reasons of pronunciation difficulties in English stress among Chinese EFL learners, and finally implications for English pronunciation teaching are drawn.

Domahs, Genc, Knaus, Wiese and Kabak (2013) investigated the way the predictability of prosodic patterns in a particular language affect the processing of word stress by native speakers of that language. The results showed the relationships between two phonological processing routines in Turkish speakers. Furthermore, the variability of stress patterns did not affect prosodic processing in general but leaded to differential effects in stress perception (Kim, 2006). Ducate and Lomicka (2009) studied the role of using podcasts to improve pronunciation in second language learning and how students' viewpoint changed toward pronunciation over the semester. In which 22 intermediate students in French and German courses made five scripted pronunciation recordings during the

semester. After the pronunciation recordings, students produced three informal podcasts and completed a pre and post-survey based on Elliott's (1995) Pronunciation Attitude Inventory to evaluate their attitude regarding pronunciation. The findings revealed that students' pronunciation did not improve in regard to comprehensibility, perhaps because the 16-weeks treatment was too short to make significant improvement and there was no in-class pronunciation practice.

Park (2009) investigated the ways of teaching English pronunciation in Korean secondary schools and identifies the instructors' problems in teaching English pronunciation. The results showed that the Korean teachers did not have confidence in their own pronunciation and the major problems in teaching pronunciation included the lack of students' interest, lack of time, teaching methods and materials. He suggested that teacher training program needs to be improved to build confidence and promote their proficiency among the Korean teachers of English.

Zhang (2009) studied the role of input, interaction and output in the development of oral fluency and face to face interviews. The findings indicated that non-native oral fluency could be obtained through efficient and effective input, interaction and output in EFL, on the other hand lacking effective input and output also have too much influence to language forms and written texts. Tanner and Landon (2009) studied the effects of computer-assisted pronunciation on English as Second Language (ESL) learners' use of stress, intonation and overall comprehensibility. The results showed that the treatment had a significant effect on learners' perception of word stress and controlled production of stress, even with limited time for practicing Cued Pronunciation in a self-directed environment.

Ellis and Shintani (2010) investigated incidental acquisition by comparing the relative effects of two types of instruction: (1) comprehension-based instruction (CBI) and (2) production-based instruction (PBI) on young Japanese learners' incidental acquisition of English plural *–s*. The results showed that both the CBI and PBI groups performed much better than the control group on the comprehension and production tests. González (2010) made a comprehensive and critical summary of the cognitive linguistics (CL) on phrasal verbs with particular attention to its connection with approaches in Second Language Acquisition (SLA), and the concept of motivation, which has proven to be useful in teaching. The results revealed that (1) both Germanic and Non-Germanic S-language learners use a greater number of phrasal verbs than verbs. He suggested that 'the thinking for speaking hypothesis' maybe extended to the acquisition of phrasal verbs by second language learners.

Keuleers, Diependaele and Brysbaert (2010) compared English lexicon project (ELP) and French lexicon project (FLP) among 39 participants to examine what extent in Dutch psycholinguistics can be replicated in virtual experiments. The findings revealed that when good non-words are used, practice effects are minimal in lexical decision experiments and do not invalidate the behavioral data. Nassaji and Tian (2010) compared the efficiency of two types of output tasks (reconstruction editing tasks and cloze tasks) for learning English phrasal verbs. The study was conducted in two intact low-intermediate adult ESL classrooms. The effectiveness of the tasks was determined by how successfully learners completed the tasks before and after the treatment. The results showed that completing the tasks collaboratively and in pairs led to a better accuracy of task completion than completing them individually.

Yasuda (2010) examined whether enhancing awareness of conceptual metaphors of particles facilitates acquisition of phrasal verbs by Japanese EFL students. The students in the control group learned a set of phrasal verbs via traditional instruction, and those in the experimental group received the same input through a cognitive linguistic approach. The students in both groups were asked to fill in the missing adverbial particles of the phrasal verbs. Results showed the students' better performance than those in the control group. It was implying that when the target idioms were not stored in learners' mental lexicon, learners who were aware of conceptual metaphors could rely on metaphorical thought to produce a suitable adverbial particle. This highlighted that EFL learners need to be taught about the notion of conceptual metaphors explicitly before they can actively comprehend and produce appropriate phrasal verbs.

Shing and Yin (2014) indicated that films just give minor impact on the students' pronunciation. However, it is a good source to help students to improve their mastery of intonation, stress and pauses. Cho, Yu, Chun, Seo and Han (2014) investigated the effects of selective word stress, time alteration and varying sentence lengths on the speech perception of older listeners. Seventeen people with normal hearing were tested for seven conditions of different time-altered sentences, two conditions of selective word stress (i.e., stressed and unstressed), and three different lengths of

sentences (i.e., short, medium, and long) at the most adequate level for individuals in quiet circumstances. The findings showed that a combination of time compression and selective word stress is more effective for understanding speech in listeners than using the time-expanded condition. Romanelli and Menegotto (2015) made research on the perception of Spanish vowels /a, e, o/ and the perception of final and penultimate stress of words by beginner American English learners of Spanish. He concluded that perception of vowel is not a problem for English speakers who learn Spanish while the perception of stress is the problematic area.

This study focused on the area of word stress recognition through oral and written instructions. Since EFL learners need to recognize the appropriate stress in order to have an accurate pronunciation, the findings of this study could provide further empirical evidence to strengthen the pedagogical use of oral and written instructions in developing EFL learners' word stress recognition. Therefore, the results of this study may help EFL learners select proper activities to enhance learning word stress, and English language instructors who wish to teach word stress effectively as well as the curriculum developers who design a related syllabus concerning the EFL learners' word stress recognition. The main research questions in this study are as follows:

RQ1: Does oral instruction develop EFL learners' stress recognition at the intermediate level?

RQ2: Does written instruction develop EFL learners' stress recognition at the intermediate level?

RQ3. Is there a significant difference between oral and written instruction in developing EFL learners' stress recognition?

3. Methodology

3.1 Participants

To select the homogeneous participants, the researcher administered the Oxford Quick Placement Test (OQPT) to 120 students majoring in English at Islamic Azad University of Abadan, Iran. The researcher selected 60 students out of 120 students based on their performance on the OQPT test. The students whose scores were between 30 and 39 as intermediate level were selected as the participants of the study. The selected participants were with the age ranging from 20 to 26 years old. Then they were non-randomly divided into two experimental groups through convenience sampling method, each included 30 participants.

3.2. Instrumentation

Initially, the participants of this study took the Oxford Quick Placement Test (OQPT) for the sake of having homogeneous participants. This test consisted of sixty multiple-choice items. Since the test is a standardized test, the reliability of the test has been reported by the test designers. The second instrument was the pre-test which included 10 reading passages along with 50 multi-syllable words that were selected from the textbook "Select Readings: Intermediate" (Lee & Gundersen, 2011). The reliability of pre-test was met through KR-21 method as (r = .711) based on a pilot test. It was taught as the participants' textbook. The last instrument was the post-test which included a list of 50 multi-syllable words to determine the effectiveness of the treatment after the course. Its reliability was calculated through KR-21 method as (r = .769) based on a pilot test.

3.3. Materials

The textbook "Select Readings: Intermediate" written by (Lee & Gundersen, 2011) contains 14 units and every unit includes one reading passage. Totally, ten passages were adopted from the textbook which were taught in ten sessions.

3.4. Procedure

To accomplish the purpose of the study, the following procedures were carried out. This study was carried out for 10 sessions. Before instruction, first of all, to select homogeneous participants, the researcher administered Oxford Quick Placement Test (OQPT) to 120 students majoring in English at Islamic Azad University of Abadan. The learner who met the band scores between 30 and 39 as the intermediate level were determined as the participants and non-randomly divided into two experimental groups including the oral and written groups. Each included 30 participants. The amount of time, which was allocated to the treatment for every experimental group, was 45 minutes in each session. A pre-test which included 10 reading passages and 50 words was selected from the text book "Select Readings: Intermediate" written by (Lee & Gundersen, 2011). The pre-test was given

to the participants to determine the primary stress on the words. Treatment was conducted based on Richards and Renandya (2002) who worked on written and oral instructions in teaching pronunciation. The treatment on the both groups was conducted in oral and written teaching procedures.

In written group, the teacher taught the learners how to pronounce the words correctly through teaching word stress rules and writing some examples on the board with determining the place of stress on each word. The words were extracted from the book "Select Readings: Intermediate" written by (Lee & Gundersen, 2011) based on the learners' difficulties on the problematic areas including vowels, diphthongs, and triphthongs. Then the participants were asked to read the passage and put the primary stress on each word. The participants were asked to read the passage before placing the primary stress to let them be familiar with the part of speech within the text.

The oral group dealt with ten reading passages adopted from the same book regarding the learners' exercises. The participants were asked to listen to the compact disk (CD) of the textbook passages. Then the participants repeated sentence by sentence after that. This helped the learners to be familiar with different part of speech and pronunciation of the words in the passages with recognizing the stress of the words. This activity also involved them in practicing the correct pronunciation of words.

At last, after the treatment, the post-test similarly to the pre-test involved 10 reading passages from the same textbook and 50 multi-syllable words were extracted from those passages. The participants took the post-test through placing the primary stress of the words in the multiple-choice stress recognition. Finally, the obtained results were compared with each other to find out the effects of the treatment in both groups.

3.5 Data Analysis

The scores of the two experimental groups processed through the application of the statistical software SPSS 17. In order to determine the effect of each group on the stress recognition of words, the data collected through pre-test and post-test. Descriptive statistics including means, standard deviations and variances of the scores calculated. The data analyzed by Paired and Independent Samples t-test to find out the difference between and within the groups. The Paired Samples t-test was run so as to find out whether the differences between each groups' pre-tests and post-tests are statistically significant and the Independent Samples t-tests was calculated to compare the difference between the two groups' pre and post-tests.

4. Results

This section deals with the results obtained throughout the research and analytically scrutinizes the groups' performance in the study. To answer the research questions, the descriptive statistics of the pre and post-tests are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics

	N	Min.	Max.	Mean	Std. Deviation
Experimental Written-Pre-test	30	2.00	49.00	24.5667	12.66187
Experimental Written-Post-test	30	1.00	50.00	26.9000	14.19410
Experimental Oral-Pre-test	30	3.00	48.00	25.8667	13.20327
Experimental Oral-Post-test	30	4.00	50.00	36.2667	15.35541
Valid N (listwise)	30				

Table 1 shows the students participated in each group. The results showed that the mean of the experimental written pre-test was 24.5667 and the experimental written post-test was 26.9000. The mean of the experimental oral pre-test was 25.8667 and the experimental oral post-test was 36.2667. To compare oral and written groups' pre-test, data are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics (Pre-test)

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Experimental Written-Pre-test	30	24.5667	12.66187	2.31173
Experimental Oral-Pre-test	30	25.8667	13.20327	2.41058

Table 2 shows the descriptive statistics of the pre-test. In order to understand the effect of the pre-test on each group, descriptive statistical analysis including mean, standard deviation and standard error of mean. Although the means in the pre-tests were close, Independent Samples t-test shows the difference between the two groups statistically in Table 3.

Table 3.Independent Samples t-test (Pre-test)

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
								95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	.097	.756	-.389	58	.699	1.300	3.339	7.985	5.385
Equal variances not assumed			-.389	57.8	.699	1.300	3.339	7.985	5.385

Table 3 shows the observed t (.389) is less than the critical t (2.000) with df =58; therefore, the difference between the groups is not significant at ($p<0.05$). According to the critical t (2.000) with (df =58), the observed t among two pairs of the participants was less than the critical t. Therefore, Table 3 showed that there were no significant differences between the two pre-test groups among participants ($p<0.05$).

Table 4. Descriptive Statistics (post-test)

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Experimental Written-Post-test	30	25.8667	13.20327	2.41058
Experimental Oral-Post-test	30	36.2667	15.35541	2.80350

Table 4 shows that the mean in the Experimental Written post-test was 25.8667 and the mean in the experimental oral post-test was 36.2667. The mean in the two groups are different. However, there is a need to calculate the means through Independent Samples t-test to arrive at the significant level. The results are presented in Table 5.

Table 5. Independent Samples t-test (post-test)

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	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
								95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	2.041	.158	2.813	58	.007	10.40	3.6	17.80	2.99
Equal variances not assumed			2.813	56.7	.007	10.40	3.69	17.80	2.99

Table 5 shows that the observed t (2.813) is greater than the critical t (2.000) with df = 58. Therefore, there is a significant difference among the participants of the two experimental groups ($p<0.05$). Table 4.6 shows the differences between the pre and post-tests of each group.

Table 6.Descriptive Statistics (Experimental Written vs. Experimental Oral)

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Experimental Written Pre-test	24.566	30	12.66187	2.31173
	Experimental Written Post-test	26.900	30	14.19410	2.59148
Pair 2	Experimental Oral Pre-test	25.866	30	13.20327	2.41058
	Experimental Oral Post-test	36.266	30	15.35541	2.80350

Table 6 shows the descriptive statistics on the two tests of pre and post-tests in both groups. The results showed that there was a difference between pre-test and post-test of the first pair but there was much more difference could be seen in the pre and post-test of the second pair. However, there is need to calculate the significant difference of the pairs through Paired Samples t-test in Table 7.

Table 7. Paired Samples t-test (Experimental Written vs. Experimental Oral)

	Paired Differences			t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
			95% Confidence Interval of the Difference			

		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Experimental Written Pre-Post-test	2.33	9.13	1.66	5.74	1.07	1.399	29	.172
Pair 2	Experimental Oral Pre-Post-test	10.40	19.5	3.57	17.7	3.09	2.910	29	.00

Table 7 shows the differences between the pre-test and post-test of the two groups. Results show that the observed t (1.399) is less than the critical t (2.000) with df=29, the difference between the experimental written pre and post-tests is not significant at ($p<0.05$). Moreover, since the observed t (2.910) is greater than the critical t (2.000) with df=29, the difference between the oral group's pre and post-tests is significant at ($p<0.05$). Therefore, the results showed a significant development in the performance of the participants in the second pair.

5. Discussion

The results of the present study concerned with the research questions will be discussed as follows:

Research Question One: Does oral instruction develop EFL learners' stress recognition at the intermediate level?

The present study showed that in comparison to the performance of participants in experimental written group, the performance of participants in experimental oral group was different. This difference was much significant compared to that of experimental written group ($p<.05$). The mean of experimental oral group's scores in pre-test was less than their scores in the post-test. This result indicated a significant difference in the oral group rather than the written group. The participants in the oral group dealt with ten reading passages derived from the same book in terms of learners' difficulties. The participants were asked to listen to the text which played through CD. Moreover, the participants repeated sentence by sentence after that. It is helpful to the learners to be familiar with different part of speech and pronunciation of the words in the passage with its impact in recognizing the word stress and also involve them in conversation and correct pronunciation of words. The performance of oral group showed better results than that of the written group because of the input they were exposed to. The results are in line with Krashen (1982) who assumed that second language learning takes place simply by means of comprehensible input that language learners are exposed to. The difference of scores obtained from both groups showed that oral group has been more successful in learning stress recognition. The reason for the better performance of the oral group might be due to the fact that, activities e.g. stress correction which were employed by the learners may help them monitor their own pronunciation based on word stress.

The findings of this study are supported by Thiessen and Saffran (2007) who exposed English-learning infants to a list of words which got stress on the second syllable and discover if infants can find a relation between stress and syllable boundaries. A brief exposure allowed infants to subsequently segment iambic words correctly. The results suggested that infants are sensitive to the distribution of stress across word position and altering this distribution affects their segmentation strategies.

Yoshikawa and Leung (2014) supported the findings of this study. They conducted oral reading tasks to investigate Japanese learners of English as a foreign language (EFL) read words aloud with different lexical stress agreed with the result of this study. The findings showed that intermediate EFL learners can identify and manipulate second language prosodic information, even though their first language does not possess the property.

Research Question Two: Does written instruction develop EFL learners' stress recognition at the intermediate level?

The performance of written group was not significant comparing with the oral group. This can be due to the use of other activities which were employed by them while trying to learn pronunciation.

In doing so, the participants in the written group were just trying to focus on learning phonetics and word stress rules. In written group, the teacher taught the learners how to pronounce the words correctly through teaching word stress rules and writing some examples on the board with determining the place of stress on each word. One reason of their weakness may be due to this type of instruction comparing to the oral group since it was neglecting the significance of natural approach as supported by Krashen (1982). The natural approach claims that language learning is a reproduction of the way humans naturally acquire the language pronunciation.

The findings of the study are compatible with the results of Yoshikawa and Leung (2014) who conducted oral reading tasks among the Japanese EFL learners. The results in which showed that intermediate EFL learners can recognize and manipulate second language prosodic information. The result of this study is compatible with the result of Bassetti and Atkinson (2015) who investigated various orthographic effects on the pronunciation of English words among native users of the Italian phonologically writing system. Results also indicated that orthographic forms affect pronunciation of known words among experienced instructed learners, albeit less than repeating words rather than reading-aloud tasks.

Research Question Three: Is there a significant difference between oral and written instruction in developing EFL learners' stress recognition?

According to the results obtained from this study, the most effective group between the two groups were the oral group who outperformed the other group in achieving the mean of 36.2667 in word stress recognition post-test. The reason might be due to the fact that participants of this group paid more attention to inputs and oral activities than the written group. Experimental oral group showed better results rather than the experimental written group on recognizing the word stress in the passages. However, this does not mean that the role of other activities in developing word stress recognition among participants could be ignored. Generally, the results showed that the scores obtained from the oral group in the performance of recognizing word stress are quite different in comparison with written group.

Results of this study are supported by Saito (2015) who conducted a study the aim of which was to evaluate the effects of second language (L2) as length of residence (LOR) on late Japanese learners of English in Canada. Data aggregated from 65 participants in three groups of learners (long-LOR, mid and short) and two baseline groups of native English and native Japanese speakers, with 13 participants in each group. Teaching word stress through oral instruction may help the learners to monitor their own pronunciation and aural skills through phonological knowledge and help them to develop their fluency, made meaningful context, and develop stress recognition of the word in the context. The finding of this study is in the line with the results of Cho et al., (2014) who investigated the effects of selective word stress (i.e., unstressed and stressed), time alteration, , and lengths of sentences (i.e., short, medium, and long) on the speech perception of older listeners. The findings emphasized the significance of combination of selective word stress and time is more effective for understanding speech in older listeners than using the time-expanded condition.

6. Conclusion

This study began with the assumption that oral and written instructions could enhance the intermediate language learners' word stress recognition ability. The instruction lasted for a whole academic semester. During this time, the teacher (researcher) employed the aforementioned instructions and taught the participants in the experimental groups how to recognize primary word stress. The participants in the written group focused on learning phonetics and word stress rules during the instruction while the participants in the oral group concentrated on listening to the given passage which played through CD.

After the post-test, the results indicated that the oral instruction of word stress affected the intermediate language learners. That is, the word stress recognition ability of the experimental oral group who had made use of oral activities surpassed that of the written group. The result of the study proved that length of instruction was generally improved comprehensibility through its connection with varied prosody, optimal speech rate, adequate and proper lexico-grammar usage. These findings suggest that learners continue to improve in their L2 oral proficiency over an extensive period of L2. The findings of this study reveal the fact that this study can be effective if EFL teachers help students to develop their word stress recognition, the use of self-correction like self-monitoring and affective activities could be helpful. The learners may improve their pronunciation and word stress

recognition. However, the role of other activities such as repetition, role play, conversation drills and communicative activities in developing word stress should not be ignored.

6.1. Implications of the Study

The implications the present study may bring out for material designers, language teachers, and language learners. Language studies in the domain of language learning activities, especially word stress recognition activities in developing learning pronunciation are well advised to take the implications presented in this study into thoughtful considerations. Material designers are well counseled to design their learning pronunciation activities in such a way that necessitates the employment of word stress recognition activities at intermediate levels. Moreover, they must bear in mind that word stress recognition activities should be presented in a right time and at suitable levels that conforms to the reader's actual potential in cognition, in order for them to learn pronunciation and word stress recognition better.

Material designers are advised to acquaint intermediate language learners with the advantages of word stress recognition activities, not necessarily incorporating these activities into language textbooks so that language learners with intermediate language ability may draw upon them. Many language teachers in EFL contexts treat the word stress skills in a traditional way. They are considerably remiss in teaching this skill, overlooking the insight that they can give language learners by learning word stress activities in general and particular. It is the responsibility of methodologists and applied linguists to help them fathom out the value of learning word stress activities based on instruction.

The application of word stress recognition activities such as listening to stress cues for pronunciation skill result in successful learning among intermediate learners. Language learners who are successful in their pronunciation skill might draw on these activities more frequently than do those who are poor in their pronunciation skill.

This study attempted to find out the effects of oral and written instruction on intermediate EFL learners' word stress recognition and did not take the other instructions or factors into consideration. Thus, the sample size is limited in population to 60 students, so more research is needed in similar situations with larger population to support the findings and to find more about the role of instructions on word stress recognition. In addition, only ten sessions were run to see the effects of each instruction. Moreover, this study was done for two types of instructions as written and oral instructions and it should be investigated with other instruction types and activities.

6.2. Suggestions for Further Studies

The following are some suggestions and insights regarding word stress recognition activities and learning pronunciation for further studies. Researchers are highly counseled to consider them before carrying out any study. Psychological, biological, pedagogical, and geographical factors play important roles in word stress language learning activities and learning pronunciation. This study did not take them into consideration. Since learning a second/foreign language could be much influenced by these factors, researchers are recommended to give heed to them. The present study has been carried out at the intermediate level. Succeeding studies had better evaluate the effect of instruction of pronunciation activities on enhancing the word stress recognition at the beginning and advanced levels. Since this study was conducted on general students majoring in English at Islamic Azad University of Abadan, Iran, some investigations could be launched to consider the role of instruction of pronunciation activities on promoting the word stress recognition skill at secondary education in EFL contexts. Further studies may be needed to engage the language testing and language methodologies as the other pedagogical factors in the instruction and use of pronunciation instruction activities and their influence on the promotion of word stress recognition.

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AN EXPLORATION OF TASKS, MATERIALS, TECHNIQUES, FACTORS, PRINCIPLES AND OTHER CLASSROOM VARIABLES RELATED TO L2 LEARNING MOTIVATION AND THE LEARNING OUTCOME

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Abstract
THE EXIGENCY OF THE EFFECTIVE L2 LEARNING AND TEACHING, ESPECIALLY EFFECTIVE ENGLISH LEARNING AND TEACHING HAS HIGHLIGHTED THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE L2 LEARNING MOTIVATION.
MOTIVATION IS AN UMBRELLA TERM FOR ALL THE CONDITIONS WHICH DETERMINE ANY HUMAN ACTIVITY. SO, WHEN ONE IS MOTIVATED, HE/ SHE DOES SOMETHING WITH A CERTAIN GOAL AND PUTS A LOT OF EFFORT INTO IT. MOREOVER, THIS EFFORT IS ASSOCIATED WITH A DESIRE AND WILLINGNESS TO REACH THE GOAL AND ALSO WITH A POSITIVE ATTITUDE TOWARDS THE ACTIVITY THE INDIVIDUAL INTENDS TO DO. IN TERMS OF L2 LEARNING AND TEACHING, THE EXISTENCE OF MOTIVATION ACTIVATES STUDENTS' DESIRE, WILLINGNESS AND EAGERNESS TO BE ACTIVE AND CREATIVE IN THE PROCESS OF LEARNING, PROMOTES THEIR WILLINGNESS TO COMMUNICAATE(WTC), ENHANCES THEIR POTENTIAL IN LEARNING ENGLISH AND DISCOVERING NOVEL MATERIALS, HELPS THEM TO TAKE CHARGE OF THEIR OWN LEARNING PROCESS, SETTING OBJECTIVES AND MONITORING THEIR LEARNING OUTCOMES. THE CONCEPT OF ENGLISH LEARNING MOTIVATION IS MORE IN LINE WITH THE EFL CONTEXTS RATHER THAN ESL CONTEXTS. THUS, IN THIS STUDY, I MAKE AN EFFORT TO PROVIDE THE TEACHERS TO CREATE THE SENSE OF MOTIVATION INSIDE THE LEARNERS AND MOSTLY THE STUDENTS WITH A REMARKABLE AND VALUABLE ACCOUNT OF TENETS OF MOTIVATION IN THE PROCESS OF LEARNING AND TEACHING TO CORPORATE THEM BETTER PAY ATTENTION THE IMPORTANCE OF THE L2 LEARNING AND TEACHING, MANAGE AND GO THROUGH THIS PROCESS EFFECTIVELY. ALSO, I TRY TO INTRODUCE THE TYPES OF MOTIVATION AS WELL AS THE THEORIES RELATED TO IT AND POINT OUT THE WAYS OF CREATING, PROMOTING, PROMPTING THAT INSIDE THE STUDENTS AND TEACHERS.

KEY WORDS: MOTIVATION, TYPES OF MOTIVATION, SELF-DETERMINATION THEORY

Introduction
It is a widely accepted tenet that "motivation" is the basic ingredient of self-directed behavior and achievement. Similarly, most foreign language teachers and second language acquisition researchers would unreservedly agree that motivation is an essential element of successful language learning. The relationship between motivational levels and improved language proficiency has been thoroughly documented in a large number of research publications [Ushioda, "Motivation," *Learner* (2006); Gardner, "Motivation," *Social* (2001); Dornyei, *Teaching*; Dornyei and Schmidt (2001)] for almost forty years since Gardner and Lambert's pioneering work addressing learner attitudes, or Rubin's seminal study investigating the learning techniques deployed by the so-called "good language learner".

Hence, motivation, a much-used and all-embracing term, has long been a buzzword in foreign language teaching and second language acquisition and learning research contexts, but what exactly does it consist of and is it similar in all types of learning contexts? How much can teachers really influence it? More importantly, how can we help to sustain it? What is its relationship with learner autonomy? (I have answered this question in my thesis project; the effects of L2 learning motivation on learners' autonomy).

Recently, in our educational system we have been investigating ways to enhance our learners' intrinsic motivation for language learning, and hopefully help to improve their language proficiency at the same time, rather than just watch them aiming to pass their final examination with a minimal degree of effort in order to further their academic career. It appears that many of them are, in fact, unprepared for the independent learning opportunities that embarking on a university degree offers, so a parallel concern is the gradual fostering of greater learner autonomy and meta-cognitive awareness as a means to motivate them further. As corroborated in a recent qualitative study which found learner independence to be the change most frequently reported by beginning university students "The transition from school to university brings with it a change of circumstances, demands and experiences which is likely to change the motivational profile of the student" (Bavendiek, 2004). This change in learning context requires adaptation on cognitive, meta-cognitive and social/affective levels as the move towards greater autonomy is not achieved magically without guidance or support.

The ability to generate "internally" driven, or intrinsic, motivation for learning, rather than approaching learning tasks in response to "external" rewards such as passing grades or greater employment opportunities (motivation types which we are going to discuss about in further parts), is essential for developing greater learner autonomy (Dornyei, *Motivational*, 2001). Ushioda ["Socializing," "Motivation," "Language" (2006)] has also more recently highlighted the interactions between motivation and autonomy theory, practice and research traditions based on her previous 1996 publication linking the two, claiming that motivation needs to come from within and be self-determined as well as internally regulated for effective and autonomous language learning to take place.

My project, I mean the longitudinal action research project reported here is an attempt to explore and identify motivational types and levels. Our principal and ultimate objective is to reach a more precise understanding of what motivation involves for our own tertiary level learners.

Motivation has been the subject of research of many theoreticians, teachers and psychologists. Through their work, the concept of motivation could be easily defined. For example, Dornye claims that students who really want to learn the English language can cope with its studying without difficulties despite not having a special talent or an aptitude in foreign language acquisition. (2001).

So, up to now we found out that one of the significant aspects of human behavior is called motivation which has been studied enormously and it is called a dynamic process because we are trying extremely hard to perform a particular action. In other word motivation orientation is concerned with the underlying attitudes and goals which give rise to the action. It has been used also over approximately three decades by several researchers for instance, Reeve (2002), Vallerand, Pelletier and Koestner (2008), Ratelle, Guay, Vallerand, Larose and Senecal (2007), to investigate different aspects of motivation process such as health, education, physical activity etc. According to Vallerand et al. (2008), different studies in numerous areas indicated that, for investigating human function, motivation and development, self determination theory (we are going to discuss about in further parts) can be extended successfully. Types of motivation, based on the self-determination theory gives rise to an action which is varied because of different goals, and the main differences are among intrinsic and extrinsic form of motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Deci And Ryan (1985) stated that having an inherent tendency that are used for developing personal factors, overcoming all challenges which exist in life, also for combining all gained experiences in their idea, are the basic opinion of self-determination theory. Ryan and Deci (2000a; 2000b) postulated that the theory which investigates motivation in three forms of intrinsic form of motivation, extrinsic form of motivation and Amotivation (we are going to discuss about in further parts), is proposing that social factors which are used to improve psychological needs, are influencing different types of motivation.

The main Role of Motivation in Foreign Language Learning

As we have emphasized the significance of the motivation, If you were asked which factors influence the learning process, you would probably put motivation on the top of your list. Undoubtedly, one of

the most important aims of psychology and pedagogy has been the explanation of human behavior in particular situations. Why do people behave the way they behave? Nakonecny explains that this "why" includes two basic aspects. The first one is related to the manner of human behavior, i.e.; why does an individual behave friendly in a particular situation? The other one is related to the aim of this behavior, i.e.; what is the reason? (1996). But let us get back to root and the basic concept of motivation and look at this more specifically. The term is derived from a Latin word "movare" which means "to move". Homola says that motivation is a general term for all the conditions which determine any human activity. (1969). So when we say that the individual is motivated, we point to the fact that he/ she does something with a certain goal and puts a lot of effort into it. Moreover, this effort is associated with a desire and willingness to reach the goal and also with a positive attitude towards the activity the individual intends to do. Gardner, a specialist in the psychology of foreign language learning, creates a broader perspective with regard to motivation. He claims that motivation includes four elements – goal, willing behavior, desire to reach the goal and positive approach towards the activity. (1985).

In the description of foreign language learning, Dunkel (1948) outlines a similar division of motivation aspects as well as a description of the relationship between the goal of learning a foreign language and the behavior in the process of reaching this goal. He pointed out the differences between the types of motivation and the intensity of motivation. He also specifies that the type of motivation is directly bonded to the goal and that the intensity is related to the degree of effort which the individual puts into achieving this goal. In connection to the topic, the type of motivation answers the question why the individual studies a foreign language? The observation is that there are many reasons for learning the English language, e.g.:

- To be able to communicate with the members of the target community.
- To be able to apply for certain jobs.
- To broaden one's knowledge.
- To make one's parents happy.
- To follow the needs of society.

Gardner claims that if we want to describe the motivation to learn the English language, it is necessary to know the specific reasons that are connected to learning goals. If we ask a student "Why do you study the English language?" and the answer was "Because I have to", it would be considered the reason why the student is in the classroom, however it would not be considered as any kind of motivation for learning the English language. (1985). On the contrary, this would indicate the lack of motivation to learn English. If we want to specify the goals in learning, we need to relate them directly to learning the English language.

On closer examination of the relevant literature, in other word and saying in a different manner, it becomes clear that motivation is, in effect, a highly complex concept which regularly features in discussions of effective language learning or teaching as much recent research has testified (Dornyei and Ushioda; Ushioda, "Motivation"; Gardner, "Motivation"; Dornyei, *Psychology*, *Teaching*; Huitt), and which can also be viewed from a variety of perspectives. The term motivation may even seem, at times, to have lost its full power simply by merit of overuse in a variety of everyday contexts such as work, education or sport. However, despite its apparent familiarity, defining it accurately has proved to be extremely tricky since we can find a plethora of competing definitions and theories in contemporary motivational psychology, and, in the words of Dornyei, motivation "[...] is one of the most elusive concepts in the whole domain of the human sciences". Yet, although it appears difficult to reach a working definition of motivation, seminal examples include that proposed by Gardner, promoting the stimulation of "[...] effort, plus desire to achieve the goal of learning, plus favorable attitudes towards learning the language" (*Social*, 2001), echoed more than ten years later by Ellis, who suggested that motivation corresponds to "The effort learners put into learning an L2 as a result of their desire or need to learn it [...] motivation involves the attitudes and affective states that influence the degree of effort that learners make to learn an L2". Common elements which recur when reviewing definitions of motivation include the "desire" to achieve something and the "effort" required to do that, as well as "affective" factors as also featured in Williams and Burden's view, who see motivation as "[...] a state of cognitive and emotional arousal, which leads to a conscious decision to act, and which gives rise to a period of sustained intellectual and/or physical effort in order to

attain a previously set goal (or goals)". As Dornyei later concludes in more general terms, motivation is responsible for "*why* people decide to do something, *how hard* they are going to pursue it and *how long* they are willing to sustain the activity" (Motivational ,2001).

A general consensus seems to be that motivation is an unobservable, internal state or condition (a need, desire or want) that serves to activate or energize goal-oriented behavior and give it direction, and which is therefore difficult to identify accurately or indeed measure. We can conclude that some of the factors involved in language learning motivation are "cognitive" (interest, curiosity or engagement), some are "affective" (confidence or lack of anxiety), and others are "behavioral" (persistence, attention, or interaction). However, motivation can also be viewed as a dynamic concept which is open to pedagogical intervention [Dornyei, *Psychology*; Dornyei and Otto (2001)] and which may be affected or influenced by a wide range of variables such as social context, teaching practice or strategy repertoire depending on the learning context or the demands of the task at hand. Currently, research interest has also begun to focus more on the role of learners, rather than teachers, as agents who regulate and shape their own motivation (Ushioda, "Motivation" , 2006).

Types of motivation

With reference to motivational types, language learning motivation was originally viewed in terms of two primary orientations, "instrumental" and "integrative" [Gardner and Lambert (2004)]. Instrumental motivation refers to that which is aroused by external learner goals or pragmatic, functional motives such as passing exams, financial rewards or furthering a career. In many educational contexts, this type of motivation often appears to be the major driving force behind language learning. In contrast, integrative motivation corresponds to the desire to identify with the culture of speakers of the target language, with learners showing interest in and a positive disposition towards the people and culture of the target language group. However, it is true to say that many foreign language learners' general reasons for learning may not be crucial in determining or shaping their motivation; for example, maybe they do not hold distinct attitudes towards the target language group. Yet they may find learning tasks intrinsically motivating and may feel personally involved or interested, so the maintenance of curiosity and motivation might be the cause of learning, but may also result from it. Alternatively, a language learner might have strong integrative motivation but may derive little pleasure from the learning process (Schmidt and Savage qtd. Ushioda, "Motivation", 2006).

With more recent cognitive theories of motivation, the integrative/instrumental dichotomy has been gradually replaced by "intrinsic" and "extrinsic" motivational types (Ushioda, "Motivation", 2006). Intrinsic motivation refers to that motivation which comes from within and is generated by the learner, meaning that the learner's reasons for learning might correspond to enjoyment, interest, challenge, or skill development. Extrinsic motivation, in contrast, links learning to external goals such as gaining a qualification. As Ushioda points out, there has been "a tendency to conflate the intrinsic/extrinsic motivation with the integrative/instrumental motivation to some extent since intrinsic motivation, like integrative motivation, is founded in deep-rooted personal interests and positive attitudes and feelings" ("Motivation", 2006). Gardner's instrumental and integrative motivation types might also constitute forms of extrinsic motivation as they both define reasons for learning a language as a means to an end. Gardner has also made a recent distinction between "language learning motivation" and "classroom learning motivation," which could reflect the intrinsic/extrinsic dichotomy ("Motivation". 2004). Language learning motivation refers to the motivation to learn (and acquire) a second language, and is a "[...] a general characteristic of the individual that applies to any opportunity to learn the language. It is relatively stable [...] but it is amenable to change under certain conditions" Gardner, ("Motivation", 2006). Classroom learning motivation corresponds to the motivation in the classroom situation, and "the focus is on the individual's perception of the task at hand, and is largely state oriented" (Gardner, "Motivation", 2004). It can be influenced by a variety of factors (teacher, class atmosphere, course content, materials and facilities, personal characteristics) as well as the general language learning motivation already described.

Distinguishing between different types of motivation may not be so useful, as Gardner points out ("Motivation", 2004); since more is needed to achieve language learning success, and it seems that it is the intensity of motivation, in all its cognitive, affective and behavioral components that is the crucial factor. Extrinsic motivation may promote language acquisition on a short-term basis, and is often

classroom-bound, activity-based and proficiency-linked, but a more intrinsic type of motivation, with the learner experiencing genuine interest in communicating in the target language and a favorable attitude towards the target culture, seems to bring about greater language learning success. We should thus focus on the need to not only "identify" or "generate" but also help learners to "sustain" their motivation beyond that experienced in the short-term classroom context, which might be more extrinsically or instrumentally oriented in nature, and help it become more internally generated. This is what we wished to address in the study reported here exploring the role of language learner strategies and the development of learner autonomy as essential ingredients of language learning motivation, especially since classroom-based research addressing motivational processes are still somewhat scarce as opposed to the growing body of more theoretical studies (Ushioda, "Motivation", 2006).

Amotivation

Amotivation refers to the lack of motivation. According to Ratelle et al. (2007), there is no connection between performance and consequence for people who are Amotivated.

Cognitive Motivation in Language Learning

In a cognitive approach to motivation, processes play a central role, mediating and shaping involvement in learning (see Dörnyei and Ottó, 1998; Ushioda, 1996a; Williams and Burden, 1997). Dörnyei (2001) argues that "a major challenge for motivational theories is to portray motivational processes as they happen in time" (p. 82). In addition to the shift of attention to the cognition and processes of motivation in L2 learning, the recent revival of interest in Vygotsky's conception of 1) motivation and autonomy as a socially constructed process (see Ushioda, 2003, 2006a, 2006b) and 2) the process of internalization to make individuals become self-regulated as a result of social interaction with more competent others (Vygotsky, 1978) has attracted L2 scholars to explore the link between L2 motivation and autonomous language learning.

Since the 1990s, some influential theories of motivation in the general education literature have been used to explain L2 motivation in relation to autonomy. Among those motivational formulations, Deci and Ryan's (1985) self-determination theory has been one of the most widely-adopted approaches to account for motivational autonomy. Dickinson (1995) demonstrates the possibility of reinterpreting Gardner's distinction between integrative and instrumental motivation in language learning in terms of a more general distinction of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.

Self-Determination Theory

According to Deci and Ryan's (1985) self-determination theory, there are two types of motivation, namely intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation. Figure 1 shows that intrinsic orientation, extrinsic orientation and Amotivation lie on a continuum from self-determined to non-determined. An individual with a high level of self-determination is likely to demonstrate autonomy in his or her learning and lead to higher achievement.

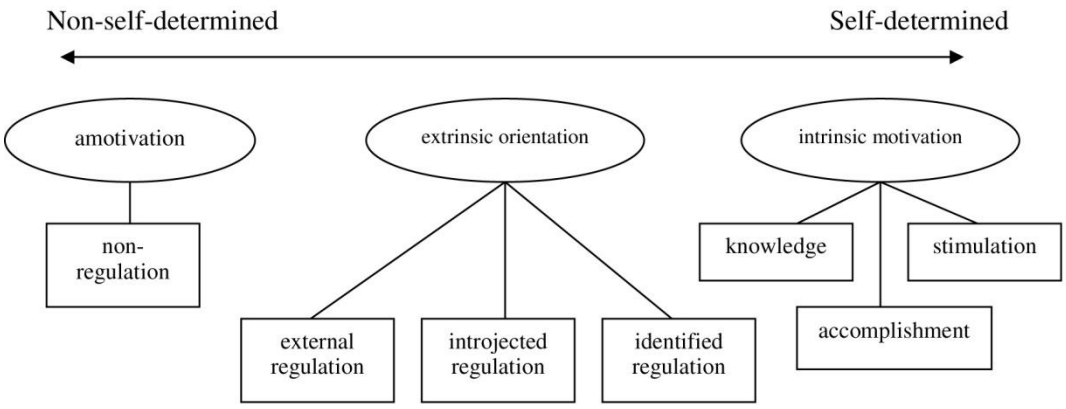

Figure 1 – Orientation Subtypes along the Self-determination continuum (Adapted From Deci & Ryan 2000, P.72)

Conceptualization of Self-Determination

Despite the fact that less self-determined motivation is less likely to help individuals develop autonomous learning behaviors, Noels *et al.* (2000) note that extrinsic motivation "does not imply a lack of self-determination in the behavior performed … different types of extrinsic motivation (EM) can be classified along a continuum according to the extent to which they are internalized into the self concept" (p. 61). Nunan (1997) points out that "autonomy is not an all-or-nothing concept, that there are degrees of autonomy" (p. 192). Deci and Ryan (1985) argue that self-determination "is integral to intrinsically motivated behavior and is also in evidence in some extrinsically motivated behaviors" (p. 38). They conceive of self-determination not only as a *capacity*, but also a *need* which embodies "a basic, innate propensity to be self-determining that leads organisms to engage in interesting behaviors, which typically has the benefit of developing competencies, and of working toward a flexible accommodation with the social environment" (p. 38). As a result of such tendency toward adequate accommodation in the service of one's self-determination, the choices made by an individual "are based on an awareness of [his]…organismic needs and a flexible interpretation of *external events*" (p. 38). Individuals can choose to exert control over their own environment or his outcomes, and according to Deci and Ryan (1985), giving up control willingly is also a form of self-determined behavior. In other words, extrinsically-motivated behaviors could be considered to be self-determined if the individual has made an informed choice of being other-regulated instead of self-regulated. In fact, there are a number of studies which attempt to link intrinsic motivation and autonomous forms of extrinsic motivation to positive academic performance2 (e.g., Grolnick, Ryan, & Deci, 1991; Pintrich, & De Groot, 1990).

No activity in reality, especially in the L2 learning context, would guarantee to induce intrinsically-motivated behaviors for all individuals. Deci, Vallerand *et al.* (1991) assume that "people are motivated to internalize the regulation of uninteresting behaviors that are valuable for effective functioning" (p. 338) if; 1) they identify with the personal utility of the activity; 2) they are offered choices about the activity in an autonomy supportive environment; and 3) their sentiment and views are respected and acknowledged by significant others. Internalization is the central concept of self-determination and it is "a proactive process through which people transform regulation by external contingencies into regulation by internal processes (Schafer 1968, cited in Deci, Vallerand *et al,* 1991). Internalization of a personally-valued behavior as a result of increased perceived competence, relatedness with significant others and autonomy would give rise to willingness to perform the activity although the activity may remain uninteresting. Competence, relatedness and autonomy are the three basic psychological needs inherent in human beings. Deci, Vallerand *et al.* (1991) conceptualize *competence* to be the understanding of "how to attain various external and internal outcomes and being efficacious in performing the requisite action" (p. 327); *relatedness* to be the development of "secure and satisfying connections with others in one's social milieu"; and *autonomy* to be the state of "being self-initiating and self-regulatory of one's own actions".

According to self-determination theory, autonomy-supportive social and interpersonal contexts are essential for fulfilling the three psychological needs and, in turn, facilitate intrinsic motivation and self-determination. Controlling contextual events such as promised rewards and threatened punishment are found to have the tendency of fostering an external perceived locus of causality, compromising intrinsic motivation for interesting tasks and hampering the internalization of regulations for uninteresting tasks (Deci, Vallerand *et al,* 1991; Deci *et al.,* 1994). On the contrary, where choices are offered about what tasks to engage in and the amount of time spent on the task, learners of all ages would become more self-regulated and more able to internalize the regulation (Deci *et al.,* 1994; Swann & Pitman, 1977; Zuckerman, Porac, Lahin, Smith, & Deci, 1978). Acknowledging learners' negative feelings about the task or the way in which they are requested to complete the task is found to reinforce learners' self-determination (Koestner, Ryan, Bernieri, & Holt, 1984). Similarly, learners' self-determined regulation differs depending on the interpersonal style a person, especially the teacher in the language classroom, employs in administering events and presenting feedback. Deci *et al*. (1994) observed that non controlling styles of presenting feedback to learners promotes the internalization of regulation and subsequent autonomous self-regulation. In addition, classrooms with autonomy-supportive teachers are shown to have positive effects on learners' intrinsic motivation, perceived competence and self-esteem (Ryan & Grolnick, 1986).

Learner Beliefs

In Deci and Ryan's (1985) theory of self-determination, the intrapersonal aspect of motivation has been accounted for in terms of the internalization of regulation. To a large extent, internalization of regulations could only be made possible when the orientations are compatible with the individuals' value and belief system. Learners' subjective value system is "a more or less organized collection of internalized perceptions, beliefs and feelings related to one's position in the social world, developed during the past as a reaction to past experiences" (Benson, 2001) and it determines the internal regulation of learners' approaches to learning and motivation to complete language learning tasks. Developing learners' positive language-related values and attitudes is, therefore, conceived of as having the most far-reaching consequences in motivating learners to become more self-regulated. Among the beliefs that learners hold which have a direct impact on their motivation, self-efficacy refers to beliefs about their possession of the capability to accomplish a task. Learners' self-efficacy has been shown to be positively correlated with the tendency of engaging in more self-regulatory activities and demonstrating greater intrinsic interest in their studies (Miller, Behrens, Greene, & Newman, 1993; Schunk , 1984). Ushioda (1996) argues that differing beliefs are also likely to affect and shape motivation, and the ways in which learners perceive the experiences of learning itself is a crucial motivational dimension. She proposes the notion of motivational thinking which encompasses learners' beliefs about their past learning experiences; motivational and learning goals; intrinsic value of learning in relation to skill development, competence and personal satisfaction; self-concept; learning process; and their relationships with significant others. This new dimension has an implication for the development of learner autonomy. According to Ushioda (1996), it is the learner's own thinking which motivates intrinsic, self-regulatory learning behaviors. It is, therefore, crucial to help learners shape positive motivational thinking which would facilitate the development of more self-regulatory language learning behaviors.

There are three major sources of motivation; here, we try to analyze and discuss about these three major sources found in different researches that influence and are related to the learners' level of motivation. These sources are extracted from the students' comments and written evaluations, findings of other related researches which are mentioned in the references. the learners should be aware of the importance of the desires for stimulation, accomplishment and knowledge in fostering motivation and autonomy.

Desire for Stimulation

Two themes were categorized under intrinsic motivation which concerned learners' desire for stimulation: *interest* and *fun in English*.

A considerable number of learners expressed that the way in which they sustained their motivation for learning was to work on language learning tasks or activities that they were interested in. the pleasurable feelings associated with performing tasks that the learners found interesting was one of the major sources of motivation for them to carry on with their learning plan. An example of comments of this kind is:

I like watching movies during my learning hours because it is relaxing and this is something that I enjoy doing. It is this sense of enjoyment that keeps me going… Grammar is a compulsory goal that I don't particularly like. Every time when I do grammar exercises for learning, I can't help falling asleep because I feel so bored.

The choice that those learners made was based solely on their interest in particular types of activities. They were interested in the activity itself and the pleasurable sensations it could bring, but not English language learning. With the given flexibility and choice in learning, some learners tended to work on learning activities which were perceived to be more interesting and entertaining. Watching movies was one of the most popular learning activities expressed in the different questionnaires. In the written evaluations, a few learners mentioned that being able to appreciate the fun of learning English was a key source of motivation for learning, but the number of learners who perceived English learning to be fun was small.

Desire for Accomplishment

At the initial stage of learning, the learners identified their own weaknesses by taking diagnostic tests and conducting needs analyses for themselves. The purpose of goal-setting was to give learners a clearer idea of what to do, how to do it and when it should be done. With the concrete goals, the learners reported increased motivation in attaining those goals. The learners' self-reported desires for goal attainment was represented by three themes in the written evaluations: *determination in improving weaknesses*, *accomplishing goals*, and *clearly-defined goals*.

Learners' desire for accomplishment can be illustrated by an interesting comment made by a learner regarding task completion in learning. As she/he explained,

I feel guilty if I can't complete the tasks as planned for that week. Once I've finished my activities as planned, I feel good about myself. I remember in the middle of the semester, I was two weeks behind my schedule because I had to prepare for my mid-term exams. By the time when I tried to pick it up again, I was so reluctant to do so. I felt so bad about myself at that time.

This example shows that the learner's sense of guilt did not come from an external contingency, but a self-regulated mechanism.

Learners' personal satisfaction is closely-related to learners' desire for accomplishing goals. A small number of learners commented that the sense of success or achievement was a major source of motivation for them to carry on with their learning work. Being able to complete the planned learning tasks and attain the learning goals would give the learners a sense of success. The low frequency of occurrence of comments in this theme indicates a lack of personal satisfaction for most learners or even a sense of failure when engaging in learning.

Desire for Knowledge

Data from the written evaluation indicates that another source of motivation for some learners was their desire for knowledge. There were instances of comments made by the learners regarding their pursuit of 1) knowledge about Western cultures, and 2) knowledge which was presented solely in English. It was evident that the learners' desire for knowledge was exclusive of the knowledge about the English language.

Being stimulated by the pleasurable feelings derived from the discovery of new knowledge in English, those learners would be more motivated to sharpen their English skills in order to explore the subject matter further. This was a practical reason for learning English for most of the learners who had a strong desire for knowledge presented mostly in English.

Several learners showed a strong aspiration to a better understanding of Western cultures, especially those of the English-speaking countries. The pleasurable sensations that the learners had experienced when talking to native-speakers of English to learn more about the cultural practices in their home countries reinforced their determination to hold regular conversations with other native-English speakers during their learning hours. They made comments like:

I like talking to English speakers to find out what's going on in their countries. Last week, I chatted with a French guy in my dorm about the Presidential Election in France and he told me which candidate he had voted for and stuff like that. The conversation was interesting and I will certainly talk more in the future with other foreigners.

The lack of correspondence between the findings about intrinsic motivation from the questionnaire and those from the written evaluations indicates that there is potential for learners to develop intrinsic motivation.

Conclusion

This study has provided a clearer picture of the factors that enhance the second language learning motivation.

As we noticed, the concept of L2 learning motivation plays an essential role in the process of effective L2 learning and teaching, especially effective English learning and teaching.

In addition to importance of the concept of L2 learning motivation to students, its significance to the teachers is undeniable too. In that, highly motivated teachers do their best in the process of teaching

and transferring the materials. They have more innovation and creativity in their classrooms. Motivated teachers make the materials plausible and digestible for students. Besides, they trigger and create the motivation inside the students and classroom and motivate them to keep their sense of L2 learning motivation even outside the classroom, in the sense that, eager and motivated teachers try to create an atmosphere with a high sense of willingness and motivation for learning.

We pointed out the Role of Motivation in Foreign Language Learning. Gardner, a specialist in the psychology of foreign language learning, creates a broader perspective with regard to motivation. He claims that motivation includes four elements – goal, willing behavior, desire to reach the goal and positive approach towards the activity. (1985).

In the description of foreign language learning, Dunkel (1948) proposes a division of motivation aspects, also a description of the relationship between the goal of learning a foreign language and the behavior in the process of reaching this goal. He pointed out the differences between the types of motivation and the intensity of motivation. He also specifies that the type of motivation is directly bonded to the goal and that the intensity is related to the degree of effort which the individual puts into achieving this goal. So, as we mentioned, we found out the role of motivation and reached to the answer of the question why the individual studies a foreign language?

Concerning motivational types, as stated, language learning motivation was originally viewed in terms of two primary orientations, "instrumental" and "integrative" [Gardner and Lambert (2004)]. Instrumental motivation refers to that which is aroused by external learner goals or pragmatic, functional motives such as passing exams, financial rewards or furthering a career. In many educational contexts, this type of motivation often appears to be the major driving force behind language learning. In contrast, integrative motivation corresponds to the desire to identify with the culture of speakers of the target language, with learners showing interest in and a positive disposition towards the people and culture of the target language group.

With more recent cognitive theories of motivation, the integrative/instrumental dichotomy has been gradually replaced by "intrinsic" and "extrinsic" motivational types (Ushioda, "Motivation", 2006). Intrinsic motivation refers to that motivation which comes from within and is generated by the learner, meaning that the learner's reasons for learning might correspond to enjoyment, interest, challenge, or skill development. Extrinsic motivation, in contrast, links learning to external goals such as gaining a qualification.

Knowing the types of L2 learning motivation helps both the students and teachers to accelerate that inside the classroom and also inside themselves and act properly in the process of L2 learning.

Amotivation refers to the lack of motivation. According to Ratelle et al. (2007), there is no connection between performance and consequence for people who are Amotivated.

I also discussed about Cognitive Motivation in Language Learning. I continued the discussion of Cognitive Motivation in Language Learning with two sub categories: Self-Determination Theory and learners' beliefs.

In L2 learning motivation in relation to autonomy, Deci and Ryan's (1985) self-determination theory has been one of the most widely-adopted approaches to account for motivational autonomy.

According to Deci and Ryan's (1985) self-determination theory, there are two types of motivation, namely intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation. Figure 1 showed that intrinsic orientation, extrinsic orientation and Amotivation lie on a continuum from self-determined to non-determined. An individual with a high level of self-determination is likely to demonstrate autonomy in his or her learning and lead to higher achievement.

In terms of Learners' beliefs, In Deci and Ryan's (1985) theory of self-determination, the intrapersonal aspect of motivation has been accounted for in terms of the internalization of regulation. To a large extent, internalization of regulations could only be made possible when the orientations are compatible with the individuals' value and belief system. Learners' subjective value system is "a more or less organized collection of internalized perceptions, beliefs and feelings related to one's position in the social world, developed during the past as a reaction to past experiences" (Benson, 2001) and it determines the internal regulation of learners' approaches to learning and motivation to complete language learning tasks.

In the aggregate and at the end we focused on sources of motivation, such as: desire for Stimulation, desire for Accomplishment, desire for Knowledge. The learners should be aware of the importance of these sources of motivation in order to prompt the desire and willingness inside the learners and teachers in the process of L2 learning and teaching.

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TRANSLATION OF PROLOGUE OF SAADI'S BOSTAN AND ITS ANALYSIS ACCORDING TO CATFORD'S THEORY OF TRANSLATION SHIFT

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ABSTRACT
IN THIS PAPER, CATFORD'S THEORY OF TRANSLATION SHIFT HAS BEEN UTILIZED IN ORDER TO EXAMINE THE INTRODUCTORY SECTION OF ONE OF THE MOST FAMOUS WORKS IN THE IRANIAN LITERATURE (BOSTAN), BY ONE OF THE MOST WELL-KNOWN IRANIAN POETS (SAADI SHIRAZI), TRANSLATED INTO ENGLISH BY DR. BEHROUZ HOMAYOUN FAR. A BRIEF BIOGRAPHY OF BOTH SAADI AND CATFORD WERE GIVEN TO MAKE THE READER FAMILIAR WITH THEM, AND SUBSEQUENTLY, CATFORD'S THEORY OF TRANSLATION SHIFT WAS EXPLAINED IN DETAILS. THE PROLOGUE OF SAADI'S BOSTAN AND ITS TRANSLATION WERE THEN ANALYZED ACCORDING TO THE THEORY AND ITS BASIC CONCEPTS AND CATEGORIZATIONS. FINALLY, CONCLUDING POINTS WERE MADE BASED ON THE ANALYSIS CARRIED OUT. IN ORDER TO STUDY THE POEM AND ITS TRANSLATION, THE READER CAN REFER TO THE APPENDICES IN THE LAST PART OF THE ESSAY. REGARDING CATFORD'S TYPOLOGY AND THE SELECTED TEXTS, THERE EXISTED NO CASE OF LEVEL-SHIFT IN THE TT. AMONG DIFFERENT TYPES OF CATEGORY SHIFTS, VARIOUS INSTANCES OF ALL OF THEM COULD BE FOUND IN THE TEXT, EXCEPT CLASS-SHIFT FOR WHICH THE NUMBER OF INSTANCES IN THE TT WAS VERY LITTLE. REGARDING THE DISTINCTION BETWEEN FORMAL CORRESPONDENT AND TEXTUAL EQUIVALENCE, IT SHOULD BE SAID THAT THE SELECTED TRANSLATION IS TEXTUAL EQUIVALENCE AND NOT FORMAL CORRESPONDENT.

KEY WORDS: TRANSLATION SHIFT, PROLOGUE, POETRY, MEANING

1. Introduction

Throughout history, various forms of translations have played a crucial role in inter human communication, not least in providing access to important texts for scholarship and religious purposes. However the study of translation as an academic subject has only begun in the past fifty years. In the English-speaking world, this discipline is generally known as 'translation studies', thanks to the Dutch-based US scholar James S. Holmes. The term translation itself has several meanings: it may refer to the general subject field, the product or the process. The process of translation between two different written languages involves the translator changing an original written text (ST) in the original verbal language (SL) into a written text (TT) in a different verbal language (TL) (Munday, 2001).

Translation studies is an academic interdiscipline associated with the systematic study of the theory, description and application of translation. As an interdiscipline, translation studies borrows much from several fields of study which support translation. They include comparative literature, computer science, history, linguistics, philology, philosophy, semiotics, and terminology. In English, writers occasionally use the word translatology to refer to translation studies. (retrieved from http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Translation_studies)

Holmes has suggested a variety of areas in which translation studies can be used. These areas include 'translator training, teaching methods, testing techniques, curriculum design, translation aids, translation policy, and translation criticism'. Translation criticism in a general sense means criticizing

a translated text, based on either lexical, structural or cultural dimensions of the receptor language, or based on its comparison with the source text. Such a field can become more academic by using the theories suggested by translation scholars. This involves looking at a translated text and its original from the viewpoint of a translation scholar and his or her concepts and definitions. Williams and Chesterman (2002) called such a practice (translation quality assessment) and divided it into three basic types: source-oriented; target-language oriented; and assessment of translation effects on clients, teachers, critics and readers.

1.1 .Statement of the Problem

John Catford suggested two main types of shifts occurring in the process of translation: 1-level shift and 2-category shift. The second type was further subcategorized into four other alternative subgroups including (structure shift, class shift, unit-rank shift, and intra-system shift). In order to gain a deep understanding of these shifts, Catford first introduced two other concepts: 'formal correspondence' and 'textual equivalence' which will be explained in details. Translation shift, its categorizations, and analysis of Bostan's prologue based on them are the main problems discussed in this paper.

1.2. Significance of the Study

First it should be said that reading this paper makes readers familiar with one of the most well-known verse and prose writers in the history of Iranian literature. Saadi (1184-1293) is among the most prominent poets of 12th century. His two breath-taking books, Bostan and Gulistan, are known by everybody familiar with Iranian poetry. Another outstanding figure whom this essay will introduce to the reader is the linguist and phonetician John Catford. By reading the following pages, readers get familiar with his life and his works and also with his theory of 'translation shift'.

As it has already been mentioned, this paper is going to investigate in what way and to what extent translation shifts suggested by Catford have occurred in the selected translation of the introductory section of Bostan. It should be kept in mind that study of these pages can also contribute to translators who are going to translate rest of Saadi's Bostan or any other poetic work. Looking at the shifts which occur during the process of translation and knowing how and where to utilize such changes in order to translate in a better way can help translators find more appropriate equivalences and produce more accurate and natural translations.

1.3. Research Purposes

Any investigation must have one or several purposes. An investigation without any purpose would have no value and such an investigation means waste of time, energy and financial resources. In this study, the researcher follows two main purposes:

He first attempts to get familiar with the poet and the scholar selected for his study. Their lifestyles, works, ideas, ways of thinking, and the subjects favored by them and selected by the investigator are among the major points that it is the researcher's purpose to get familiar with. Secondly, he's going to learn whether the changes suggested by the scholar do occur during the process of translating selected material and if yes, to what extent.

1.4. Research Questions

1. Should we consider the selected translation of Bostan's prologue as 'formal correspondent' or 'textual equivalence'?
2. Which of Catford's translation shifts occur more than other ones in the selected translation of Bostan's prologue?
3. Is there any of Catford's translation shifts which has not occurred in the selected translation?

1. 5.Research Hypotheses

1.Since the selected translation of Bostan's prologue, unlike its original, cannot be considered as a poem in the economy of TL, we cannot regard it as a formal correspondent. On the other hand, it is a textual equivalence, because only in comparison with its original, we can consider it as a translation.

2.Among the translation shifts suggested by John Catford, 'structural-shift', 'rank-shift', and 'intra-system-shift' occur more than the other categories in these lines.

3.'Level-shift' is the only one among Catford's suggested shifts which does not take place in the selected translation.

1.6. Research Limitations

At the first, it should be mentioned that lack of space and time does not allow the investigator to examine whole the text belonging to Bostan's translation according to all the theories and concepts mentioned by Catford in his book. Writing essay requires a certain amount of words and pages, and writing beyond that may lead to the exhaustion of reader and decrease of essay's value. Hence, the researcher has to restrict the scope of his investigation.

On the other hand, translation of poetry involves many other factors which are not mentioned in Catford's theory. Rhythm and rhyme, figures of speech, structure of poems in Persian and English and their differences, and many other factors are among such neglected by Catford's theory.

2. Review of Related Literature

The research carried out in this paper makes connections between the work written by Saadi and the theories suggested by John Catford. As an introduction to the theories selected, a brief biographies of both Saadi and John Catford are given. These information were retrieved from (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Saadi_Shirazi), (http://www.artarena.force9.co.uk/saadi.htm), and (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ian_Catford).

2.1. Saadi

Saadi Shirazi was one of the major Persian poets of the medial period. He is not only known in Persian-speaking countries, but has also been quoted in western sources. He is recognized for the quality of his writings and for the depth of his social and moral thoughts. Saadi is widely recognized as one of the most prominent and greatest poets of the classical literary tradition.

Saadi's lifetime falls in a period of major political and social change in Iran and the whole of the Middle East (the decline of the Abbasid Empire with the invasion and subsequent wanton destruction by the Mongols). As a result of this, little is known about his life apart from what he wrote in his so-called "autobiographical works". One of his best autobiographical stories, in the Golestan, states the story of his release from slavery: 'He was imprisoned by the Crusaders and forced to dig trenches in Tripoli until a Muslim merchant bought and freed him; but then his previous form of slavery was replaced by another, since he had to marry his benefactor's daughter.'

What is known for sure is that he was born in Shiraz in the late 12th century AD (this is even questioned by some scholars who believe he was born in 1210) which began as a student of the Koran, which he later exchanged for Sufism. During his life, he travelled widely and returned to his native town sometime around 1256. In 1257 he dedicated his Bostan to Abu Bakr b. Sa'd (ruled Shiraz between 1226-60), and in the following year he completed the Golestan. Copies of both works were often penned by the masters of calligraphy and occasionally decorated by miniatures of great beauty. Saadi is said to have died in 1290 and his shrine is in Shiraz. He remains the master of love poetry and one of the greatest poets produced by Persia.

2.1.1. Biography

A native of Shiraz, his father died when he was an infant. Saadi spent his youth in poverty and hardship, and left Shiraz at a young age for Baghdad to pursue a better education. The unsettled circumstances following the Mongol invasion of Khwarezm and Iran led him to wander for 30 years abroad through Anatolia (He visited the Port of Adana, and near Konya he met proud Ghazi landlords), Syria (he mentions the famine in Damascus), Egypt (of its music and Bazaars, its clerics and elite class), and Iraq (the port of Basra and the Tigris river).

Saadi traveled through war wrecked areas from 1271 to 1294. Due to Mongol invasions he lived in desolate regions and met caravans fearing for their lives on once lively silk trade routes. Saadi lived in isolated refugee camps where he met bandits, Imams, men who formerly owned great wealth or commanded armies, intellectuals, and ordinary people. While Mongol and European sources such as Marco Polo gravitated to the potentates and courtly life of Ilkhanate rule, Saadi mingled with the survivers of the war-torn region.

Saadi was also among individuals who witnessed first-hand accounts of Baghdad's destruction by Mongol Ilkhanate invaders during the year 1258. He was captured by Crusaders at Acre where he spent seven years as a slave digging trenches outside its fortress. He was later released after the Mamluks paid ransom for Muslims being held in Crusader dungeons.

When he reappeared in his native Shiraz, he was an elderly man. Saadi was not only welcomed to the city but was respected highly by the ruler and enumerated among the greats of the province. In

response, he took his nom de plume from the name of the local prince, Sa'd ibn Zangi. Some of Saadi's most famous panegyrics were composed as a gesture of gratitude in praise of ruling house and placed at the beginning of his Bustan. The remainder of Saadi's life sounds to have been spent in Shiraz.

2.1.2. The Journey of Saadi Shirazi

As a consequence of the Mongol Empire invasion of the Muslim World, especially Khwarazm and Persia/Iran, Saadi and many other Muslims were displaced by the ensuing conflict. thus Saadi began a 30 year journey. He first took refuge at Damascus and witnessed the famine in one of the most efficient cities of the world. Following the frightful Sack of Baghdad in 1258 by Hulegu and the Ilkhanate Horde, Saadi visited Jerusalem and then set out on a pilgrimage to Mecca and Medina. Saadi then visited Mamluk Egypt of Sultan Baibars. He mentioned the Qadis, Muftis of Al-Azhar, the grand Bazaar, music and art. Further Saadi traveled to Turkey. He mentioned the port city of Adana and the wealthy Ghazi landowners in Anatolia.

Saadi finally returned to Persia where he met his childhood companions in Isfahan and other cities. At Khorasan he befriended a Turkic Emir named Tughral. Saadi joined him and his men on their journey to Sindh where he met Pir Puttur, a follower of the Persian Sufi grand master Shaikh Usman Marvandvi (1117-1274). He then traveled across the Indus River and when they reached the Thar Desert, Tughral hired Hindu Sentinels. Tughral later entered service of the wealthy Delhi Sultanate and Saadi was invited to Delhi and later visited the Vizier of Gujarat.

2.1.3. His Works

Saadi's best known works are Bostan (The Orchard) completed in 1257 and Gulistan (The Rose Garden) in 1258. Bostan is entirely in verse (epic metre) and consists of stories illustrating the standard virtues recommended to Muslims (justice, liberality, modesty, contentment) as well as of reflections on the behavior of dervishes and their ecstatic practices. Gulistan is mainly in prose and contains stories and personal anecdotes. The text is interspersed with a variety of short poems, containing aphorisms, advice, and humorous reflections. Saadi demonstrated a profound awareness of the absurdity of human existence.

Saadi is also remembered as a panegyrist and lyricist, the author of a number of odes portraying human experience and also of particular odes such as the lament on the fall of Baghdad after the Mongol invasion in 1258. His lyrics are found in Ghazaliyat (Lyrics) and his odes in Qasa'id (Odes). He is also known for a number of works written in Arabic.

2.2. John Catford

John "Ian" Catford (26 March 1917-6 October 2009) was a Scottish linguist and phonetician of worldwide renown. John Cunnison Catford (called "Ian" by his students), was born in Edinburgh, Scotland. After secondary and university studies, he studied phonetics. He taught English abroad (in Greece, Palestine and Egypt), including during World War II.

He met his wife, Lotte, while he was living in Jerusalem. Lotte was from Vienna and spoke German. However, she had moved to Palestine and while she was young, she learned further languages such as Hebrew, English and Arabic. This was one source of Catford's knowledge about languages and their phonetics.

Catford founded the School of Applied Linguistics at the University of Edinburgh, as well as another department in the same university that undertook the mapping of different English dialects throughout Scotland. His expertise, including formal phonetics, the aerodynamic and physiological production of speech, phonetic peculiarities in speech, and an astounding ability to reproduce words and even speeches, backwards, led him to be invited to the University of Michigan. There, he headed the English Language Institute and the Laboratory of Communicative Sciences. He taught most of the linguistic subjects in the same university.

Catford retired in 1985, but didn't become inactive. On the contrary, he was invited to some of the most prestigious universities around the globe, including those in Istanbul, Jerusalem and California. He published several articles, participated in many conferences and continued to lecture and give presentations, especially at the University of Michigan. Many of his original works are kept there. He advised many university students who intended to follow a career in Linguistics. He died, of old age, in October 2009 in Shoreline, Washington, USA.

2.3. Concepts and Theories

"Translation may be defined as follows: the replacement of textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent material in another material (TL)" (Catford, 1965, p.20). The small linguistic changes that take place between ST and TT are known as translation shifts. John Catford was the first scholar to use the term 'translation shift' in his book (A Linguistic Theory of Translation: 1965) (Hatim & Munday, 2004). He followed the Firthian and Hallidayan linguistic model, which analyzed language as communication, operating functionally in context and on a range of different levels (e.g. phonology, graphology, grammar, lexis) and ranks (sentence, clause, group, word, morpheme, etc) (Munday, 2001).

As far as translation is concerned, Catford made a significant distinction between 'formal correspondence' and 'textual equivalence', which was later developed by Koller. A formal correspondent is any TL category (unit, class, element of structure, etc.) which can be said to occupy, as nearly as possible, the same place in the economy of the TL as the given SL category occupies in the SL. A textual equivalent is any TL text or portion of text, observed on a particular occasion to be the equivalent of a given SL text or portion of text. Textual equivalence is therefore tied to a particular ST-TT pair, while formal equivalence is a more general system-based concept between a pair of languages. When the two concepts diverge, a translation shift occurs. In Catford's words, translation shifts are 'departures from formal correspondence in the process of going from the SL to the TL' (Munday, 2001). Catford considered two kinds of shift: (1) shift of level and (2) shift of category.

2.3.1. Level Shift

By a shift of level Catford meant that an SL item at one linguistic level has a TL translation equivalent at a different level. It has already been pointed out that translation between the levels of phonology and graphology or between either of these levels and the levels of grammar and lexis is impossible. Translation between these levels is absolutely ruled out by Catford's theory, which posits relationship to the same substance as the necessary condition of translation equivalence. We are left, then, with shifts from grammar to lexis and vice versa as the only possible level shifts in translation; and such shifts are, of course, quite common (Venuti, 2000).

Examples of level shifts are sometimes found in the translation of the verbal aspects of Russian and English. They both have an aspectual opposition of very roughly the same type seen most clearly in the past or preterite tense: the opposition between Russian imperfective and perfective (e.g. pisal and napisal), and between English simple and continuous (wrote and was writing). There is, however, a significant difference between the two aspect systems, namely that the polarity of marking is not the same. In Russian, the (contextually) marked term in the system is the perfective. This obviously refers to the uniqueness or completion of the event. The imperfective is unmarked, 'in other words it is relatively neutral in these respects (the event may or may not actually be unique or completed, etc., but at any rate the imperfective is indifferent to these features' does not explicitly refer to this 'perfectiveness') (Catford, 1965).

In English, the (contextually and morphologically) marked term is the continuous. This clearly refers to the development and progress of the event. The simple form is neutral in this respect (the event may or may not actually be in progress, but the simple form does not explicitly refer to this aspect of the event). The result of this difference between Russian and English is that Russian imperfective (e.g. pisal) is translatable with almost equal frequency by English simple (wrote) or continuous (was writing). But the marked terms (napisal=was writing) are mutually untranslatable (Catford, 1965).

2.3.2. Category Shift

Catford referred to unbounded and rank-bounded translation: the first being approximately normal or free translation which SL-TL equivalences are set up at whatever rank is appropriate. There is sentence-sentence equivalence, but in the course of a text, equivalences may shift up and down the rank-scale, often being established at ranks lower than the sentence. Catford used the term rank-bound translation only to refer to those special cases where equivalence is deliberately limited to ranks below the sentence, thus leading to bad translation, i.e. translation in which the TL text is either not a normal TL form at all, or is not relatable to the same situational substance as the SL text (Venuti, 2000).

In normal and unbounded translation, then, translation equivalences may occur between sentences, clauses, groups, words and (though rarely) morphemes. Not infrequently, however, one cannot set up

simple equal-rank equivalence between SL and TL texts. An SL group may have a TL clause as its translation equivalent, and so forth (Venuti, 2000).
Changes of rank (unit-shifts) are by no means the only changes of category type which take place in translation. There are also changes of structure, changes of class, changes of term in systems, and so on. Some of them (particularly structure-changes) are even more frequent than rank-changes. It is changes of these types which are known as category-shifts (Venuti, 2000).

2.3.2.1. Structure Shift
Structure-shifts were considered by Catford to be the most common form of shift and to involve mostly a shift in grammatical structure. For instance, the subject pronoun + verb + direct object structures of I like jazz and j'aime le jazz in English and French are translated by an indirect object pronoun + verb + subject noun structure in Spanish (me gusta el jazz) and in Italian (mi piace il jazz) (Munday, 2001). In translation between English and French, as another example, there is often a shift from MH (modifier + head) to (M)HQ, ((modifier +) head + qualifier), e.g. A white house (MH) = Une maison blanche (MHQ,) (Catford, 1965).

2.3.2.2. Class Shift
Following Halliday, Catford defined a class as 'that grouping of members of a given unit which is defined by operation in the structure of the unit next above'. Class-shift, then, takes place when the translation equivalent of an SL item is a member of a different class from the original item (Venuti, 2000). The example given by Catford is the English a medical student and the French un etudiant en medicine, where the English pre-modifying adjective medical is translated by the adverbial qualifying phrase en medicine (Munday, 2001).

2.3.2.3. Unit Shift
By unit-shift Catford meant changes of rank that is, departures from formal correspondence in which the translation equivalent of a unit at one rank in the SL is a unit at a different rank in the TL. A more appropriate title might be rank-shift, but since this has been assigned a different and technical meaning within Halliday's theory of grammar, it cannot be used here (Venuti, 2000). The word 'rank' here refers to the hierarchical linguistic units of sentence, clause, group, word and morpheme (Munday, 2001).

2.3.2.4. Intra-system Shift
In listing types of translation shift, such as given above, one might expect (system-shift) to occur along with the names of other types of shift affecting the other fundamental categories of grammar. There is a good reason for not naming one of our types of shift (system-shift), since this only could mean a departure from formal correspondence in which (a term operating in) one system in the SL has as its translation equivalent (a term operating in) a different (non-corresponding) system in the TL. Clearly, however, such shifts from one system to another are always entailed by unit-shift or class-shift. Catford used the title intra-system shift for those cases where the shift occurs internally, within a system; that is, for those cases where SL and TL possess systems which approximately correspond formally regarding their constitution, but when translation involves selection of a non-corresponding term in the TL system (Venuti, 2000).
Examples given between French and English are number and article systems, where, although similar systems operate in the two languages, they do not always correspond. So advice (singular) in English becomes des conseils (plural) in French, and the French definite article la in 'II a la jambe cassee' corresponds to the English indefinite article a in 'He has a broken leg' (Munday, 2001).

3. Methodology
In this paper the researcher has attempted to investigate the selected translation of Bostan's prologue based on the theory of translation shift suggested by John Catford. This process is carried out in three subsequent steps. The first step involves to introduce Saadi, Catford and his theory, respectively. The second step includes to put the original text and its translation besides each others and compare them according to Catford's theory. Finally the points discovered in the previous step are examined to reach to acceptable and reasonable conclusions.

4. Analysis

Poetic texts provide interesting material for translation research, especially if time is restricted, since the texts concerned can be quite short. In this case the major topics include:

The aim of the translation – a prose version or a poem?

The translation of metre, cadence, rhythm, rhyme

The translator's profile – can only poets translate poetry?

How do translators translate poetry? (Williams & Chesterman, 2002)

In order to analyze the selected stanzas and their translation, it should be kept in mind that this analysis is based only on Catford's theory of 'translation shift' and not any other translation theory. Thus, only Catford's theory and his suggested concepts (formal correspondence, textual equivalence, level shift, category shift and its subdivisions) are used here for such a purpose. To make the analysis and its understanding easier, the Persian stanzas and their corresponding translations are written with a number beside each one.

In the first line, (خداوند جان آفرین) is a noun phrase, but its translation is (who created and sustains the world) which is a verb clause. This is an instance of 'unit-shift'. In the second line, the original and its translation have respectively used a negative and positive verb to indicate a negative action. This one is an example of 'intra-system shift', since both languages have corresponding systems of negative tense, but English can use a positive verb in a sentence containing (no + noun) structure, while in Persian language, only the verb is made negative to express a negative action. In the third line, (درگاه او) which is a possessive structure is rendered by (before him), a structure made of (preposition + pronoun), indicating a 'structural shift'. Another 'structural shift' takes place in the forth line where in both parts of the original verse, the two objects (گردن کشان) and (عذرآوران) precede the two adverbs (بفور) and (بجور), while, in the translated text, first the adverb (in haste) appears before the object (the disobedient), while, in the rest of it, this is vice versa ('the penitent' precedes 'with violence'). Reading the fifth line, we can see that there's an 'intra-system shift' here, since in English it is essential to use a plural noun with a number more than one, while such a concordance is grammatically incorrect according to Persian grammar. Thus, translating (دو کونش) with such a noun phrase as (the two worlds) shows 'intra-system' which takes place in the translation of this line.

In the TT of the sixth line of the original poem, the word (sin) has been used as a verb for (عصیان) which is a noun (class-shift). In the seventh line of TT, it can be seen that (both friend and foe) was used, while in the original these two terms are used vice versa, meaning that (دشمن) as the equivalence of (foe) precedes (دوست), showing another instance of 'structural-shift'. Such a kind of shift is also seen in the translation of the eighth line of the original poem, where (Peerless He is) comes before (His kingdom is eternal) while this is not the case in the ST.

In the ST, the last word of 12th line bears 'class-shift', because (مجیب) which is a noun has been translated by (accepteth) which is a verb. It should also be mentioned that (فروماندگان) and (تضرع کنان) which are two plural nouns were translated using two verb clauses (them that are downcast) and (them that lament). This is a 'rank-shift' taking place in the translation. There exists a 'structural-shift' in the translation of 14th line of the original poem, where the poet means that God has created earth upon water, however this was mentioned in the TT vice versa.

In the last two stanzas of the original poem and their corresponding translations, instances of 'structural-shift' can be found. In the first one, the sequence of the two subjects ('the bird of thought' and 'the hand of understanding') and their corresponding verbs ('soar' and 'reach') are changed, compared with the original. Furthermore, the sequence of object (road of purity) and its verb (walk) in the last stanza are changed in comparison with the ST.

Meanwhile, it should not be forgotten that there are differences between use of articles and coordination of numbers with their nouns in English and Persian, leading to numerous cases of 'intra-system shifts'. Regarding definite and indefinite articles, English language uses (the) for proper nouns, while in Persian language, there's no separate word to signal use of a proper noun. This is obvious in such parts of the selected stanzas as (who turns the face from the door of his face), (the two worlds), (behind the veil), and their corresponding TTs. On the other hand, English nouns should be plural with numbers more than one but such a rule does not exist in Persian structure. Consequently, translating article systems and nouns following a number greater than one from Persian to English and vice versa would lead to 'intra-system-shift'.

Reviewing Catford's concepts of (formal correspondence) and (textual equivalence) and their definitions, the researcher concludes that the selected translation of Bostan's prologue is not a formal

correspondent as a whole. The reason is that the source text is a poem and its value in the economy of Persian language is a poetic value. However, a native English-speaking person reading the TT considers it a prose and never accepts it as a poetic work in his or her language. The researcher then concludes that it is a textual equivalence because, despite some deficiencies and errors in the TT compared with the ST, only in such a particular occasion as putting the two texts beside each other, it can be a textual equivalence of the ST.

5. Conclusion

Regarding the theory of translation shift as suggested by John Catford and analyzing the selected texts, the researcher believes that structure-shift, rank-shift, and intra-system-shift are among the most typical shifts occurring in the selected texts. Intra-system-shift mostly takes place in the translation of article systems and such structures as (number + noun) between English and Persian. The changes categorized as 'class-shift' has rarely taken place in the translated text and there existed no instance of level-shift. The investigator also concludes that going from English to Persian and vice versa involves a large extent of various types of shifts. This might be due to the large amount of lexical and structural differences between these two languages.

Another conclusion made by the researcher is that the selected translation of Bostan's prologue cannot be considered as a formal correspondent because it is a prose work in the economy of TL, while its ST is a poetic one. On the other hand, looking at Catford's definitions, the researcher concludes that these two texts are textual equivalences, since they are equivalences only in such circumstances as being compared with each other.

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Appendices

The appendix section of this essay consists of two parts:

In appendix.A the original poem is given and in appendix.B the selected translation is rendered. It should be noted that each line of TT belonging to one of the original stanzas is given with a number beside it.

Appendix.A

سرآغاز

به نام خداوند جان آفرین حکیم سخن در زبان آفرین
عزیزی که هرکز درش سر بتافت به هر در که شد هیچ عزت نیافت
سر پادشاهان گردن فراز به درگاه او بر زمین نیاز
نه گردن کشان را بگیرد بفور نه عذرآوران را براند بجور
دو کونش یکی قطره در بحر علم گنه بیند و پرده پوشد بحلم
ولیکن خداوند بالا و پست به عصیان درزرق بر کس نبست
ادیم زمین، سفره عام اوست بر این خان یغما چه دشمن چه دوست
مر او را رسد کبریا و منی که ملکش قدیم است و ذاتش غنی
یکی را به سر برنهد تاج بخت یکی را به خاک اندر آرد ز تخت
گلستان کند آتشی بر خلیل گروهی بر آتش برد ز آب نیل
پس پرده بیند عملهای بد همو پرده پوشد به آلای خود
فروماندگان را به رحمت قریب تضرع کنان را به دعوت مجیب
بر احوال نابوده، علمش بصیر بر اسرار ناگفته، لطفش خبیر

ز مشرق به مغرب مه و آفتاب روان کرد و گسترد گیتی بر آب
نهد لعل و فیروزه در صلب سنگ گل لعل در شاخ پیروزه رنگ
بشر ماورای جلالش نیافت بصر منتهای جمالش نیافت
نه بر اوج ذاتش پرد مرغ وهم نه در ذیل وصفش رسد دست فهم
محال است سعدی که راه صفا توان رفت جز بر پی مصطفی

Appendix.B
PROLOGUE
1-In the name of Him Who created and sustains the world, the Sage Who endowed tongue with speech.
2-He attains no honor who turns the face from the door of His mercy.
3-The kings of the earth prostate themselves before Him in supplication.
4-He seizes not in haste the disobedient, nor drives away the penitent with violence.
5-The two worlds are as a drop of water in the ocean of His knowledge.
6-He withholds not His bounty though His servants sin; 7-upon the surface of the earth has He spread a feast, in which both friend and foe may share.
8-Peerless He is, and His kingdom is eternal. 9-Upon the head of one He placeth a crown another he hurleth from the throne to the ground.
10-The fire of His friend He turneth into a flower garden; through the waters of the Nile He sendeth His foes to perdition.
11-Behind the veil He seeth all, and concealeth our faults with His own goodness.
12-He is near to them that are downcast, and accepteth the prayers of them that lament.
13-He knoweth of the things that exist not, of secrets that are untold.
14-He causeth the moon and the sun to revolve, and spreadeth water upon the earth.
15-In the heart of a stone hath He placed a jewel; from nothing hath He created all that is.
16-Who can reveal the secret of His qualities; what eye can see the limits of His beauty?
17-The bird of thought cannot soar to the height of His presence, nor the hand of understanding reach to the skirt of His praise.
18-Think not, O Saadi, that one can walk in the road of purity except in the footsteps of Mohammed.

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

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ABSTRACT
LANGUAGE TEACHERS' CHOICE OF TEACHING TECHNIQUES AND ACTIVITIES CAN PLAY A PIVOTAL ROLE IN LEARNERS' MOTIVATION AND THEIR LANGUAGE LEARNING SUCCESS. THE FIELD, HOWEVER, SUFFERS FROM DEARTH OF RESEARCH ON THE FACTORS THAT POTENTIALLY INFLUENCE TEACHERS' TEACHING STYLE. THIS STUDY IS THEREFORE INTENDED TO INVESTIGATE THE EFFECT OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE ON EFLTEACHERS' TEACHING STYLE.IN SO DOING, TWO QUESTIONNAIRES WERE ADMINISTERED TO 53 MALE AND FEMALE TEACHERS WORKING IN PRIVATE LANGUAGE INSTITUTES. THE RESULTS WHICH ARE OBTAINED THROUGH PEARSON CORRELATION COEFFICIENT CONFIRMED THAT THERE IS NO A SIGNIFICANT RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN IRANIAN EFL TEACHERS' EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND THEIR THEIR TEACHING STYLE.

KEY WORDS: **EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE – TEACHING STYLE- EF**

Preliminaries

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

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

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

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

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

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

Teacher's teaching style

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

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

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

Research Question

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

Methodology

Participants

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

Instruments

Lowman's two-dimensional teaching style scale

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

Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire

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

Data Collection and Data Analysis Procedures

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

Results

Reliability estimates

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

Table 1. Reliability estimates

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

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

Table 2. Correlation between total EQ and total teaching style

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

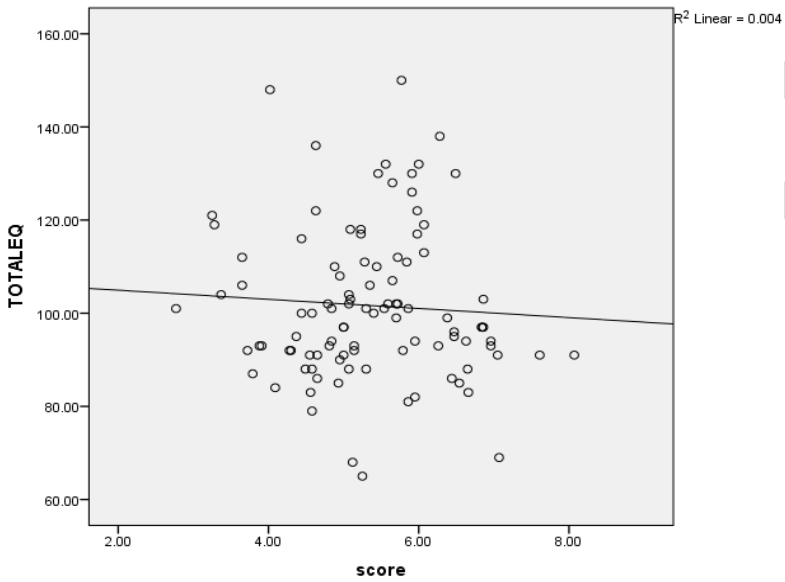

Figure 1. Scatter plot

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

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

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

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

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

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

Conclusion

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

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PERSIAN WH-QUESTIONS: A CASE OF GENDER AND CONTEXT

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ABSTRACT
THIS STUDY AIMED AT INVESTIGATING THE EFFECT OF GENDER AND CONTEXT ON PERSIAN WH-QUESTIONS.IT EXPLORED WHETHER FORMAL AND INFORMAL CONTEXTS HAD AN EFFECT ON THE PRODUCTION OF WH-QUESTIONS AMONG PERSIAN NATIVE SPEAKERS. FURTHERMORE, IT PROBED THE DIFFERENCES AMONG MALE-MALE, MALE-FEMALE, AND FEMALE-FEMALE GROUPS IN THE PRODUCTION OF WH-QUESTION VARIANTS. TO THIS END, 30 PERSIAN NATIVE SPEAKERS WHOSE AGE RANGED FROM 18TO 35 FORMED THE SAMPLE POPULATION OF THE CURRENT PROJECT. THE DESIGN OF THE STUDY WAS QUASI-EXPERIMENTAL IN WHICH RANDOM SAMPLING PROCEDURE WAS USED AND THE AGE OF THE PARTICIPANTS WAS CONTROLLED. THE PARTICIPANTS WERE SELECTED RANDOMLY AND THEY WERE BRIEDED ON THE EXPERIMENT. THEN, THE DATA COLLECTION TOOLS INCLUDING THE EDINBURGH MAP TASK AND BACKGROUND INFORMATION QUESTIONNAIRE WERE PRESENTED TO THE PARTICIPANTS. THEY DID THE MAP TASK ASKING AND ANSWERING QUESTIONS. THEN, THE OBTAINED DATA WERE ANALYZED THROUGH CHI-SQUARE ANALYSIS. THE MAIN CONCLUSION OF THIS STUDY WAS THAT GENDER AND CONTEXT DID NOT HAVE EFFECTS ON PERSIAN WH-QUESTION VARIANTS. FURTHERMORE, THE MALE-MALE GROUP OF PARTICIPANTS' PRODUCTION OF WH-QUESTIONS DIFFERED FROM FEMALE-FEMALE AND FEMALE-MALE GROUPS.

KEYWORDS: PERSIAN WH-QUESTIONS, GENDER, FORMAL CONTEXT, INFORMAL CONTEXT

Introduction

People from different geographical places speak differently; and even within the same small community, people might speak differently according to their age, gender, ethnicity and social or educational background, cultural or socio-economic background and even geographical location. Thus, there exists a broad range of factors leading to variation in language. Labov (1972), for instance, specifically pointed out that variables such as the listener, the context, and the objectives of the communication can be considered as the reasons for variation. Among these factors, gender and context can be of the most widely used social demographic categories.

Two important early studies focusing on situated language are Malinowski's (1923) discussion of the 'context of situation' and Firth's (1935) elaboration of that concept. Early in the century, Boas established the value of collecting and analyzing natural texts, and that became accepted practice for linguists such as Sapir, Kroeber, and Bloomfield. Predating the early studies of social dialect variation in the mid-1960s, researchers such as Ferguson, Gumperz, Halliday, and Hymes examined linguistic

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variation across social situations and communicative uses, as well as across speaker groups. Considering the studies carried out on the effect of gender and context on different aspects of language, this study aimed at exploring the effect of these two variables on Persian wh- questions.

Review of the Literature

Persian Wh-question Variants

Persian exhibits a large number of word order variants, both in declaratives and in interrogatives. This is demonstrated with a set of wh-questions (Adli, 2010). Sentences (1) and (2) show two forms with the temporal wh-adjunct at preverbal (though non-initial) position. Their difference lies in the linear order of direct object and wh-adjunct. (3) shows another possibility of 'rearrangement': The wh-adjunct is still preverbal (and follows the object as in (1), but the subject stands in postverbal position. Also, wh-object NPs can occur in non-initial, preverbal position, as shown in the examples (1) and (5). OM represents an object marker modifying the whole phrase rather than the head noun, which has been analyzed by Ghomeshi (1997) as a phrasal affix (this notion goes back to Nevis' (1985) analysis of Finnish particle clitics).

(1) *Sârâ ketâb-eʃ-o key xaride? [S O Adjwh V]*
Sara book -her -OM when bought
'When did Sara buy her book?'
(2) *Sârâ key ketâb-eʃ-o xaride? [S Adjwh O V]*
Sara when book -her -OM bought
(3) *Ketâb-eʃ-o key xaride sârâ? [O Adjwh V S]*
book -her -OM when bought Sara
(4) *Bâbak ki-ro emrooz zade? [S Owh Adj V]*
Babak who -OM today hit
(5) *Bâbak emrooz ki-ro zade? [S Adj Owh V]*
Babak today who -OM hit
Who has Babak hit today?

The following examples show that the wh-element can occur in initial position. (6) is an example with a wh-adjunct, (7) a variant of it with postverbal subject, and (8) an example with a wh-NP.

(6) *Key Sârâ ketâb-eʃ-o xaride? [Adjwh S O V]*
when Sara book -her -OM bought
(7) *Key ketâb-eʃ-o xaride sârâ? [Adjwh O V S]*
when book -her -OM bought Sara
(8) *Ki-ro bâbak emrooz zade? [Owh S Adj V]*
who -OM Babak today hit

However, it is unacceptable to place the wh-element into postverbal position.

(9) **Sârâ ketâb-eʃ-o xaride key? [S O V Adjwh]*
Sara book -her -OM bought when
(10) **xaride key ketâb-eʃ-o sârâ? [V Adjwh O S]*
bought when book -her -OM Sara
(11) **Bâbak emrooz zade ki-ro? [S Adj V Owh]*
Babak today hit who -OM

Persian is a wh-in-situ language; that is, wh-expressions do not get preposed, but rather occur in their base position (Karimi 1989; Lazard 1992; Raghibdoost 1994; Bateni 1995; Mahootian and Gebhardt, 1997; Youhanaee 1997). However, Adli (2010) remarks that Persian allows both wh-ex-situ and wh-in-situ word order variants. In wh-fronted questions in Persian (WH-word+Subject+Verb, (WHSV)), the structure begins with the wh-word and is followed by the subject and then the verb, as in (12-15) (the following classification is based on Heidari Darani, 2009).

(12) Persian Wh-fronted (WHSV)
Wh-word + Subject + Verb
Koja to kar mikoni?
(Where you DUR.work.PRS.2sg?)
(Where do you work?)

(13) Persian Wh-fronted (WHV)
Wh-word + Verb
Koja kar mikoni?

(Where DUR.work.PRS.2sg?)
(Where do you work?)

(14) Persian Wh-fronted (WHVS)
Wh-word + Verb + Subject
Koja kar mikoni to?
(Where DUR.work.PRS.2sg you?)
(Where do you work?)

(15) Persian Wh-fronted (WH)
Wh-word
Koja?
(Where?)

In-situ wh-questions in Persian (Subject+WH-word+V, (SWHV)) have the subject followed by the wh-element in pre-verbal position and the verb, as shown in (16-18). Examples 17 and 18 which are post-verbal wh-questions are assumed to be ungrammatical (Adli, 2010).

However, this study attempts to show whether Persian native speakers make use of such wh-questions in their natural speech, too.

(16) a. Persian Wh-in-situ (SWHV) (Standard)
Subject + Wh-word + Verb
To koja kar mikoni?
(You where DUR.work.PRS.2sg?)
(Where do you work?)

(17) Persian Wh-in-situ (VWH)
Verb + Wh-word
Kar mikoni koja?
(DUR.work.PRS.2sg where?)
(Where do you work?)

(18) Persian Wh-in-situ (VWHS)
Verb + Wh-word + Subject
Kar mikoni koja to?
(DUR.Work.PRS.2sg where you?)
(Where do you work?)

Language in Relation to Gender and Context

The issue "language and gender" refers to the relationship between language and our ideas about men and women. One topic that has come to the fore in sociolinguistics in recent years is the connection, if any, between the structure, vocabularies, and ways of using particular languages and the social roles of the man and women who speak these languages (Wardhaugh, 1986). According to Milroy et al. (1994), gender differences need not map directly onto the physiological sex differences, but in practice our social lives are organized around the physiological dichotomy to such an extent that a cultural connection has been forged between sex and virtually every other aspect of human experience (Bem 1993). Within this perspective, Labov (1990) found that the clearest and most consistent results of more than 30 years of sociolinguistic research in the speech community concern the linguistic differentiation of women and men.

Trudgill (1974) asserted that it is known from linguistic research that in many societies the speech of men and women differs. In some cases the differences are quite small and are not generally noticed: they are probably taken for granted in some way as different gestures or facial expressions. Question use is another linguistic device which has been stereotypically associated with the conversational style of women. Lakoff 1975, among the first to claim that women used more questions than men, declared that women use tag questions as a hedging device, and that women have a greater tendency to use rising intonation on declaratives, thereby turning their statements into questions. Lakoff's claims, which were not based on empirical data, inspired a significant amount of research that produced conflicting conclusions about tag and other question usage (Dubois & Crouch, 1975; Brouwer et al. 1979; O'Barr & Bowman, 1980; Holmes 1984; Preisler 1986; Cameron and Coates, 1989; Coates 1989). In other important research that subsequently formed the basis for widely accepted

beliefs about women's question-asking behavior, Fishman (1978, 1980) found that, in naturally occurring conversations between three heterosexual couples, women asked many more questions than men. The differential use of questions by women and men has continued to be a much discussed topic, fueled most recently by Tannen's (1990) assertions about women and men's different communicative styles, where question-asking is seen as part of women's cooperative speaking style and as a device for sharing the floor.

Fasold (1990: 92), for example, refers to the fact that women tend to use a higher proportion of the standard variants than men in the same social class as "the socio-linguistic gender pattern," and Chambers (1995) as "a sociolinguistic verity." Fasold (1990) suggests that women use a higher proportion of standard variants than men because this allows them to sound less local and to have a voice, therefore, with which to protest against the traditional norms that place them in an inferior social position to men.

Eckert and McConnell-Ginet's (1992) paper has been extremely influential in language and gender research. They argue for a more dynamic view of gender. Instead of seeing gender as something static that speakers "have", that can be analyzed either in isolation from other aspects of social identity, or in interaction with them, it is something that we "do" or "perform" in a complex array of social practices. The concept of 'standard' forms is defined as those used with the greatest frequency by the highest social class in the hierarchy and used more frequently by all speakers in their more formal speech styles. These 'standard' forms are taken as synonymous with the overtly prestigious forms of the speech community: since all members of the speech community are assumed to share a common set of norms and values, they are also assumed to agree on the social evaluation of the standard, or prestige, variants (Cheshire, 2000).

Labov (1972) specifically pointed out that variables such as the listener, the context, and the objectives of the communication can be considered as the reasons for variation. It is usual for researchers to see one of the variants as "standard" or overtly prestigious, usually on the grounds that this variant is used with an increased frequency in more formal speech styles. In a study (Heidari Darani and Heidari Darani, 2013), it is hypothesized that formality of the context is an influential factor to create a difference in the speakers' linguistic behavior. Gender differences usually lead to differences in linguistic performance. For example, women turn out to use prestigious forms more often than men in their linguistic performance; accordingly, it seems that women are more likely to comply with standard forms whether or not they consider the socio-pragmatic factors. Talks made by pairs of Iranian male and female speakers whose speech were totally formal were examined from an acoustical point of view by measuring the fundamental frequency of the speakers' speech. Men showed to have higher pitch when their talk occurred in a cross-sex situation, compared with the situations where they talked with other men. This reveals that men and women do not react linguistically similarly in the same situations; and thus, they endeavor to insist on linguistic differences resulted from gender differences. It has been shown that both male and female speakers talk differently when they are in a cross-sex talk from when they talk to people from their own sex.

According to Tagliamnte (2006), languages vary and their variation depends on situational context. Persian, like any other language, has different varieties of wh- and yes/no questions. Several Persian linguists have suggested different variations of such questions (Mahootian and Gebhardt, 1997; Adli, 2010, Heidari Darani and Afghari, 2012, and Heidari Darani, 2009) and concerning context classified questions into standard and non-standard variants based on the availability of the Q particle in yes/no questions and the location of the wh-word in wh-questions. In this study, the classifications proposed by Heidari Darani (2009) and Heidari Darani and Afghari (2012) were followed.

Methodology

Participants

The participants of the study were 30 male and female Persian native speakers who were born, raised and were still residing in Isfahan, Iran. Hence, they are assumed to be all originally Persian native speakers. They were adult speakers aged between twenty-five and thirty-five who were selected for the purpose of this research study. These participants were selected randomly and they all belonged to middle-class families based on the information they provided on their background questionnaire which sought information about their profession as well as their parents' profession. They needed to be Persian native speakers and thus not familiar with English as a foreign language. They were asked

about the amount of English knowledge they had and all claimed to be beginners in English. The participants were necessarily paired for the task, and since the pairing was under the researchers' control, familiarity between the participants could be varied systematically by asking them to attend with a friend. Each pair of familiar participants was tested in coordination with another pair who was unknown to either member of the pair. Each participant took part in four conversations, twice as Instruction Giver and twice as Instruction Follower, once in each case with a familiar partner, and once with an unfamiliar partner. As Instruction Giver, they gave directions on the same map, but when following, they used different maps each time. All participants gave instructions to a familiar partner first, then to an unfamiliar partner. The option of placing a small barrier between the participants to prevent them from seeing each other's faces allowed us to control the availability of the visual channel for communication

Instruments

In this project, the data elicitation instruments utilized were the Edinburgh Map Task (EMT) and a background information questionnaire.

Edinburgh Map Task (EMT)

Edinburgh Map Task (EMT) which was used in this study was the modified version of the EMT compiled by Human Communication Research Center (HCRC 2010). The HCRC Map Task Corpus was produced in response to one of the core problems of work on natural language: much of the knowledge of language is based on scripted materials, despite most language use taking the form of unscripted dialogue with specific communicative goals. The two speakers sit opposite one another and each has a map which the other cannot see as there is a barrier placed between them. One speaker—designated the Instruction Giver—has a route marked on his map; the other speaker—the Instruction Follower—has no route. The speakers are told that their goal is to reproduce the Instruction Giver's route by asking questions on the Instruction Follower's map. The maps are not identical and the speakers are told this explicitly at the beginning of their performance.

The starting and finishing points were not marked on the Instruction Follower' map, while they were marked on the Instruction Giver's map. This task led to natural data collection and the questions and answers produced by the participants represented a natural interaction similar to those in real-life situations.

Background Information Questionnaire

The questionnaires were presented to the participants and they were asked to fill them out. Indeed, they were asked to provide the researchers with information such as age, gender, field of study, region of origin in Esfahan, their profession, and parents' profession. In order to control the significance of the social factors and their probable influence on the question variants produced by the participants, such a background questionnaire was administered. The background questionnaires were validated by the experts. The social factors under investigation in this study were gender and context while the rest including their age and social class were controlled.

Procedures

The participants were paired considering the contexts under question in this study; that is formal and informal. Concerning gender, they were organized in male-male, male-female, and female-female categories, as well. They were briefed on what the maps would entail and what the Instruction Giver and Follower would do from the start. The Instruction Followers were asked to find the starting point, look for the directions, and eventually reach the destination by inquiring information from the Instruction Giver. The frequency and percentage of Persian wh- question variants produced by the participants were tabulated and Chi-square analyses were run on the data to reveal the significant effect of gender and context on the production of such variants.

Results

After dyadic conversations were recorded, they were transcribed and Persian wh- variants were calculated. As frequency of the variants was considered, the data obtained was subject to Chi-square statistical test so as to determine the statistical significance of the probable differences in the data. In addition to the Chi-square analysis, the descriptive statistics and frequency and percentage of the wh-variants in terms of gender are shown in Tables 1-3 and Figures 1 and 2.

Table 1
Descriptive statistics of Persian wh-question variants by gender

Number of wh-question variants	Valid	345
	Missing	0
Mean		1.24
Std. Deviation		.473
Variance		.224

Table 2
Frequency and percentage of Persian wh-question variants by gender

Question Variant	Frequency			Total Percentage	Total Frequency
	Male-Male	Female-Male	Female-Female		
WhV	32	112	125	78.0	269
SWhV	6	37	26	20.0	69
WH	2	0	5	2.0	7
Total	40	149	156	100.0	345

Among the Persian wh-question variants, the most common one was found to be WHV (32 for male-male, 112 for female-male, and 125 for female-female). The second variant rated as the most frequent among the available variants was the SWHV variant which is the so-called Persian standard wh-question variant. For all three groups the WHV and SWHV variants, respectively, were the most frequent ones, and the female-female frequency of WHV production was higher than the others but the female-male frequency of SWHV production was higher than the others. The third-ranked variant was the WH one. Here, the female-female frequency of use of this variant was higher.

To illustrate the differences between male and female Persian native speakers in the production of Persian wh-question variants, the related bar chart was drawn. Figure 1 displays the male- male, female-female, and female-male scenarios in terms of wh-question variants.

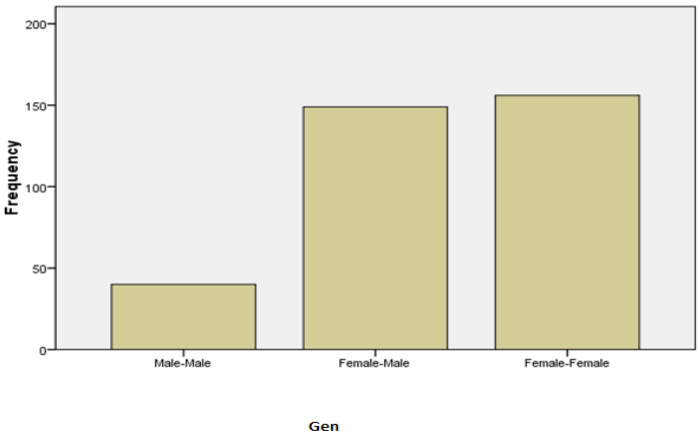

Figure 1 Persian wh-questions and three gender scenarios

To indicate the difference in the production of Persian wh-question variants produced by native speakers of the language Chi-square analysis was run on the data. Table 3 shows the results.

Table 3
Chi-square related to Persian wh-question variants by gender

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	9.198[a]	4	.056
Likelihood Ratio	11.526	4	.021
Linear-by-Linear Association	.103	1	.748
N of Valid Cases	345		
a. 3 cells (33.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .81.			

Chi-square analysis was run to probe the effect of gender on the construction of Persian wh-question variants. Actually, according to Pearson Chi-Square P value of .056 for a 95% confidence level, gender did not affect Persian wh-question variants. To illustrate the results of the Chi-square analysis run on the Persian wh-question variants data, the related bar chart was drawn. Figure 2 presents the three frequent wh-question variants in terms of gender.

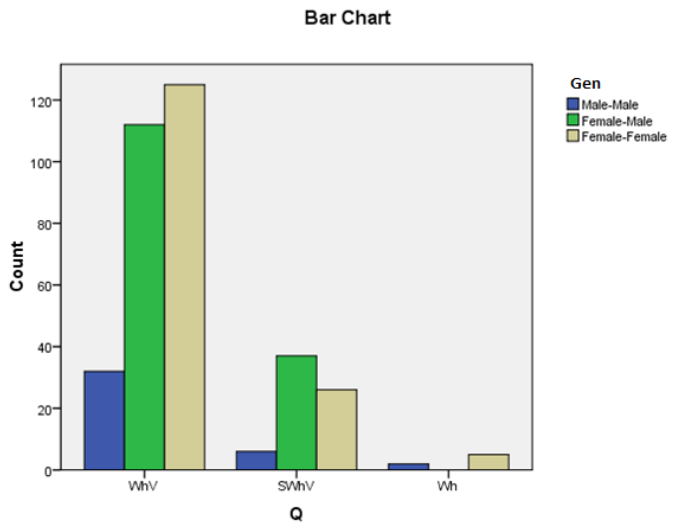

Figure 2 Persian wh-question variants and gender

To probe the effect of context on the construction of Persian wh-question variants produced by Persian native speakers, Chi-square analysis was run on the respective data. Descriptive statistics and frequency and percentage of the wh-question variants are displayed besides the Chi-square analysis in Tables 4-6 as well as Figure 3.

Table 4

Descriptive statistics of Persian wh-question variants by context

Number of wh-question variants	Valid	345
	Missing	0
Mean		1.59
Std. Deviation		.492
Variance		.242

Table 5

Frequency and percentage of Persian wh- question variants by context

Question Variant	Frequency		Total Percentage	Total Frequency
	Formal	Informal		
WhV	117	152	78.0	269
SWhV	21	48	20.0	69
WH	3	4	2.0	7
Total	141	204	100.0	345

As far as frequency was concerned, the WHV in informal context showed the highest frequency, respectively, for male-male, female-female, and female-male. And the WH was the lowest. The second graded variant was the SWHV in informal context (152 for informal and 117 for formal).

Table 6
Chi-square related to Persian wh-question variants by context

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	3.887[a]	2	.143
Likelihood Ratio	3.994	2	.136
Linear-by-Linear Association	2.566	1	.109
N of Valid Cases	345		

a. 2 cells (33.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.86.

The formal and informal contexts were subjected to the Chi-square analysis to probe the effect of context on the construction of Persian wh- question variants. These two contexts proved not to be significantly different. According to this P value=.143, it showed that formal and informal contexts have no effect on making wh- questions among Persian native speakers.
To illustrate the results of the Chi-square analysis run on the Persian wh-question variants data the related bar chart was drawn. Figure 3 presents the three frequent wh-question variants in terms of context.

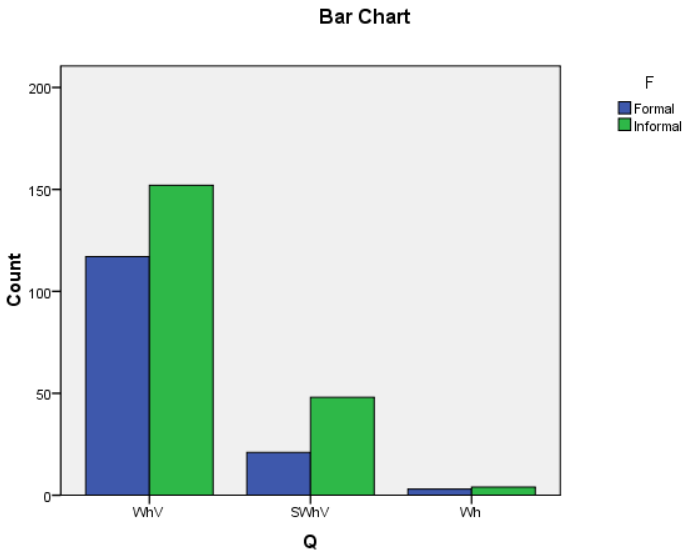

Figure 3 Persian wh-question variants and context

Discussion and Conclusion
According to Tagliamnte (2006), languages vary and their variation depends on situational context. Persian, like any other language, has different varieties of wh- questions. Several Persian linguists have suggested different variations of such questions (Mahootian and Gebhardt, 1997; Adli, 2010; Heidari Darani and Afghari, 2012; and Heidari Darani, 2009) and classified questions into standard and non-standard variants based on the location of the wh-word in wh-questions. Considering the wh-question variants, eight wh-question variants were recognized based on the classifications followed in this study, but only three wh-question variants were observed in the current data. The wh- question variants produced were WHV, SWHV, and WH. Among the wh-question variants, the most frequent and the least frequent ones were WHV and WH, respectively.
Given the effect of gender on the production of Persian wh- variants, the results indicated that gender did not significantly affect wh-questions; however, male-male production of wh-question variants differed from female-female and female-male scenarios. The frequency of wh- questions produced by male-male group of participants confirmed the Least Effort Principle (LEP) discovered by the French

philosopher Guillaume Ferrero (1894) and studied by Zipf (1949), Poole (1985), and Mann (1987). Zipf theorized that the distribution of word use was due to tendency to communicate efficiently with least effort; while Poole and Mann studied this principle in information seeking context. In this study in which the context was information seeking, men showed more tendencies towards this principle. They used the least effort to attain their goal. Hence, it can be stated that the Least Effort Principle is gender-oriented.

The production of wh-question variants confirmed the perspective towards gender, which was followed by Eckert and McConnell-Ginet (1992) and Cheshire (2000) (to name a few), maintaining that when the doers of a practice have the *same* purpose and do it under the *same* context, they are recognized as one group whether they are male or female and they are not different even in their language. Discussing the use of standard and non-standard variants, it was shown that the female-female and female-male groups of participants used the standard wh-question variants more often than the male-male group. Thus, female speakers preferred to produce standard wh-question variants. This finding is in line with the results of previous studies conducted by several scholars such as Labov (1990), Fasold (1990), Chambers (1995) and Trudgill (1974). They claimed that men use a higher frequency of nonstandard forms than women and as standard forms are assumed to be more prestigious, women favor the incoming prestige forms more than men.

Concerning the effect of context on the construction of Persian wh- question variants, the results showed that context did not affect wh-questions, either. It was assumed that in the informal context where the participants of a pair did not know each other, standard variants were produced, yet it did not occur. Given the wh-question variants, it seems that context was ignored during producing such variants. Probably, the purpose of the study which was information seeking through asking questions was paid more attention rather than the context of the study.

Given context and standard and non-standard variants, the results demonstrated that the frequency of all three wh-question variants including both standard and non-standard variants were higher in informal context. Based on the results, it is concluded that, contrary to the previous studies, context does not have a crystal-clear effect on question variants in Persian. The participants were probably noticing the purpose so much so that they did not pay attention to their partner and thus the degree of formality or informality of the context.

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IMPACTS OF INPUT ENHANCEMENT ON LISTENING COMPREHENSION IMPROVEMENT OF IRANIAN INTERMEDIATE FEMALE EFL LEARNERS

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ABSTRACT
THIS STUDY AIMED AT INVESTIGATING WHETHER INPUT ENHANCEMENT (IE) THROUGH REPETITION AND SLOWING DOWN THE RATE OF SPEECH HAD ANY IMPACT ON THE LISTENING COMPREHENSION ABILITY OF IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS. HAVING BEEN HOMOGENIZED VIA THE QUICK PLACEMENT TEST, 90 STUDENTS AT INTERMEDIATE LEVEL PARTICIPATED IN THIS STUDY. THEY WERE RANDOMLY ASSIGNED INTO THREE GROUPS OF 30 STUDENTS, TWO EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS AND ONE CONTROL GROUP. ALL THE THREE GROUPS SAT FOR A PRETEST OF LISTENING COMPREHENSION ABILITY. THE PURPOSE OF THIS TEST WAS TO DETERMINE THE LEARNERS' INITIAL LEVEL OF LISTENING ABILITY. AFTERWARDS, ONE OF THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS RECEIVED TREATMENT BASED ON IE THROUGH REPETITION AND THE OTHER ONE RECEIVED TREATMENT BASED ON IE THROUGH SLOWING DOWN THE RATE OF SPEECH FOR 10 SESSIONS. HOWEVER, THE CONTROL GROUP RECEIVED NO IE AND RECEIVED THE TRADITIONAL WAY OF TEACHING LISTENING COMPREHENSION ABILITY. FINALLY, AT THE END OF THE COURSE, THE POSTTEST WAS ADMINISTERED TO THREE GROUPS TO DETERMINE EACH GROUP'S IMPROVEMENT IN DIFFERENT EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS. THE RESULTS OF ANOVA REVEALED THAT NOT ONLY DID THE STUDENTS IN EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS OUTPERFORM THOSE IN CONTROL GROUP, THE STUDENTS WHO WERE TAUGHT USING IE THROUGH REPETITION PERFORMED BETTER THAN THOSE WHO WERE TAUGHT USING IE THROUGH SLOWING DOWN THE RATE OF SPEECH.

KEY WORDS: INPUT ENHANCEMENT, LISTENING COMPREHENSION, INPUT, FOCUS-ON-FORM (FONF).

1. Introduction

Comprehending a language has been recognized as a creative, complex and active skill which involves many processes forming the main subject for classroom and psychological studies (Taylor, 1981). Rivers (1978) maintains that the major difficulty of travelers to foreign countries is making themselves understood rather than understanding others. To communicate with native speakers, students must understand the gist of what native speakers are saying. As a result, listening plays a crucial role for both language learning and communication in real language situations.

Because listening skill used to be considered a passive skill, it has been neglected in the process of foreign language learning. This negligence may have originated from the belief that exposing the students to the spoken language is enough for improving listening comprehension. Listening is an essential part of the communication process. Students spend the majority of their time listening and much of what they know is acquired though listening (Seely, 1995). Listening is more

than hearing. It involves the use of language and thought, when students' language abilities develop, their ability in effective listening will develop as well.

Developing effective listening abilities can be achieved when it is meaningfully integrated with speaking, writing, reading and listening experiences. Exposure to speaking is important for the students who need to hear the language spoken in meaningful contexts in order to acquire it. The receptive (listening) language abilities precede the expressive (speaking) language abilities, so students need to spend a great deal of time listening before they develop their speaking abilities (Van-Duzer, 1997).

According to Flowerdew (2005), all language teaching approaches except for grammar-translation incorporate a listening component. For example total physical response is a language teaching method in which listening is the main component and without it, learning would not take place. Listening skill is one of the most important skills because the main factor to acquire a language is to receive language input. When enough comprehension input is available for students, acquisition takes place. Listening is very important in language classroom because it provides input for learners. Therefore, listening is vital not only as a receptive skill but also as a factor for enhancing proficiency in speaking (Flowerdew, 2005).

Attention and awareness in second language acquisition (SLA) play crucial roles in language learning. Over the past years many studies have emerged which emphasized the role of attention and awareness in SLA contexts (Schmidt, 1990, 1995). Based on these studies, learners' attention is very important. This kind of Focus-on-Form (FonF) instruction which increases awareness has been known as input (salience) enhancement (Sharwood Smith, 1991, 1993). It is assumed to be the root of language learning (Chaudron, 1985; Faerch & Kasper, 1986; Gass & Madden, 1985; Krashen, 1981, 1982; Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991; Van Patten, 1993, 1994, 1995, 1996). Input enhancement involves the manipulation of input salience, with an attempt to direct learners' attention to a specific linguistic form in the input (Sharwood Smith, 1991, 1993). Salience refers to the ease with which learners can perceive given input. From a cognitive perspective, attention to input leads to language internalization (Hulstijin, 1989; Long, 1990; Schmidt, 1990, 1993, 1994a, 1994b, 1995; Sharwood Smith, 1981; Tomlin & Villa, 1994; Van Patten, 1990, 1994). Sharwood defined 'input enhancement' as a way of attracting learners' attention to formal aspects of information by manipulation of different parts. Manipulation may take different forms such as slowing down the rate of speech in listening or making it visually salient using some techniques as bolding, underlining, color coding, etc. in reading. The most obvious way to influence subconscious processing is by making target forms in input salient (Sharwood, 1991, 1993).

Input enhancement plays an important role in language learning and in relation to its importance, Sharwood Smith (1993, p.181) writes: Whether the enhancement is subtle or very explicit, the learner's brain must still register it. What we know of learners includes the fact they are good at ignoring what appears to the outside observer to be very obvious … this is why we need to do a great deal of research on the matter to see what works best.

Input enhancement can be effective in two ways: by drawing learners' attention to certain properties of L2 and by helping them 'unlearn' their incorrect analyses of L2 (White, Spade, Lightbown, & Rantal, 1991). It is very reasonable for teachers to use input enhancement because according to what was mentioned about IE, it can be very helpful in learners' achievement and performance.

A listening support is repetition of input which is usually used by language teachers in EFL contexts. Repetition has the potentiality to increase processing time which enhances the clarity between syntactic forms (Chang & Read, 2006). Provided with this type of support, L2 learners might benefit from listening to the input more than twice; furthermore, repeating input is likely to allow L2 learners to check their comprehension.

Sharwood Smith coined the term to cover methods language teachers use to make details of a second language clear for students (Sharwood 1991, 1993). Input is the "potentially processible language data which are made available, by chance or by design, to the language learner" (Sharwood smith, 1993, p.167). It is very important in second language acquisition because learners use it "in order to construct a mental representation of the grammar that they are acquiring"(Van Patten, 1996, p.13).

According to Sharwood, there are both positive and negative input enhancements. Positive input enhancement makes appropriate forms in input more salient. For example, if the learner could not

have the right perception of the grammar than is evidenced by the input, then positive evidence would change that grammar and bring it in line with the native-speaker grammar (Sharwood Smith 1991). On the other hand, negative input enhancement makes incorrect forms in input salient which will violate the target norms (Sharwood Smith, 1993).

This method uses some techniques and strategies such as color coding, boldfacing, using error flags, stress intonation, gesture as well as pointing out and explaining a construction using metalinguistic terminology (Sharwood Smith 1991, 1993). These techniques may be used in different ways such as: 1) Avoiding vowel reduction typical of rapid or casual speech 2) Slowing down the rate of speech 3) Using exaggerated stress and intonation 4) Extensive repetition of words and phrases 5) Less pre-verbal and more post-verbal modifications 6) Use of gestures, text enhancement such as boldface7) Underlining and other attention-catching textural techniques such as boldface, uppercase letters, colour-coding, etc.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Comprehensible Input

Input refers to language that learners are exposed to. That portion of input that can be understood by a learner is 'comprehensible input'. Comprehensible input contains linguistic items and structures that are a little higher than learner's present level of linguistic competence. Based on Krashen's model (1985), comprehensible input is necessary for acquisition to take place. However, many have disagreed with Krashen's claim that comprehensible input is necessarily a causative factor in L2 acquisition (Gass, 1988; Ellis, 1990a, 1991). These criticisms can be removed if the hypothesis is changed in the following way: comprehensible input can facilitate acquisition, but (1) it is not a necessary condition of acquisition, and (2) it does not guarantee that acquisition will take place.

2.2. Processed Input

Processed input is similar to Gass and Selinker's (1994) "comprehended input". "Comprehended input" is learner-controlled; it means, it is the learner who is (or who is not) doing the work to understand the input. 'Processed input' differs from 'comprehended input' in that both internal factors as well as the help of external factors are important in processed input. In other words, not only learner's role in processing and understanding the input is important but also external factors, which help the learner process and understand the input are important too. At least three factors could influence the learner initiative; attention, affect, and prior knowledge. By 'attention' learners notice that part of language input they need to learn. The learner may notice what Gass and Selinker call the mismatch between what is being learned and what has already been acquired. The learner's prior knowledge helps process and understand the input if it is within their accessibility. The third factor or 'affect' (social distance, motivation, and attitude) does help as well. A high motivation and a strong desire for learning help process and understand the input (Gardner, 1979, 1980; Schumann; 1978a, 1978b).

2.2.1. Input Processing Instruction

External factors such as input processing instruction and input enhancement contribute to helping the learner process and understand the input. Van Patten and Cadierno (1993) view input processing as involving form-meaning connections when input is changing to intake. In other words, input processing involves "those strategies and mechanisms that promote form-meaning connections during comprehension". They used processing instruction in foreign language teaching and reported their findings. They examined the possible effects of two different types of instruction on the developing knowledge system of the L2 learner: instruction as the manipulation of output, and instruction as structured or focused input processing, the former characterizing the traditional explicit instruction in which learner output is manipulated, as shown by figure 1, the latter looking at form-meaning connections to discuss the processes that are involved in the conversion of input to intake as shown by figure 2.

Figure 1: input → intake → developing system → output

Focused practice ↑

Figure 2: input → intake → developing system → output

Processing mechanisms ↑

The results showed that subjects who experienced processing instruction made significant achievement in both comprehension and production and those who experienced traditional instruction made significant achievement in only production (Cadierno, 1995). Van Patten and Cadierno's paper is important in that it shows that processing instruction helps L2 learners with their comprehension and production.

2.3. Input Enhancement

2.3.1. What Is Input Enhancement?

Input enhancement also can facilitate processing input. White et al. (1991) suggest that input enhancement can help L2 acquisition in two ways. First, by drawing the learner's attention explicitly to formal properties of the L2, form-focused instruction provides a more noticeable kind of positive evidence, which may help to make the learner aware of aspects of L2 which would otherwise pass unnoticed; and secondly, input enhancement may be used to help learners 'unlearn' incorrect analyses of the L2 by using negative evidence. This can be crucial in L2 acquisition if learners make incorrect generalization that cannot be proved on the basis of positive input alone. Another important way of employing input enhancement is to make those features of the target language which have been noticed but not comprehended, noticeable to the L2 learners. For example; enhancement of 'only' i.e., drawing learners' attention to the position of 'only' can help them understand the semantic differences of the following sentences (Quirk et. al, 1985).

(1) John could *only* see his wife from the doorway (but he could not talk to her, for example)
(2) John could see his wife *only* from the doorway (but he could not see his brother, for example).
(3) John could see his wife from the doorway *only* (but he could not see her from further inside the room, for example).

Besides, it appears that external factors also contribute to the learner's level of comprehension ranging from semantic to syntactic analysis. For instance, instruction on wide or narrow scope of quantifier can help the learner understand two different readings of simple sentences like "Everyone like someone" (May, 1985).

Ellis (1993, 1994, 1995) divided input enhancement into three main components; interpretation, integration and production. The first part is basically grammar comprehension of the new target form(s), "noticing" and cognitive comparing between the learners' use of those forms and the correct use of the forms. The integration is achieved when the completion of these three phases are integrated into the implicit system. The last one which is production refers to the automatic use of the new target forms.

Lee and Benati (2007) divided the research on input enhancement into two main components. The first one is manipulating the input that the language learners are presented with using one of the input enhancement techniques. The second component is manipulating how learners interact with the input they are presented with.

To summarize, currently there is considerable interest in the input. The research is beginning to show that only exposing to the L2 input is not enough. Learners need L2 data that are suited for their level of development. There is somewhat less agreement about precisely what makes an optimal input (Ellis, 1986). There are some doubts, such as: Is it, as teachers think, an input selected and graded according to formal and logical criteria, or is it, as Krashen (1981) argues, simply a matter of 'comprehensible input', providing learners with language that they can understand?

2.3.2. The Importance of Input Enhancement

Ellis (1993, 1995) believed that input enhancement is very effective in language teaching process. Many studies have shown the effectiveness of the role of salient input (enhanced input) in directing the learners' attention to second/foreign language forms. Lee and Benati (2007) claimed that a review of the literature concluded that input enhancement is useful for language development. However, if language learners are not able to notice the input, that input cannot become intake. Wong

(2003) makes a distinction between focus on form and input enhancement. The former requires that learning occur incidentally in a communicative setting while the later could be proactive or reactive and does not require a communicative interaction.

Sharwood Smith (1991) claims that the most obvious way to try to affect subconscious processing beneficially is by making relevant target forms in the input salient. He states that making the input salient (input enhancement) has a highly positive effect on the rate ate and accuracy of L2 acquisition. The noticeability is not changing the subconscious processes directly, but it is expansion or restriction of the information on which the processes may operate. On the importance of input enhancement Sharwood Smith (1994, p.181) writes the following lines:

"Whether the enhancement is subtle or very explicit, the learner's brain must still register it. What we know of learners includes the fact that they are very good at ignoring what appears to the outside observer to be very obvious…. This is why we need to do a great deal of research on the matter to see what works best."

White et al. (1991) have placed emphasis on the importance of input enhancement. They have suggested that input enhancement can help L2 acquisition in two ways: by drawing learners' attention to certain properties of L2, and by helping them to 'forget deliberately their incorrect analyses of L2. Thus, input enhancement affect learners' knowledge and performance in the second language, and it seems reasonable to expect language teachers and syllabus designers to make use of input enhancement.

Radwan (2005) investigated the effects of input enhancement, rule provision, awareness of English dative alteration in forty two lower intermediate participants. The participants were pretested to figure out their initial knowledge of the target structure, and one day later given a short story to read which contained a high number of datives. There were some comprehension question follow up. The next day students were given a narration task which involved describing a set of pictures. Participants were asked to think aloud while completing the task in order to for the researcher to gauge their awareness. The treatments were followed by a posttest (one day later) and a delayed posttest (one month later). A control group only completed the test, but did not receive any treatments. Radwan found a significant advantage for the rule-group over the other groups on acquisition, while failed to make significant progress. This advantage was maintained on the delayed posttest. He also concluded that participants showing a great degree of awareness during the narration task did better than on the tests.

Williams (1999) carried out a study to compare the effect of input enhancement and explicit grammar instruction on the acquisition of participial adjectives and present passive. The results revealed that input enhancement may be effective for teaching complex structures like of the relative clauses. The researcher concluded that this visual input used alone is not enough to cause grammar learning for a complex structure like relative clauses.

In another study Shinichi Izumi (2002) has investigated the effects of typographic feature as visual input enhancement. The researcher wanted to figure out whether this feature promotes noticing and learning of the relative clause. The study revealed that this visual input used alone is not enough to cause grammar learning especially for a complex structure like relative clauses.

Likewise, Dasse (2004) investigated the effect of different types of focus-on-form (FonF) instruction in L2 French acquisition. Three groups of learners were exposed to a FonF instruction to acquire the auxiliaries' etre and avoir in the passé compose, using consciousness raising tasks. The results revealed that the different types of instructional treatments led to the differences in language learning and that raising learners' meta-linguistic awareness of specific L2 forms facilitated acquisition to a certain extent. Dasse argues with Batstone by stating that researchers cannot generalize the finding because more FonF studies are needed.

Another recent study is being carried out by Reinders (2009). Using stimulated recall and think aloud protocols in both naturalistic classroom interaction and in experimental setting. The researcher aimed at identifying the reason of noticing different learning conditions and the extent of conscious knowledge. The author exposed the students to morphological and syntactical structures, as well as enhanced and non-enhanced input consciously available to them that knowledge is, exposing students to morphological and syntactical structures, as well as enhanced and non-enhanced input. The result of the study is not yet available since the proposal has been presented to the Foundation to Science Technology Research to be carried out soon.

Park and Han (2008) suggested some factors that can increase salience. These factors are comprehension failure, the learner's current interlanguage knowledge, and the learner's bias for meaning over form, learner's difference and the learner's first language.

3. Research Question

1. Does input enhancement (repetition & slowing down the rate of speech) have any significant impact on the improvement of Iranian intermediate female EFL learners' listening comprehension ability?
2. Which type of input enhancement (repetition vs. slowing down the rate of speech) would have a more significant impact on EFL learners' progress in listening comprehension?

4. Method

4.1. Participants

Three groups of 90 intermediate L2 learners in one of the institutes in Najafabad participated in this study. The participants were all female aged between 15 and 32. 45 participants were students at universities, mostly Azad, Payam-e-Noor Najafabad branch and Isfahan University. They were studying different majors such as translation, computers, management, etc. 38 participants were high school students studying mathematics, sciences, arts, computers and accounting. 7 participants were employees who needed English for their job. All participants were given a placement test before the treatment.

The participants were from different cultural, social and economic backgrounds living in Najafabad and the suburbs. Among the 90 available intermediate students, 60 were chosen randomly as experimental groups and 30 were regarded as a control group. In one of the experimental groups which was chosen randomly, one technique of input enhancement was applied in listening comprehension and in the other group, the other technique was applied. The participants in control group did not receive any input enhancement instructions and listening was taught traditionally.

4.2. Instrument and materials

4.2.1. Placement Test

A placement test was given to the participants in order to select the homogeneous ones. The Quick Placement Test (QPT) was chosen because it has both validity and reliability. The test consists of two parts including 60 items. After administering the test, the obtained results were analyzed based on the QPT associated rating levels charts and those who received 30 to 40 in this test were considered as intermediate learners.

4.2.2. Pretest

A test of 30 multiple choice items designed by the researcher based on the book "Tactics for Listening, Intermediate Level" was administered to the participants in three classes. The listening part consists of 6 conversations each followed by 5 questions. The students had 30 minutes to complete this activity. To make the pre-test reliable and valid, a different group of 10 students at this level were chosen for piloting, and then the reliability was determined using KR-21 formula and the result turned out to be 0.86. The main goal of pretest was to determine the participants' initial level of listening ability.

4.2.3. Posttest

The students were not told that they would have another test after a few sessions. So they were given a posttest which its items were actually the same as pretest but in different order to prevent test practice effect after IE instruction finished. 10 sessions of instruction were held between pretest and posttest. The main goal of the posttest was to determine the extent to which the participants improved through different techniques of input enhancement.

4.2.4. Computer

A computer in each class was used to play the software including the listening tracks which students were supposed to listen to. The program for playing the listening sections, MP3 Audio Editor Software which has powerful professional audio editing feature, made it possible for the teacher to pause or slow down the rate of speech whenever possible. By applying this software, any part of the aural file can be repeated or played in a lower rate.

4.2.5. DVDs and CDs

The textbook 'Tactics for Listening' has both DVD and CD software to make it possible for all of students to practice. During the classroom practices, the DVD containing all units of the book was used.

4.2.6. The Textbook

For the purpose of our study "Tactics for Listening, Expanding" was chosen and distributed among the students. Expanding Tactics for Listening is the third level of the Tactics for Listening series. It is intended for intermediate students who have studied English previously but need further practice in understanding everyday conversational language. In the *Expanding* Tactics for Listening student book, students practice listening for a variety of purposes and hear examples of different types of spoken English including casual conversations, instructions, directions, requests, descriptions, apologies, and suggestions. Essential listening skills are practiced throughout the text. These skills include listening for key words, details, and gist; listening and making inferences; listening for attitudes; listening to questions and responding; and recognizing and identifying information.

There are 24 units, each unit has five sections. The first section, *Getting Ready,* introduces the topic of the unit and presents key vocabulary for the unit listening tasks. The next three sections, *Listening 1, Listening 2,* and *Listening 3* are linked to conversations or monologues on the audio program. The *Listening* sections provide task-based, graded listening practice. The final section, *Conversation Corner*, allows students to move from receptive to productive use of language through structured *Pronunciation, Dictation, and Conversation* practice. Each unit features a topic that relates to everyday life such as friendship, making plans, or phone messages. The topics have been chosen for their frequency in conversation and their frequency in conversation and their interest to learners. A wide variety of stimulating and useful activities is included to give students graded practice in listening. There was also an activity book along to help them practice more.

4.3. Procedure

After being ensured of the students homogeneity using a placement test, three groups of participants who were at intermediate level, participated in this study. One group was considered as control group and two others were regarded as experimental groups. It must be noted that categorizing the participants in control and experimental groups was done randomly. After the pretest was given to all three groups, an instructional program of 10 sessions in which listening comprehension was taught using input enhancement techniques started in experimental groups. In one of the experimental groups listening comprehension was taught using input enhancement through repetition (first experimental group) and in another one listening comprehension was taught using input enhancement through slowing down the rate of speech (second experimental group). In the first experimental group, students listened to a piece of listening with repetition of input by MP3 Audio Editor Software. After listening they were asked to answer the follow up questions. In the second experimental group, listening comprehension was taught using another technique of input enhancement, slowing down the rate of speech. Teacher used MP3 Audio Editor Software to decrease the rate of speech in listening and students listened to a slowed version. After listening, they answered the follow up questions. In the third group which was considered as a control group, listening comprehension was taught traditionally, without any techniques as the students were exposed to listening and were asked to answer the questions individually. After 10 sessions of input enhancement program in experimental groups, a posttest was run for all three groups. Students' scores in pretest and posttest in three classes were collected, tabulated and compared using the one-way ANOVA.

4.4. Data Analysis

The aim of the present study was to understand whether `two types of input enhancement (i.e. repetition and slowing down the rate of speech) had a significant impact on the improvement of Iranian intermediate female EFL learners' listening comprehension ability? Since the listening comprehension scores obtained from three groups (EG1, EG2, and CG) had to be compared, a one-way between-groups ANOVA was conducted to compare the pretest scores of the three groups and make sure of their homogeneity at the outset of the study. The same statistical test (i.e. one-way between-groups ANOVA), followed by a post hoc Scheffe test, was once again employed to compare (a) the two experimental groups with the control group and thus figure out the possible effectiveness of input enhancement, and (b) the two experimental groups to find out which type of input enhancement was more effective.

5. Results

5.1. Results of the Placement Test

Based on the Quick placement test results, the homogeneity of the 90 selected learners was assured. To ascertain the homogeneity of the learners in experimental and control groups, a one-way

ANOVA was run to compare their placement scores. Table 1. shows the descriptive statistics for this comparison.

Table 1.
Descriptive Statistics for the Placement Scores of the EG1, EG2, and CG Learners

Groups	*N*	Mean	*Std.* Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
EG1	30	83.24	13.21	56.00	91.00
EG2	30	86.09	15.85	63.00	102.00
CG	30	85.61	14.77	69.00	96.00

Mean, standard deviation, and other descriptive statistics of the three groups are shown in Table 1. The groups were not significantly different on the Quick Placement Test, as shown by the results of one-way between-groups ANOVA table below.
Table 2.

Results of One-Way ANOVA for Comparing EG1, EG2, and CG Placement Test Scores

	Sum of Squares	*df*	Mean Square	*F*	*Sig.*
Between Groups	65.51	2	7.42	4.11	.09
Within Groups	214.29	87	2.58		
Total	279.80	89			

As it was mentioned, the three groups were at almost similar levels of proficiency and the differences among them were not statistically significant because the *p* value in Table 2. was shown to be larger than the alpha level of significance (.09 > .05).
5.2. Results of the Pretest

Before the experiment began, the researcher had to make sure the learners in the three groups were not unequal concerning the variable under investigation (i.e. listening comprehension). The results of the comparison of the three groups on the pretest are displayed in Tables 3. and 4.
Table 3.
Descriptive Statistics Results Comparing EG1, EG2, and CG Mean Scores on the Pretest

					95% Confidence Interval for Mean			
	N	Mean	*Std.* Deviation	*Std.* Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Minimum	Maximum
EG1	30	5.41	1.19	.21	4.96	5.86	3.00	8.00
EG2	30	6.20	1.56	.28	5.61	6.78	4.00	9.00
CG	30	6.21	1.43	.26	5.68	6.75	3.00	9.00
Total	90	5.94	1.44	.15	5.64	6.24	3.00	9.00

The mean scores of the EG1 (*M* = 5.41), EG2 (*M* = 6.20), and CG (*M* = 6.21) were different from one another on the pretest. To figure out whether the differences among these mean scores were significant or not, one needs to check the *p* value under the *Sig.* column in the ANOVA table below.
Table 4.

Results of One-Way ANOVA for Comparing EG1, EG2, and CG Mean Scores on the Pretest

	Sum of Squares	*df*	Mean Square	*F*	*Sig.*
Between Groups	12.53	2	6.26	3.16	.06

Within Groups	172.18	87	1.97
Total	184.72	89	

As is displayed in Table 4., there was not a statistically significant difference in the pretest scores for EG1 (*M* = 5.41, *SD* = 1.19), EG2 (*M* = 6.20, *SD* = 1.56), and CG (*M* = 6.21, *SD* = 1.43) because the *p* value under the *Sig.* column was greater than the specified level of significance (i.e. .06 > .05), indicating that the three groups did not significantly differ prior to the commencement of the experiment. This made the three groups comparable. This result is also evident in the bar chart below.

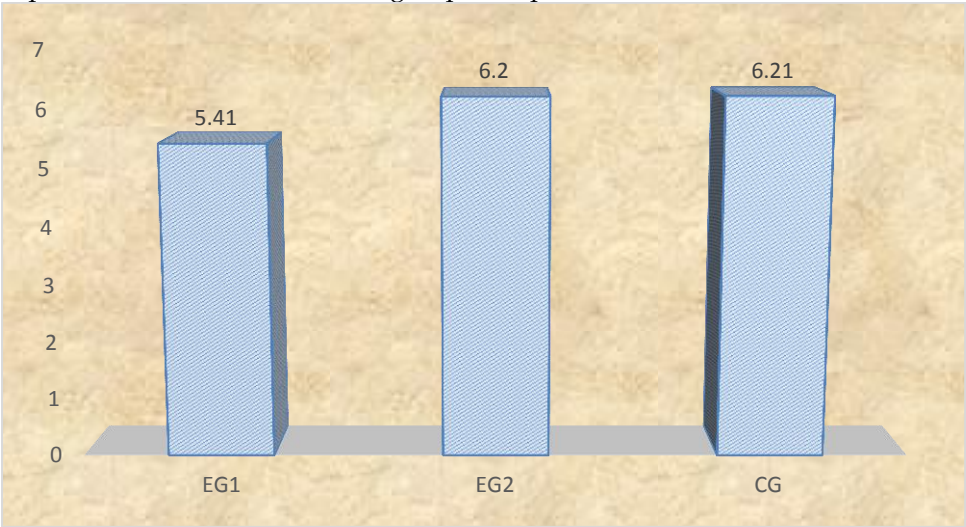

Figure 1: The mean scores of EG1, EG2, and CG on the pretest

This bar chart elucidates the fact that the differences among the three groups on the pretest were not statistically significant.

5.3. Results of the Posttest

The results obtained upon the administration of the posttest are presented in this section. Table 5. shows the descriptive statistics for the comparison of the three groups on the posttest.

Table 5.

Descriptive Statistics Results Comparing EG1, EG2, and CG Mean Scores on the Posttest

					95% Confidence Interval for Mean			
	N	Mean	*Std.* Deviation	*Std.* Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Minimum	Maximum
EG1	30	16.95	.76	.13	16.68	17.25	16.00	19.00
EG2	30	15.78	1.34	.24	15.27	16.28	14.00	19.00
CG	30	11.75	2.15	.39	10.94	12.55	5.00	15.00
Total	90	14.83	2.70	.28	14.26	15.40	5.00	19.00

Based on Table 5, the mean scores of the EG1 (*M* = 16.95), EG2 (*M* = 15.78), and CG (*M* = 11.75) were different from each other. To find out whether the differences among these mean scores were of statistical significance or not, one should look down the *Sig.* column Table 6. below.

Table 6.

Results of One-Way ANOVA for Comparing EG1, EG2, and CG Mean Scores on the Posttest

	Sum of Squares	*df*	Mean Square	*F*	*Sig.*
Between Groups	448.81	2	224.40	95.38	.000
Within Groups	204.68	87	2.35		
Total	653.50	89			

As could be seen in Table 6, there was a statistically significant difference in posttest scores for EG1 (*M* = 16.96, *SD* = .76), EG2 (*M* = 15.78, *SD* = 1.34), and CG (*M* = 11.75, *SD* = 2.15) since the *p* value under the *Sig.* column was less than the specified level of significance (i.e. .000 < .05). To find

out where exactly the differences among the three groups lay, the Scheffe post hoc test was conducted.

Table 7.

Results of the Scheffe Post Hoc Test for Comparing EG1, EG2, and CG Mean Scores on the Posttest

Groups		Mean Difference	*Std.* Error	*Sig.*	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
EG1	EG2	1.18*	.39	.014	.19	2.16
	CG	5.21*	.39	.000	4.23	6.20
EG2	EG1	-1.18*	.39	.014	-2.16	-.19
	CG	4.03*	.39	.000	3.04	5.01
CG	EG1	-5.21*	.39	.000	-6.20	-4.23
	EG2	-4.03*	.39	.000	-5.01	-3.04

It could be seen that the difference between EG1 (M = 16.96) and EG2 (M = 15.78) was statistically significant and the EG1 learners could outperform the EG2 learners on the posttest. This is so because the relevant p value in front of EG1-EG2 was less than the alpha level (i.e. .014 < .05). In addition, the difference between EG1 learners and CG learners (M = 11.75) was statistically significant. Likewise, the difference between EG2 learners and the learners of the control group reached statistical significance. To sum up, the two experimental groups outperformed the control group significantly, and between these two experimental groups, EG1 learners obtained significantly higher results. The obtained results of this part are also shown in the bar chart below.

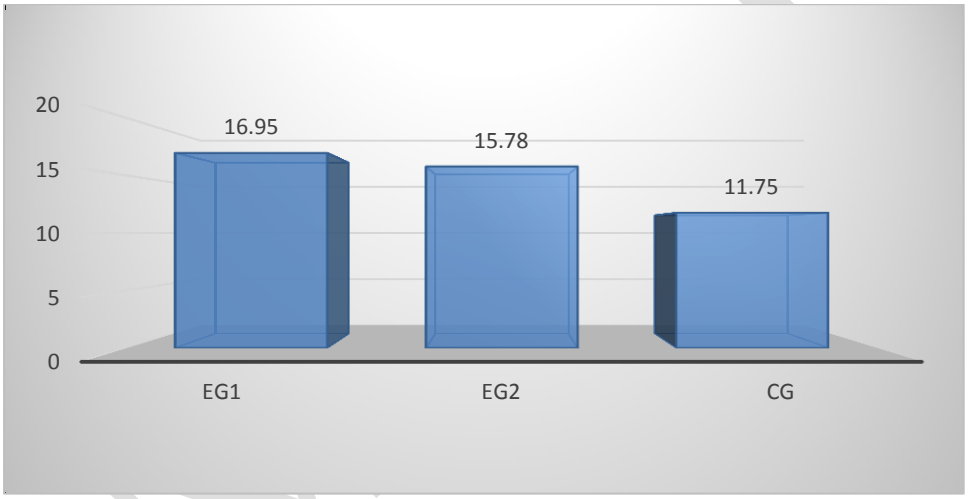

Figure 2: The mean scores of EG1, EG2, and CG on the posttest

From the results obtained in the Scheffe post hoc test, as illustrated in Figure 2, it could be concluded that (a) both EG1 and EG2 outperformed their counterparts in the control group, and that (b) EG1 learners scored significantly higher than EG2 learners on the posttest. The answers to the two research questions of the study thus are reiterated below.

Research Question One: Does input enhancement (repetition & slowing down the rate of speech) have any significant impact on the improvement of Iranian intermediate female EFL learners' listening comprehension ability? Answer: learners in the two experimental groups showed signs of improvement as they significantly outscored their counterparts in the control group.

Research Question Two: Which type of input enhancement (repetition vs. slowing down the rate of speech) would have a more significant impact on EFL learners' progress in listening comprehension? Answer: EG1 could get significantly higher scores than EG2 learners. Thus, input enhancement with repetition was shown to be more conducive to Iranian EFL learners' listening comprehension than input enhancement with slowing down the rate of speech.

6. Discussion

An attempt has been made in this study to test the following hypotheses:

H01. Input enhancement instruction through repetition and slowing down the rate of speech does not have any significant impact on EFL learners` progress in listening comprehension.
H02. There is no significant difference between the two input enhancement techniques of repetition and slowing down the rate of speech, in terms of their impact on students` progress in listening comprehension.

6.1. Addressing Research Hypothesis One

To test this research hypothesis, the performance of the first experimental group on the posttest was compared with that of the control group, and the same was done for the second experimental group. Doing so, use was made of one-way between-groups ANOVA and the Scheffe post hoc test. The analysis of the results indicated that both experimental groups outperformed the control group meaning that instructing EFL learners through enhancing the input did lead to better improvement of the participants' listening comprehension ability. Therefore, the first null hypothesis can safely be rejected pointing to the effectiveness of the mentioned input enhancement techniques.

The two experimental groups outperformed the control group in this study. The logic behind such finding might be related to the fact that the manipulated sections of the audio material drew the participants' attention more and raised their consciousness towards those sections. As highlighted in Baddleley's model of working memory (Carrol, 2008), one receives a great deal of information during the course of comprehension, however, merely some selected parts catch the attention and the rest is usually ignored. Thus, it could be concluded that the highlighted components in the input attracted the attention of the participants more, leading to better improvement of listening ability.

Schmidt in his noticing hypothesis (1990) argued that not all the input that the learner receives will convert to intake. It means not all the input which the learner encounters is 'put in'. In Schmidt's words language input becomes intake based on noticing. He states: intake is that part of the input which the learner notices. Later in another study Schmidt stated "what must be attended to and noticed is not just the input in a global sense but whatever features of the input are relevant for the target system" (Schmidt, 1993, p. 209). So, he believed to learn some aspects of input, before anything the learner must notice those aspects. Schmidt also tried to define consciousness and he came up with three stages of consciousness: Perception, Noticing and Understanding. His final hypothesis was based on the second level of noticing.

The conclusion which might be drawn from the above discussion could be that input enhancement can be effective in two ways: by drawing learners' attention to certain properties of L2 and by helping them 'unlearn' their incorrect analyses of L2 (White, Spade, Lightbown, & Rantal, 1991).

Theoretically speaking, different SLA researchers confirmed the positive role of input enhancement in language learning, for instance, Ellis (1993, 1995) believed that input enhancement is very effective in language teaching process. Many studies have shown the effectiveness of the role of salient input (enhanced input) in directing the learners' attention to second/foreign language forms. Lee and Benati (2007) claimed that input enhancement is useful for language development. However, if language learners are not able to notice the input, that input cannot become intake. Wong (2003) makes a distinction between focus on form and input enhancement. The former requires that learning occurs incidentally in a communicative setting while the latter could be proactive or reactive and does not require a communicative interaction.

The findings of the study are in line with the results of the research reported by Radwan (2005). He investigated the effects of input enhancement, rule provision, awareness of English dative alteration in forty two lower intermediate participants. The participants were pretested to figure out their initial knowledge of the target structure, and one day later given a short story to read which contained a high number of datives. There were some comprehension question follow ups. The next day students were given a narration task which involved describing a set of pictures. Participants were asked to think aloud while completing the task in order to for the researcher to gauge their awareness. The treatments were followed by a posttest (one day later) and a delayed posttest (one month later). A control group only completed the test, but did not receive any treatments. Radwan found a significant advantage for the rule-group over the other groups on acquisition, while failed to make significant progress. This advantage was maintained on the delayed posttest. He also concluded that participants showing a great degree of awareness during the narration task did better on the tests.

Reinders and Cho (2010) worked on the effectiveness of input enhancement on listening ability of L2 learners by using mobile phones. They found out that using input enhancement can be effective on improving listening ability of L2 learners.

The findings of this study are also in agreement with the results of the study reported by Dam Jensen and Vinther (2003). This study reported on two experiments on input enhancement used to support learners' selection of focus of attention in second language listening material. Eighty-four upper intermediate learners of Spanish took part. The input consisted of video recordings of quasi-spontaneous dialogues between native speakers, in tests and treatment. Exact repetition and speech rate reduction were examined for their effect on comprehension, acquisition of decoding strategies, and linguistic features. Each of three groups listened to each utterance of the dialogue three times, in different speed combinations: fast-slow-fast, fast-slow-slow, fast-fast-fast, respectively. A fourth group served as a baseline and received no treatment. Comparisons of pretest and posttest scores showed significant effects for all three parameters. No difference with regard to effect could be established between treatment conditions.

The majority of previous studies focused on improving grammatical competence of L2 learners through input enhancement with which the findings of this study are in line. For instance, Seyedtajaddini (2014) investigated the use of aural input enhancement in grammar learning among Iranian EFL learners. The participants in this study were 30, aged 16 to 23, who were selected from the intermediate and advanced EFL learners at Goldis institute in Salmas, Iran. There were two groups of participants in the study, low and high proficiency levels. The participants were exposed to a listening material which contained aural input enhancement listening material. According to the results of the study there was a significant difference between the performances of two groups depending on the use of aural input enhancement that the highly proficient learners had a better performance than the low proficient ones pointing to the merits of applying input enhancement.

The findings of the study are also in line with a number of other studies' findings such as Williams (1999), Shinichi Izumi (2002), Dasse (2004), Reinders (2000), and Pak and Han (2008). All of them have confirmed the effectiveness of input enhancement techniques.

5.2. Addressing Research Hypothesis Two

To test this hypothesis, the results of the ANOVA and Schefe post hoc test were taken into consideration comparing the three groups (2 experimental and one control) together. The findings revealed that EG1 could get significantly higher scores than EG2 learners. Thus, input enhancement with repetition was shown to be more conducive to Iranian EFL learners' listening comprehension than input enhancement with slowing down the rate of speech.

The reason of this finding could be attributed to the fact that through repetition the processing time which enhances the clarity between syntactic forms is significantly increased (Chang & Read, 2006). Provided with this type of support, L2 learners might benefit from listening to the input more than twice; furthermore, repeating input is likely to allow L2 learners to check their comprehension.

Chaudron (1983) claims that repetition is more effective than other kinds of listening support, due to the simplicity of repetition with least redundancy, in which a listener easily integrates the new information into the memory structure by linking it to the antecedent found in the previous piece of information. He notes that what is syntactically simple for one level of L2 learners might not be so for another.

The results of many studies conducted so far seeking the effect of repetition of input on listening comprehension (Cervantes & Gainer, 1992; Chang & Read, 2006; Chaudron, 1983) lend support to its effectiveness. Buck (2001) argued that repeated input can be used by test designers based on the nature of listening test. The repetition of input might decrease the anxiety of L2 learners and reduce the affective barrier during performing of listening tasks. It also would probably prepare learners for dealing with the comprehension questions, and the questions in turn are likely to make the audio text more comprehensible (Chang & Read, 2006). Approaching listening tasks this way might result in lowering the cognitive load imposed on L2 learners.

7. Conclusion

The study was in fact an attempt to shed light on the point whether enhancing input has any significant impact on listening comprehension improvement of Iranian EFL learners. As it was illuminated in the preceding section of the study, the participants in experimental groups receiving repetition and slowing down the rate of speech significantly outperformed those in control group. In

addition, repetition was found to be a more effective technique than the slowing down the rate of speech as illustrated in the discussion section of the study.

Therefore, the results of this study lend support to the theories advocating the positive role of enhancing input in language acquisition. L2 acquisition is evidenced as an enhancing attention in the opinions that draws subjects' ideas to the formal specialties of L2 input and emphasizes that it is advantageous, and in some cases vital for optimal L2 development (Schmit, 1993). Furthermore, learners are capable to receive linguistic forms with no instructional mediation; so typically do not reach to top levels of linguistic competence from whole meaning-centered instruction. According to Sharwood Smith (1991), the learners' attention should be attracted by making the input prominent through utilizing varied aspects of it.

Accordingly, employing input takes the form of audio input enhancement, in which the target forms become visually obvious. The belief about input enhancement is that, by making various aspects of input more remarkable for the learners and they will be more likely to notice target features, which eventuate in more intakes, the subset of the input data that becomes present for further language processing. Sharwood Smith (1991) asserts that the most apparent way to try to impact intuitive processing beneficially is by making related target aspects in the input striking. Besides, He discussed that making the input salient (input enhancement) has a significantly positive effect on the rate and accuracy of L2 acquisition. The current study hopefully makes a small but significant contribution to contextualizing aural input enhancement research.

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THE EFFECT OF OPEN CONCEPT SORT STRATEGY ON PRE-INTERMEDIATE LEARNERS' VOCABULARY RECALL AND RETENTION

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ABSTRACT
THE AIM OF THIS STUDY WAS TO INVESTIGATE THE EFFECTS OF OPEN CONCEPT SORT STRATEGY ON IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS' VOCABULARY RECALL AND RETENTION. TO PERFORM THIS STUDY, 90 PRE-INTERMEDIATE LEVEL PARTICIPANTS STUDYING IN NATIONAL IRANIAN DRILLING COMPANY (NIDC) LANGUAGE TRAINING CENTRE IN AHVAZ WERE SELECTED BASED ON CONVENIENCE SAMPLING METHOD. THEY TOOK PART IN A PLACEMENT (PROFICIENCY) TEST AND 60 OF THEM WERE ASSIGNED INTO TWO HOMOGENEOUS GROUPS. THEN, BOTH GROUPS WERE GIVEN A PRE-TEST BEFORE TREATMENT TO DETERMINE HOW WELL THE PARTICIPANTS KNOW THE CONTENTS. DURING AN ELEVEN-SESSION COURSE, BOTH GROUPS COVERED EIGHT PASSAGES SELECTED BY THE RESEARCHER. THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP UNDER TREATMENT RECEIVED OPEN CONCEPT SORT STRATEGY INSTRUCTION WHILE THE CONTROL GROUP RECEIVED TRADITIONAL VOCABULARY INSTRUCTIONS. AFTER EACH SESSION, PARTICIPANTS HAD TO SIT FOR AN IMMEDIATE POST-TEST FOR THE SHORT-TERM EFFECT, RECALL OF THE INSTRUCTIONS. FINALLY, AT THE END OF THE COURSE AND AFTER AN INTERVAL OF THREE WEEKS, THE PARTICIPANTS SAT FOR THEIR DELAYED POST-TEST AS AN INDICATOR OF THE LONG-TERM EFFECT, RETENTION OF THE INSTRUCTIONS. PAIRED SAMPLES *T*-TEST WAS USED TO COMPARE THE MEANS OF THE PRE-TEST AND THE DELAYED POST-TEST IN BOTH GROUPS. THE FINDINGS REVEALED THAT THE VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE OF BOTH GROUPS IMPROVED. MOREOVER, INDEPENDENT SAMPLES *T*-TEST SHOWED THAT THERE WAS A SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE TWO GROUPS CONCERNING VOCABULARY RECALL AND RETENTION. ANOTHER PAIRED SAMPLES *T*-TEST ALSO REVEALED THAT THE INTERVAL BETWEEN IMMEDIATE AND DELAYED POST-TESTS , ALSO, DECREASES THE VOCABULARY ACHIEVEMENT SIGNIFICANTLY IN BOTH GROUPS AND IT AFFECTS THE CONTROL GROUP MORE THAN THE EXPERIENCED ONE .

KEY WORDS: OPEN CONCEPT SORT STRATEGY, VOCABULARY LEARNING, RECALL, RETENTION

1. Introduction

Vocabulary can be the essential part of any language which is an important element of receptive and productive skills. Thus there is a need to have adequate vocabulary knowledge for interacting in a foreign language learning program. Therefore, Iranian learners may encounter problems in using the four language skills. McCarthy (1990) claims that without words, learning L2 cannot be mastered since the learners need to express theire needs and communicate to achieve those needs. In this case, communication in L2 just cannot occur in any interactive manner.

In fact, many researchers as Hulstijn (1997) believe that vocabulary learning is a vital part of the learners' lives. Gorjian, Moosavinia and Rovies (2011) note that vocabulary can affect the learners' thoughts, beliefs and aims. In many EFL classes in Iran, many teachers have given time to teach vocabulary; however, the results have been disappointing (Rezapour, 2011). Akbari (2008) suggested

that in Iran the method most frequently used in English classes is to consult a bilingual dictionary or the teacher for the meaning of unfamiliar words. Too much dictionary work makes learners bored and reluctant to learn vocabulary and this may affect their comprehension. Moreover, EFL learners often complain about forgetting words quickly and ask about efficient ways for improving long-term retention of words. Therefore, it seems necessary for teachers to make use of some rather innovative strategies for teaching vocabulary. One of the strategies that can be very effective in improving the knowledge of vocabulary and seems to be neglected in the case of Iranian EFL learners is open concept sort (Baleghizadeh & Ashoori, 2010)

There is an urgent need to study this aspect in order to see if vocabulary recall and retention will be influenced by the use of open concept sort strategy in Iranian EFL pre-intermediate learners. In order to learn and memorize vocabulary in L2 learning, learners may design some strategies. Researchers conducted studies on good learners and found the most successful learners are those who actively choose the most appropriate strategy from a range of available options and decide how to pursue the strategy and when to switch to another strategy (Gu & Johnson, 1996). Since a good knowledge of vocabulary plays a great role on the learners' reading comprehension, more attention is needed to be paid to have creative methods in teaching vocabulary in language classes. This study would guide Iranian pre-intermediate EFL learners who are trying to develop their vocabulary knowledge in general and the use of open concept sort strategy in vocabulary recall and retention in particular. Therefore, it would prove the pedagogical value of using open concept sort strategy and lead English teachers to help and guide their students in the choice of the appropriate strategy to improve vocabulary recall and retention (Brown & Perry, 2011).

2. Literature Review

The elaboration of a word is rather difficult and there are several different views concerning what a word really is. Indeed, without vocabulary there is no tool for verbal communication and everybody realizes it. However, people may see vocabulary differently from the words and hence defining the words could make its problems. Singleton (1999), states that even though the word is the vital part of a language, the individual cannot find a simple definition of the word. This may make several scholars work on finding a clear definition for describing a word. Singleton clarifies his view by continuing that what is meant by the term words will depend on the level of abstraction at which a speaker or a writer is operating, the linguistic levels being discussed and even the semantic content of the situation. From an orthographic point of view, word is any sequence of letters bounded together as seen in written language (Carter, 1998). However, Singleton (1999) criticizes this view since it only applies to languages that operate with writing systems similar to Roman or Cyrillic alphabet. For example, Chinese and Japanese have a different writing system and thus, the definition of a word cannot be "a sequence of letters bounded on either side by a blank space" (Singleton, 1999, p. 12). Singleton (1999) argues that phonetic characterizations of the word cannot stand out as distinct units in ordinary flow of speech. However, in phonological terms the characterization is easier since, for example, in certain languages, such as English, vocabularies usually have only one stressed syllable. However, there are also two types of stress, primary stress and secondary stress (Roach, 2000).

In short, there are different perspectives on how to define the words and it is not possible to make an accurate description of the words. Carter (1998) mentions that everyone knows the meaning of the word as a meaningful unit of a language which is in use on its own. This view is adopted in the present study and the different approaches are not discussed in more detail.

2.1. Word Learning through Sorting

Knowing students' developmental spelling stage can help teachers know what to teach and when (Zimmerman, 1997).

Bear and Templeton (1998) state that word sorts allow students to compare and contrast words. Students begin to think about patterns they see and hear in words they are studying. These patterns can then be applied to reading and spelling of unknown words. Invernizzi, Abouzeid and Bloodgood (1997) showed that word study is an effective component of integrated reading and language arts programs. It involves students grouping words into categories of similarity and difference. Word study teachers prepare developmentally appropriate lists of words for students to read and manipulate in an instructional practice known as "sorting" (Bear, Templeton & Johnston, 2008). These sorts are purposely created to highlight contrasts of sound, pattern, and/or meaning and are based on

the orthographic features emphasized in a given stage of development. Invernizzi, Abouzeid, Bloodgood (1997) state, "Students categorize words according to spelling, meaning, and use patterns in order to better understand how spelling represents a word's meaning and grammatical function" (p. 185).

2.2. What is Concept Sort?

At its simplest, concept sorting involves the elements being written on small squares of paper or cards, which are sorted so that those which are most clearly related are placed closest to one another. When lines are drawn to emphasize relationships and descriptions added to indicate their nature, this makes a 'concept map'. More complex procedures for concept sorting range from using special boards to which cards can be pinned ('storyboarding') to attaching magnetic hexagons to whiteboards and to computer programs, such as SemNet™ and HyperMap (2012).

Open sorts, on the other hand, prompt divergent and inductive reasoning (Thornbury, 2011). No category or criterion for grouping is known in advance of sorting. Students must search for meaning and discover relationships among technical terms without the benefit of any structure. The concept of open and closed sorts is manifested in the following examples**:**

The teacher, who utilizes concept sort strategy in teaching vocabulary to his students, may present his students with the following pre-selected words about computer:

-Mouse
-Surf the net
-Keyboard
-Word
-Photo Shop
-Make new folder
-Window
-Speakers
-Drag & paste

If the teacher provides the students with some categories such as the ones listed below and asks them to sort the above-mentioned words under these categories, surely he is using closed sort in his classroom.

Computer Software
Computer Hardware
Activities you do with computer.

If the teacher asks the students to sort them in a way that is meaningful to them, indeed he is making use of open sort in his classroom. Consider the following:

Imagine the following words on index cards: bear, horse, calf, goose, gorilla, bull, lion, camel, hippo. The teacher will ask the students to categorize and then sort the words in each category. Some might categorize: zoo animals and farm animals. Some might identify initial consonants; b, c, g, h, and l. Some might use word length; four, five, and six letters. Some might use syllables; one, two and three. All the students will try to arrange the words into groups find similarities and differences, identify patterns of meaning, sounds, or spellings. Obviously the teacher here is using open concept sort strategy to teach vocabularies to his/her students.

Researchers of previous studies presented some clear views of learning strategies and the features that involve them, such as allowing learners to be more self-directed, explaining the role of teachers and so on. It also could be concluded that concepts such as taxonomies, vocabulary retention, word sorting, incidental and intentional vocabulary learning could really affect vocabulary recall and retention in L2 learning (Marashi & Azarmi, 2012). However, the literature review of this study shows that there are a few studies which had dealt with the effect of open concept sort techniques on vocabulary recall and retention in Iran. The research questions deal with are as follows:

RQ1: Does open concept sort strategy improve pre-intermediate EFL learners' vocabulary recall?
RQ2: Does open concept sort strategy improve pre-intermediate EFL learners' vocabulary retention?
RQ3: Does interval between immediate and delayed post-tests affect the EFL learners' vocabulary achievements?

3. Methodology

3.1. Participants

In this study, there were 90 females and males who studied English as a foreign language in National Iranian Drilling Company (NIDC) Language Training Centre in Ahvaz. They were all NIDC's employees who studied English as part of their in-service training program. Non-random sampling method was used for the selection of these participants. They took part in a proficiency test called TOEFL Vocabulary Test, (Farhady & Moradian, 2011) which was used as a placement test and sixty students whose scores were one standard deviation above and below the mean were selected as the participants of the study. They were randomly divided into two groups, experimental and control. Each group included thirty participants. Open Concept Sort group (20 males and 10 females) received open concept sort vocabulary learning strategy while the traditional group (22 males and 8 females) received the placeboes. The participants were within the age range of 28 to 55.

3.3 Instrumentation

The following instruments were employed in the present study:

1. Proficiency test (homogeneity test): TOEFL Vocabulary Test, (Farhady & Moradian, 2011) was used to determine the homogeneity of participants in terms of language proficiency level and divide the sample population into two groups. This test featured 40 multiple-choice items covering only vocabulary items. The allotted time was 40 minutes. To estimate the reliability of the test, the Kuder-Richardson formula (KR-21) was used and the value of 0.95 was obtained to indicate that the test was satisfactorily reliable.
2. Pre-test: The pre-test was designed based on the classroom materials before the treatment to understand learners' knowledge. There are 50multiple-choice vocabulary items which should be answered in 50 minutes. The reliability of the test was calculated through KR-21 formula as 0.79.
3. Immediate post-test: The immediate post-test assessed the effect of open concept sort on recall. Thus after each session of instruction, the students had done the sorting in the experimental group (No sorting activity was done in the control group). Then they covered the passage given to them to be read there was a 5 minutes rest and right after that there was a ten-multiple-choice question quiz asking the meaning of the new vocabularies learnt in that session. The reliability of immediate posttest was 0.81.
4. Delayed post-test: Three weeks later after the immediate post-test. The only difference of the delayed post- test to the pre-test was that the form of the items which were changed to avoid learners' reminding. The reliability value of the test was calculated through KR-21 formula as 0.91.

3. 4. Materials

The material used in this study, reading passages, were the same for the two groups and had been selected from the following sources:

1. New Interchange 2: Pre-Intermediate (Richards, 2013): It includes 16 units. This book is used as a text book at level 9, level 10, level 11 & 12. There is a reading passage in each unit. Only two passages were chosen from this book.
2. Select Readings, Pre-Intermediate level (Lee & Gundersen, 2011): In this book high-interest, authentic reading passages serve as springboards for reading skills development, vocabulary building, and thought providing discussion and writing. Only one of the reading passages was selected from this book.

3.5. Procedure

To start and achieve the purpose of the study, first 90 male and female EFL learners were selected from Ahvaz NIDC Language Centre. Then, a TOEFL Vocabulary Test, (Farhady & Moradian, 2001) was administered to the participants asses their homogeneity and to select the research sample. The groups include 60 learners selected randomly, experimental and control groups. They have classes for two and a half hours, twice a week.

The second session, the participants took the pre-test on vocabulary items. In each session, the time was allotted to vocabulary teaching and the rest to teaching the reading book. Therefore, the whole research took place in a natural language school classroom circumstance. Every session, they read the words in open concept sort activities and then read them in the texts.

The entire classes took place in 10 sessions. Five reading texts were selected and the vocabularies were extracted from the texts were covered. During the sessions of instruction, the extracted words and their related passages were worked on in 60 minutes. The experimental group received open concept sort strategy instruction and the control group received synonyms and definitions or Farsi translation. Thus, the sessions included: (1) In the first session, open concept sort strategy was introduced and explained to language learners. (2) Before reading the text, the teacher gave the students new words extracted from the reading textbook. The categories of vocabularies were given in the list of the target words. (3) The students were collected in groups of two or three learners and they were guided to sort the words or concepts under opened sort on a specific topic. (4) The students were given the reading passage to read from which the new words had been extracted. (5) Then they were given a quiz asking the meaning of the new words learned in each session. Then, in the end, three weeks after the end of the course, in session ten, the delayed post-test was given to both groups to evaluate the retention of words in a longer period and to see the real effect of the treatment.

3.6. Data Analysis

To achieve the goal, whether open concept sort has any effect on vocabulary learning, the collected data were analyzed using different statistical procedures. Descriptive statistics such as mean and standard deviations were estimated to describe and summarize the data. An Independent Sample *t*-test was used to assess the learners' performance on learning vocabulary items and to find out whether the difference among the mean scores for the two groups, experimental and control group, in the homogeneity test, pre-test, immediate quizzes and delayed post-test, was significant. The Paired Samples *t*-test was used to compare the means of two variables, that is, the compared the mean of test scores before and after the experiment to see if the vocabulary teaching course improved the learners' scores on the delayed post- test.

4. Results

Descriptive and inferential statistics were utilized to analyze the data. In doing so, first the data collected from the two groups in the pre-test were analyzed. Then the data gathered after the treatment was analyzed to find out if open concept sort strategy had any impact on the participants' vocabulary recall and retention. It should be noted that the data were analyzed through SPSS, version 17. The results are shown in the following parts of the study.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics (Experimental vs. Control Groups, Pre-test)

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Control	30	15.3333	6.69191	1.22177
Experimental	30	12.9333	6.52282	1.19090
Total	60			

Table 1 shows that the mean is 15.3333 and the standard deviation is 6.69191 for the control group. In the case of experimental group, the mean and standard deviation are 12.9333 and 6.52282 respectively. As it is noticed, the means and standard deviations of the two groups are approximately similar on the pre-test. The data were put into Independent Samples *t*-test analysis to show any possible difference between the experimental and control groups on the pre-test. Table 2 shows the results.

Table 2. Independent Samples t-Test (Experimental vs. Control Groups, Pre-test)

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	t-test for Equality of Means	
			95% Confidence Interval of the

	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Difference Lower	Difference Upper
Equal variances assumed	.062	.804	1.407	58	.165	2.40	1.70	-1.01	5.81
Equal variances not assumed			1.407	57.9	.165	2.40	1.70	-1.01	5.81

Table 2 shows the result of the Independent Samples *t*-test for the pre-test of the two groups. Since the observed t(1.407) is less than the critical t (2.00) with df=58, the difference between the groups is not significant ($p<0.05$). It can be inferred that both the experimental and the control group performed significantly similar on the pre-test, that is, the participants' knowledge concerning the vocabulary level before treatment was considerably equal.

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics (Experimental vs. Control Groups, Immediate Post-test)

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Control	30	34.0417	8.90808	1.62638
Experimental	30	41.2083	8.15055	1.48808
Total	60			

Table 3 shows that the mean is 34.04 and the standard deviation is 8.90. The mean and standard deviation of the experimental group are 41.20 and 8.15 respectively. As it is noticed, the mean and standard deviation of the two groups are not similar on the immediate post-test. However, to arrive at the significant difference between the two groups, Independent Samples t-test was run. The results are presented in Table 4.

Table 4. Independent Samples t-Test (Experimental vs. Control Groups, Immediate post-test)

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
								95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	.067	.797	-3.251	58	.002	-7.16	2.20	-11.57	-2.75
Equal variances not assumed			-3.251	57.54	.002	-7.16	2.20	-11.58	-2.75

Table 4 shows the result of the Independent Samples *t*-test of the immediate post-test for the two groups. As it can be observed t(3.251) is greater than the critical t (2.000) with df=58. Thus, the

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difference between the groups is significant ($p<0.05$) , so it can be inferred that two groups are not similar on the immediate post-test .

The data were obtained from the performance of the students on the delayed post-test and they were analyzed descriptively in terms of the mean and standard deviation of the two groups in the delayed post-test which are presented in Table 5.

Table 5. Descriptive Statistics (Experimental vs. Control Groups, Delayed Post-test)

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Control	30	24.9000	9.40781	1.71762
Experimental	30	30.6417	11.17372	2.04003
Total	60			

Table 5 shows that in the control group the mean is 24.90 and the standard deviation is 9.40. The mean and standard deviation of experimental group are 30.64 and 11.17 respectively. The difference could be analyzed through Independent Samples t-test as presented in Table 6.

Table 6. Independent Samples t-Test (Experimental vs. Control Groups, Delayed post-test)

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
								95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	1.023	.316	-2.153	58	.035	-5.74	2.66	-11.07	-.403
Equal variances not assumed			-2.153	56.3	.036	-5.74	2.66	-11.08	-.400

Table 6 shows the result of Independent Sample *t*-test of the delayed post-test for the two groups. Since the observed t(5.508) is greater than the critical t (2.00) with df=58, the difference between the groups is significant ($p<0.05$). To reveal significance difference between the control and experimental groups in Immediate and delayed post-tests, Paired Samples *t*-test has been used. The Paired Samples *t*-test was used to compare the means of two the variables. Thus, the means of the both tests concerned with teaching course were compared. Results showed that the participants' scores on the delayed post-test were declined. The results are presented in Table 7.

Table 7. Descriptive Statistics (Experimental vs. Control Groups , Immediate and Delayed Post-test)

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Control-immediate	34.04	30	8.90808	1.62638
	Control-Delayed	24.90	30	9.40781	1.71762
Pair 2	Experimental-immediate	41.20	30	8.15055	1.48808
	Experimental-Delayed	30.64	30	11.17372	2.04003

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Table 7 shows the means and standard deviations for both experimental and control groups concerning immediate and delayed post-test. As it is seen the means of the delayed post-test are lower than the mean of the immediate post-test in both groups.

To accept or reject the third null hypothesis, that is, interval between immediate and delayed post-test does not affect the learners' vocabulary achievement, the data obtained from the performance of the students on the post-tests of both groups were collected and analyzed. The results are presented in Table 8.

Table 8. Paired Samples t-Test (Experimental vs. Control Groups , Immediate and Delayed Post-test)

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Control-immediate Control-Delayed	9.14	9.09	1.65	5.74	12.53	5.508	29	.000
Pair 2	Experimental-immediate Experimental-Delayed	10.5	8.33	1.52	7.45	13.67	6.942	29	.000

Table 8 indicates that the observed t (5.508) is greater than the critical t (2.04) with df=29, thus the difference between the groups is significant in pair1.Since the observed t (6.942) is greater than the critical t (2.04) with df=29, the difference between the groups is significant in pair 2, so the third null hypothesis is rejected. Moreover, the interval affected the control group more than the experimental one; however, both groups showed the significant difference in gaining the vocabulary scores. The experimental group's scores declined less than the control group in the delayed post-test.

5. Discussion

The first research question asks whether open concept sort strategy improves pre-intermediate EFL learners' vocabulary recall. One of the main aims of this study was to find out the effectiveness of open concept sort strategy on the EFL learners' vocabulary recall. To answer this research question, the results obtained from the immediate post-test of the experimental and the control groups were compared. Results showed that the means and standard deviations of the experimental group and control group were not similar on the immediate post-tests to assess the effect of open concept sort strategy on vocabulary recall. In other words, the performance of the participants in both the experimental (open concept sort) and the control groups were different. Moreover, the results of the Independent Samples *t*-test showed that statistically there was a little difference between the experimental and the control groups in terms of vocabulary recall on the pre-test. Findings showed the result of the Independent Samples *t*-test of the immediate post-test for the two groups. As it can be observed, the difference between the groups' immediate post-test is significant ($p<0.05$) , so it can be inferred that the two groups were not similar on the immediate post-test , that is, based on these findings enough support was provided for rejecting the first null hypothesis. Results indicated that applying of the open concept sort strategy did affect the pre-intermediate EFL learners' vocabulary recall in the experimental group. Thus it can be inferred that both the experimental and the control groups performed differently on the immediate post-tests.

The second research question was concerned with if open concept sort strategy improves pre-intermediate EFL learners' vocabulary retention. As it can be seen, in the control group the mean is less than the experimental group respectively , so it can be said that both the experimental and the control groups performed differently on the delayed post-test. Thus, there was a significant difference between the experimental and control groups in terms of vocabulary retention. These findings also

gave the researcher enough support to reject the second null hypothesis that indicated that applying open concept sort strategy does not affect the pre-intermediate EFL learners' vocabulary retention. Meanwhile, the results showed that the delay affected the control group to forget their vocabulary knowledge more than the experienced one.

To answer the third research question, the data obtained from the performance of the students on the immediate and delayed post-tests of both groups were collected, analyzed and compared. Results indicate that the difference between the groups was significant between the immediate and delayed post-tests in both groups. In other words, both groups' means were lower in delayed post-tests than in the immediate post-tests significantly. However, the decline in the delayed post-test was severe in the control group. In other words, the mentioned statistics are enough to reject the third hypothesis, that is, interval between immediate and delayed post-tests affects the EFL learners' vocabulary learning. This agrees with Laufer and Kavloski (2010) who showed that the interval between the immediate and delayed post-tests may result in forgetting and thus decreases the vocabulary achievement.

6. Conclusion

This study tried to investigate the effectiveness of open concept sort strategy on Iranian pre-intermediate EFL learners' vocabulary recall and retention. As it said earlier, vocabulary learning is crucial to second language acquisition. The findings of this study concerning the use of open concept sort strategy in learning vocabulary showed a positive effect on vocabulary recall and retention (Schmitt, 2011). The results of the study indicated the superiority of open concept sort strategy over traditional ways including definition and explanation techniques in terms of improving Iranian EFL learners' vocabulary recall and retention. The findings of the study also revealed that the interval between the immediate and the delayed post-test affects the EFL learners' vocabulary achievement mainly in immediate post-test rather than the delayed post-test. This interval my affect the loss of learning vocabulary since it revealed that this interval could have less affect in case of applying open concept sort strategy. However, it needs further research to study the length of interval and the loss of vocabulary achievement (Maleki, 2010).

Concerning the efficiency of open concept sort strategy in improving Iranian EFL learners, vocabulary recall and retention, it is also found that this strategy was considered effective among the participants in the study. It should be stated as an innovative strategy. Thus, learners need to build a vocabulary background concerning open concept sort strategies in teaching vocabulary before the main course of instructions (Lauritzen, 2010).

It could be concluded that, the findings of present study revealed that applying open concept sort strategy improves Iranian pre-intermediate EFL learners' vocabulary recall and retention and the interval between the immediate and delayed post-tests decreases the EFL learner's vocabulary achievement.

6.1. Implications of the Study for Language Learners and Teachers

According to the findings of this study, it is suggested that EFL learners need to take more responsibility for their learning, rely less on teachers, and adopt cooperative learning .The ultimate goal of language teaching is learners' autonomy (Hiebert & Kamil, 2005). If learners are solely and completely dependent on their teachers, as soon as they are left by themselves, they easily quit learning. Learners' autonomy implies that in the absence of language teachers and classes, language learners continue their learning. Teachers are considerably remiss in teaching this paramount component of language, overlooking the insight that they can give language learners by using language learning strategies in general and cognitive strategies in particular. Moreover, as teachers, they should endeavor to abandon taking the full responsibility of teaching and engage the learners in the process of learning and bring up independent and autonomous language learners. Students should be familiarized with innovative vocabulary teaching strategies such as the one explored in this study, that is, open concept sort strategy by their own teachers. However, before teaching students how to use strategies effectively, teachers should be trained in strategy instruction and assessment.

6.2. Suggestions for Further Research

Indeed, during the course of this study, there are some questions have been risen. The researcher hopes that this study was able enough to answer some of these questions and the rest will be pursued

and investigated by further studies. It is strongly suggested that a research with the same characteristics of this study to be conducted in some language schools an attempt to find the obtained results. Similar studies can be done on other proficiency levels, namely intermediate, upper-intermediate and advanced. Future studies can include open or closed concept sort strategy compared to other innovative teaching strategies such as semantic mapping and key word method. A future study is essential in which the immediate and delayed post-tests are conducted at different time intervals to show the effectiveness of open concept sort strategy in shorter and longer periods. Variables other than the ones used in this study can help the investigation of the same issue. For instance, the same experiment with male or female learners within the same age rage is necessary to confirm the result of this study.

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THE EFFECT OF PRONUNCIATION-FOCUSED LANGUAGE TEACHING ON LISTENING SKILL DEVELOPMENT

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ABSTRACT
THE PRESENT STUDY IS AN INVESTIGATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PRONUNCIATION-FOCUSED LANGUAGE LEARNING AND LISTENING SKILL DEVELOPMENT OF IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS. THE PARTICIPANTS OF THE STUDY WERE SIXTY INTERMEDIATE STUDENTS STUDYING IN A LANGUAGE INSTITUTE AT BORAZJAN, SW OF IRAN. THE PARTICIPANTS WERE SELECTED THROUGH OXFORD PLACEMENT TEST AND DIVIDED INTO TWO CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS. A LISTENING AND PRONUNCIATION PRE-TEST WAS ADMINISTERED TO BOTH GROUPS TO MEASURE THEIR LEVEL OF PRONUNCIATION AND LISTENING COMPREHENSION. THEN, THE MAIN RESEARCHER HELD A PRONUNCIATION CLASS FOR ONE GROUP (EXPERIMENTAL GROUP) FIVE SESSIONS, BASED ON THE COURSEBOOK "*A PRACTICAL COURSE OF ENGLISH PRONUNCIATION*". AT THE LAST SESSION, A PRONUNCIATION AND LISTENING COMPREHENSION POST-TEST SIMILAR TO PRE-TEST WAS ADMINISTERED TO BOTH GROUPS TO DETERMINE THEIR ACHIEVEMENT IN PRONUNCIATION AND LISTENING COMPREHENSION. THE SCORES OBTAINED FROM THE PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST OF LISTENING COMPREHENSION AND PRONUNCIATION OF BOTH GROUPS, WERE ANALYZED THROUGH THE STATISTICAL PACKAGE FOR SOCIAL SCIENCES (SPSS). THE STATISTICAL RESULTS OBTAINED BASED ON PEARSON CORRELATION FORMULA AND T-TEST SHOWED THAT ALTHOUGH EXPERIMENTAL GROUP PERFORMED SIGNIFICANTLY BETTER THAN ITSELF IN THE PRE-TEST, THERE WAS NOT ANY SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE PERFORMANCE OF THE CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUP IN THIS STUDY. THEREFORE, ACCORDING TO THIS RESEARCH, IT CAN BE CLAIMED THAT THERE IS NO SIGNIFICANT RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEARNERS' PRONUNCIATION INSTRUCTION AND THEIR MASTERY IN LISTENING COMPREHENSION.

INDEX TERMS — PRONUNCIATION LEARNING, LISTENING SKILL DEVELOPMENT, EFL, LANGUAGE LEARNING

Introduction

Listening as a chief constituent plays an important role in language learning and teaching. "Listening is the most common communicative activity in daily life: we can expect to listen twice as much as we speak, four times more than we read, and five times more than we write [1]. In spite of its importance as the most common communicative activity in daily life, it has generally been neglected as a skill in the field of English language teaching (ELT).

In terms of second language acquisition (SLA), listening development plays a crucial role; for example, when learners try to comprehend second language speakers (L2) or a variety of L2 multimedia like DVDs and the Internet. Learning to listen involves enhancing comprehension

abilities in understanding the language process. On the other hand, listening to learn, which involves creating new meaning and form linking and repetition of them, contributes to the learners' readiness for paying more attention to the syntax and lexis of the language through listening. It seems significant that teachers, in order to enhance language acquisition, take development of listening into consideration as an important approach.

One of the most important parts of second language acquisition is learning the pronunciation. It might be difficult to pronounce a foreign language like a native speaker but not impossible. At any rate, the better the pronunciation, the better will be the addressees' comprehension and mutual communication.

1. Statement of the problem

Over the last two decades, listening has been a neglected skill in the field of English language teaching (ELT). In many L2 teachers' opinion, the ability of learners to speak, read or write in a second language was enough for the learners to learn the target language – regardless of the true importance that listening has as a source of oral input from which L2 learners can acquire the second language.

Moreover, combining a variety of language skills is another subject which deserves debating in the English language teaching to reinforce learning[2]. On the other hand, the reverse connection, which is the relationship between pronunciation level and listening comprehension, has been an area of interest to very few researchers [3]. Thus, there remains a need to explore the effects of face-to-face English pronunciation training on the listening comprehension of Iranian EFL learners.

2. Significance of the study

Based on the emerging consensus over the integration of skills among scholars, the need to investigate the possible effects of teaching pronunciation on listening comprehension naturally arises. The results of this study may shed light on the extant debate over how to develop listening comprehension of Iranian EFL learners by the help of pronunciation. On the other hand, it basically requires to be checked whether pronunciation training, when applied as part of regular teaching in classrooms, can enhance listening skills.

A. Research Questions

The present research addressed the following questions:

Does pronunciation training improve EFL learners' listening comprehension?

Is there any relationship between pronunciation and listening comprehension?

B. Hypotheses

H01: Pronunciation training does not improve EFL learners' listening comprehension.

H02: There is no relationship between pronunciation and listening comprehension.

C. The Importance of Listening

As the current literature suggests, "listening is growing in importance more and more and calling for more attention" (e.g., Cheung, 2010; Field, 2008; Renandya & Farrell, 2010, as cited in SevilAk, 2012, p.14). Owing to its significance, listening has been the concern of many researchers, as reflected in various book chapters or articles. For example, Hedge (2000) argues that listening plays an important role in everyday life and states that when a person is engaged in communication[7], 9 percent is devoted to writing, 16 percent to reading, 30 percent to speaking, and 45 percent to listening – which illustrates the significant place of listening in everyday communication.

In a study by Graham (2006), the findings indicate that the learners perceive listening as one of the skills that they are least successful at[6]. The participants believe that their failure stems from the problems of perception mostly, especially about speed of delivery of texts.

D. How to Develop Listening?

Various researchers have studied the ways to develop listening comprehension (e.g., Berne, 2004; Hayati&Mohmedi, 2009; Hinkel, 2006; Jia& Fu, 2011; Vandergrift, 2007). According to Nunan and Miller (1995), it is important to develop cognitive strategies (i.e., listening for main idea, listening for details, etc.) as well as integrating listening with other skill areas like speaking, vocabulary and

pronunciation. They also suggested that, listening to authentic materials and using technology would help develop listening skills.
According to Morley (1987), because of the discontent with the principles and practices of pronunciation teaching, many programs started to exclude teaching pronunciation [8]. In 1980s, with communicative approach, there was a clear trend in teaching foreign language, and this trend moved toward teaching pronunciation again (Celce-Murcia, 1996). Since then, pronunciation has been included in language teaching. The perspective of language teaching aspires to communication; and this aim welcomes pronunciation in the teaching process with a goal of intelligible pronunciation and communication.

E. Developing Listening by Teaching Pronunciation

Morley (1991) emphasizes that listening tasks based on speech-pronunciation would foster comprehension of listening by developing learners' discrimination skills. Nunan and Miller (1995) also believe that listening can be developed by pronunciation: In their book, showing new ways of teaching listening, they suggest several pronunciation activities in order to improve listening skills [9].
Investigating the effect of lexical stress on the intelligibility and the listener, Field (2005) concluded that stress plays an important role in the comprehension of the utterance [5]. Norris' 1995 study checked the efficiency of teaching reduced forms in the learners' developing listening comprehension skills and found that the teaching of reduced forms made a difference in the pre- and post-test results of his students. In addition, Brown and Hilferty (1986) trained their students in reduced forms and found that their students developed their listening comprehension at the end of the four-week teaching of reduced forms.

F. Participants

For the purpose of the research, sixty intermediate students studying in a language institute at Borazjan, SW of Iran, were selected randomly from among the intermediate learners of that institute. To ensure homogeneity of the learners, an Oxford Placement Test (OPT) was administered prior to the study and the participants were homogenized based on their scores. The students were assigned to two groups, experimental and control. The result of the OPT test indicated no significant difference between the two groups prior to the study.

3. Procedure

Before the start of the instructional phase of the study (training), a pre-test was applied to all students and the treatment started the week after. The aim of constructing the pronunciation and listening pre-test was measuring the level of pronunciation and listening knowledge of the learners.
Listening test included 30 multiple-choice items, for the completion of which 30 minutes was allocated. A part of IELTS recorded listening was played for all sixty learners and they were asked to answer the questions based on the listening.
The pronunciation level of the learners was checked based on a computer-assisted pronunciation training system called MySpeech. The interface of the MySpeech system is web-based and it enables users to practice pronunciation by listening to the speech spoken by native speakers and tuning their speech production to correct any mispronunciations detected by the system. The MySpeech system uses an automatic speech recognition method (ASR) for detecting pronunciation errors.
The treatment lasted for two weeks. The main researcher completely worked on the phonetics and correct pronunciation of the words based on the coursebook "A Practical course of English Pronunciation". After the two-week treatment, the post-test, which was similar to the pre-test both in content and in form, was administered to all students.

4. Data Analysis

Afterwards, since listening comprehension and pronunciation pre-test and post-test were administered to measure the participants' initial and final levels of listening comprehension and pronunciation knowledge, Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was utilized to quantitatively describe and explore the probable effect of pronunciation training on developing listening skill.
In order to answer the first research question, an independent-samples t-test was run at the beginning of the study in order to find out if the two groups differed significantly with respect to their listening

performance. As the results below show, there was not any significant difference between the two groups at the beginning of the study.

TABLE I
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS IN PRE-TEST

Group Statistics					
Protrain		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
prelistwoGs	with pronunciation training	30	23.83	2.276	.415
	no pronunciation training	30	24.50	2.113	.386

As table 1 shows, P-value is above the .05; accordingly, there was no significant difference between the two groups (i.e. control vs. experimental) at the beginning of the study.

TABLE II
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS IN POST-TEST

Group Statistics					
Protrain		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
poslistwoGs	with pronunciation training	30	24.37	2.157	.394
	no pronunciation training	30	24.47	2.161	.395

Table 2 presents the results for the first null hypothesis. It can be concluded that there is not any significant difference between the mean of the experimental and control groups in the post-test; thus, improving pronunciation did not affect EFL learners' listening comprehension.

As the above table shows, there was no significant difference between the performances of the two groups at the end of the study. P-value: 0.85, which was greater than the 0.05.

TABLE III
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST RESULTS

Independent Samples Test										
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
poslistwoGs	Equal variances assumed	.005	.942	-.179	58	.858	-.100	.558	-1.216	1.016

	Equal variances not assumed			-.179	58.000	.858	-.100	.558	-1.216	1.016

TABLE IV
PAIRED SAMPLES T TEST OF CONTROL GROUP

Paired Samples Test									
		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Precont-Postcont	.033	.615	.112	-.196	.263	.297	29	.769

P-value is greater than 0.05 (i.e. .76). In other words, there was no significant difference in the performance of the control group at the beginning and end of the study with regard to their listening performance.

TABLE V
PAIRED SAMPLES STATISTICS OF EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

Paired Samples Statistics					
	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	
Pair 1	Preexp	23.83	30	2.276	.415
	Postexp	24.37	30	2.157	.394

This table demonstrates that the experimental group performed significantly better than itself in the pre-test condition. As a matter of fact, experimental group was exposed to treatment (five sessions of ninety minutes pronunciation instruction) by the researcher.

TABLE VI
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS (MEAN & SD) FOR PRONUNCIATION AND LISTENING SCORES FOR ALL PARTICIPANTS

Descriptive Statistics			
	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Listening	24.17	2.203	60
Pronunciation	15.75	1.174	60

TABLE VII
CORRELATION BETWEEN PRONUNCIATION AND LISTENING SCORES FOR ALL PARTICIPANTS

Correlations			
		Listening	Pronunciation
istening	Pearson Correlation	1	.030

	Sig. (2-tailed)		.823
	N	60	60
Pronunciation	Pearson Correlation	.030	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.823	
	N	60	60

According to tables 6 and 7, results of Pearson Correlation showed that there was NOT a significant difference between the listening and pronunciation scores of a group of 60 learners prior to the study. So, it can be concluded that there is not any statistically significant relationship between pronunciation training and listening skill development.

A comparison of the control and experimental groups in the pronunciation and listening post-test through the independent samples *t-test* showed that there was no significant difference between the performances of the two groups at the end of the study as the significance level (0.85) is greater than the p-value. (significance level 0.85 > 0.05 p-value).

In fact, the participants receiving treatment were not more successful in pronunciation and listening comprehension than those who did not receive treatment. Therefore, the performance of learners of the two groups was the same (see Table 3). (The mean score of the experimental group in post-test is 24.37 and the control group is 24.47). It can also be concluded that the pronunciation instruction cannot help learners to improve their listening comprehension. In other words, in this study, improving pronunciation did not affect EFL learners' listening comprehension. So, the first null hypothesis was retained.

A further comparison of the control and experimental groups in the pronunciation and listening pre-test through the independent samples t-test also demonstrates that the significance level (0.24) is greater than the p-value (0.24 > 0.05); therefore, there is no difference between the two groups before and after the treatment.

The significance level in the pronunciation and listening post-test of the two groups through the independent samples t-test is 0.85 which is greater than the 0.05 (p-value). Therefore, the mean score of the participants who received pronunciation instruction is the same as those who did not receive pronunciation instruction. In other words, no difference can be seen between the performances of the two groups at the end of the study. So, the second null hypothesis, too, is retained.

5. Conclusion

The findings of this study showed that pronunciation instruction had no impact on Iranian EFL learners' listening comprehension. Therefore, according to this research, it can be claimed that pronunciation development is not correlated with listening comprehension development. The results implied that pronunciation training could not influence improvement in listening skill.

This pedagogical study concerned the design, implementation and evaluation of a pronunciation testing and listening comprehension project carried out in a language institute in Borazjan, SW of Iran. Emerging from the information obtained, some pedagogical assumptions can be made. The first attempt of the present study was to help understand the complex processes underlying listening comprehension. Second, the convergence of pronunciation teaching with some affective and environmental factors, listening materials, should be given high priority if L2 learners are meant to improve their pronunciation and overcome the most recurrent difficulties they repeatedly encounter in comprehending oral discourse.

Thirdly, based on the information emerging from this small project, it appears that pronunciation has no relationship with listening skill development, although it can be claimed that pronunciation training has at least a partial effect on the learners' development of listening skill.

6. Future research directions

More research in this area should be done with larger populations and in other contexts to be able to corroborate these findings. With the heightened interest in pronunciation now evident among pedagogical professionals, applied linguists need to undertake programmatic research that will extend knowledge of pronunciation learning.

Future research needs to address not only how to integrate pronunciation effectively in EFL classes, but also how to incorporate the activities that specifically target the development of fluent, intelligible pronunciation.

Moreover, a five-session treatment is not enough for a language skill to develop. Therefore, for future research studies, the period can be extended and the training can be applied for a longer period.

In addition, the present study was conducted with only intermediate level participants, for further studies a wider scope of samples can be employed and different proficiency levels might be examined. Similarly, the sample size can also be expanded: There were 60 participants in the present study; in order to reach more generalizable findings, a larger sample size can be assigned.

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MJLTM

THE EFFECT OF CODE SWITCHING ON THE ACQUISITION OF OBJECT RELATIVE CLAUSES BY IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS

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ABSTRACT
THIS STUDY ATTEMPTED TO INVESTIGATE THE IMPACT OF TEACHER'S CODE-SWITCHING ON THE ACQUISITION OF A PROBLEMATIC GRAMMATICAL STRUCTURE, NAMELY, OBJECT RELATIVE CLAUSES, BY INTERMEDIATE EFL LEARNERS. MOREOVER, A SECONDARY OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY WAS TO DETERMINE THE EFL LEARNERS' ATTITUDES AND OPINIONS REGARDING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF TEACHER'S CODE-SWITCHING IN THEIR LEARNING OF A SPECIFIC ASPECT OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR, OBJECT RELATIVE CLAUSES. TO MEET THIS END, 54 EFL LEARNERS FROM THE JAMEALANGSUAGE INSTITUTE IN TABRIZ WERE SELECTED AND TOOK PART IN GRAMMAR AND ATTITUDES PRE-TESTS AND UNDERWENT THE NECESSARY INSTRUCTIONS. WHEREAS IN THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP, EXPLICIT GRAMMAR INSTRUCTION WAS USED ALONG WITH THE TEACHER'S CODE-SWITCHING, IN THE CONTROL GROUP, EXPLICIT GRAMMAR INSTRUCTION WAS GIVEN ONLY IN ENGLISH WHICH WAS THE MEDIUM OF INSTRUCTION.FINALLY QUESTIONNAIRE AND POST-TESTS WERE ADMINISTERED. TWO ANCOVAS WERE RUN ON THE COLLECTED DATA NOT ONLY TO COMPARE THE PERFORMANCE OF BOTH EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS AFTER THE TREATMENT PERIOD, BUT ALSO TO SHOW WHETHER POST-TEST DIFFERENCES WERE DUE TO THE EFFECT OF TREATMENT – CODE-SWITCHING – OR THEIR DIFFERENCES IN PRE-TESTS. THE RESULTS OF THE ANCOVAS REVEALED THAT TEACHER'S CODE-SWITCHING WAS POSITIVELY EFFECTIVE BOTH ON LEARNING PROBLEMATIC GRAMMATICAL STRUCTURE (I.E., OBJECT RELATIVE CLAUSES) AND LEARNERS' ATTITUDES TOWARD THE TEACHER'S CODE-SWITCHING. THE RESULTS OF THE PRESENT STUDY COULD HELP LANGUAGE TEACHERS, TEACHER TRAINERS, AND POLICY MAKERS TO PROVIDE A BETTER CONTEXT FOR FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING AND IMPROVING DIFFERENT LANGUAGE SKILLS.

KEY WORDS: CODE-SWITCHING, GRAMMATICAL STRUCTURE, OBJECT RELATIVE CLAUSES

1.Introduction

Code-switching, the interchanging use of two distinctive languages, is placed in the field of bilingualism and is viewed as a shared characteristic of those who speak two or more languages. Code-switching is often studied from two different viewpoints: linguistic and social, and it is therefore defined variously. Investigating the issue of code-switching in bilingual and social settings, many scholars put their concentration mostly on its types and its functions (e.g., Gumperz, 1982; Poplack, 1980). Their researches set a good background for later scholars in other contexts, especially education (e.g., Canagarajah, 1995; Macaro, 2001). In the classroom context, this issue has made more and more educational researchers interested in their exploration into the various kinds of code-switching, its function, its impact on the speakers who utilize it, and the reasons for code-switching. Code-switching happens prevalently in language classrooms across the world where teachers are

teaching a foreign language (FL) or a second language (SL). The Iranian FL teaching context is no exception.
In the Iranian EFL teaching setting, code-switching, the alternation between learners' first language, in other words, Farsi and learners' target language (i.e., English), is a common factor in schools, universities, and language institutes. It is obvious that code-switching is utilized by teachers of English while speaking with other teachers of English and, especially, in their classroom instruction. It is clear from the researcher's own experience and observation of other EFL teachers' teaching practice that Iranian EFL teachers often code-switch. In other words, they use both Farsi and English, in different stages in their EFL classroom. Nevertheless, little information is known about the phenomenon in the Iranian EFL teaching context. Thus, a clear understanding of how code-switching happens, when it takes place, and for what reasons it happens For this reasons, the researchers hop to find out the effect of code switching on the acquisition of object relative clauses which helps writers, , students ,teachers professors use and understand language more effectively.

There have been several studies of code-switching practices conducted by teachers in classroom instruction across the world, especially in Asian teaching and learning context, where English is mainly instructed as a foreign language. Those studies are usually performed by using survey questionnaires (e.g., Lee, 2010), classroom observations and/or interviews (e.g., Greggio& Gil, 2007). In Iran, there have been studies related to EFL educational issues, for example, issues related to teacher development (Eftekhari, 2001), and understanding of the communicative approach to language teaching (Moradkhani, 2012). Nevertheless, up to now, there are some studies in the Iranian educational context have investigated the issue of teachers' code-switching practice in their English classroom teaching, even though this practice commonly takes place. One study (Farjami and DavatgariAsl, 2013) explored teachers' beliefs and performances to the degree that it provided general information about teachers' use of their first language (i.e., Farsi) in their English classrooms by interviewing a confined number of teachers.
On the other hand, grammar instruction has been one of the most controversial aspects of L2 acquisition. Whether EFL teachers' code-switching can facilitate the complicated process of grammar learning for EFL learners and whether EFL learners' attitude and opinions towards teachers' code-switching in grammar instruction are positive or negative are examined in this study.

1.2 Research Questions and Hypotheses
In line with the above-mentioned purpose of the study, the researchers attempted to answer the following research questions which were motivated by the research gap on the effectiveness of code-switching on grammar instruction.

1. Does teacher's code-switching have a significant impact on the acquisition of object relative clauses by intermediate EFL learners?
2. Does teacher's code-switching have a significant impact on the attitudes of intermediate EFL learners toward teacher's code-switching?

The following null and alternative hypotheses were derived from the research questions which are empirically analyzed and tested later in the study:

1. Teacher's code-switching has no significant impact on the acquisition of object relative clauses by intermediate EFL learners.
2. Teacher's code-switching has no significant impact on the attitudes of intermediate EFL learners toward teacher's code-switching.

2.Review of Related Literature
Code-switching is deemed to be a widespread phenomenon in foreign language contexts and bilingual communities. In simple terms, code-switching is regarded as language alteration. Gumperz (1982, p. 59) defined code-switching as the "juxtaposition within the same speech exchange of passages of speech belonging to two grammatical systems or subsystems".
According to Heller (1988),code-switching is when a person mixes two languages in a single sentence or a conversation. Valdes-Fallis claims that people can mix words, phrases and clauses. When one person switches between two languages, the person is bilingual. According to Baker (2006), a bilingual person can use two different languages, but one of these is often the dominant one. She suggests that some bilinguals are active in both languages whereas other bilinguals are passive, and their skills in one or both languages are less developed.Baker (2006) also suggests that there are many

dimensions of bilingualism. One of the dimensions is called Elective bilingualism, which means that a person can choose to learn a new language, such as Swedish students learning English in the classroom. The type of conversation that we call code-switching today was previously known as a bilingual's way to choose when s/he wanted to use a certain language. S/he could use one language on a certain occasion and another language on another occasion.

Crystal (1987) suggests that code or language switching occurs when an individual who is bilingual alternates between two languages during his/her speech with another bilingual person. A person who is bilingual may be said to be one who is able to communicate, to varying extents, in a second language. This includes those who make irregular use of a second language, are able to use a second language but have not for some time (dormant bilingualism) or those who have considerable skill in a second language (Crystal, 1987). This type of alteration, or code switching, between languages occurs commonly amongst bilinguals and may take a number of different forms, including alteration of sentences, phrases from both languages succeeding each other and switching in a long narrative.

A number of researchers (Lai, 1996; Cole, 1998) have argued that code switching can be a useful tool in assisting English language teaching and learning process. Others like Skiba (1997) see an opportunity for language development because code switching allows the effective transfer of information from the senders to the receivers. Tien and Liu (2006) contended that low proficiency students considered code-switching in their EFL classes as helpful towards gaining better comprehension especially when providing equivalent comprehension as well as giving classroom procedures.

Ellis (1994), Cook (2001), Richards & Rodgers (2001) and Widdowson (2003) who have been researching second language teaching and learning claim that, although exposure to the target language can ensure success, the exposure may not work in every classroom. It has been argued that English Only classroom would only lead to frustration since the input is incomprehensible to the learners.

Braga (2002), conducted a study on humor in a beginner EFL classroom. In the study he indicated that participants' use of code-switching was used as a strategy which signals humorous situations through correcting activities. Rolin-Ianziti and Brownlie (2002) conducted a study on 5 French classes and 4 teachers. They adapted quantity and qualitative analyses, and came to the conclusion that code-switching included three functions:

1) Transition
2) Meta-linguistic uses
3) Communicative uses

Storch and Wiggleworth (2003) conducted a study to examine the use of L1 in writing assignments and problem-solving among adult L2 language learners. Furthermore, the results identifies the following uses of mother tongue in the classroom: classroom management, language analysis and presenting rules that govern grammar, giving instructions or prompts, explaining errors, and checking comprehension.

listening activities, while speaking causes to facilitate the linguistic development of learners.

Lin (2013) suggested that both teachers and students code-switched to a larger extent in informal situations whereas the target language dominated in formal ones. Later studies show that code-switching is used to create close relationships between students and their teachers (Lin 2013; Jingxia 2010) and that students find classroom interaction more natural and easy when code-switching is allowed (Cook 2001, p. 413). This comfortable atmosphere that code-switching can contribute to is important in the teacher-student relationship since it gives them an opportunity to communicate in a more informal way where the risk of misunderstandings due to L2 shortcomings can be avoided (Simon 2001). In formal situations code-switching can be used to make the teaching more effective. When a teacher explains what is said in the curriculum or another academic text it can be useful to translate or explain some concepts further in the students' L1 (Lin, 2013, p. 202; Jingxia 2010, p. 21). Code switching also leads to more efficient teaching for the simple reason that the students understand faster and more thoroughly.

A number of studies of CS in L2 classrooms have been undertaken which have generally identified the pedagogical functions of classroom talk and which broadly belong to a form–function or discourse analysis (DA) tradition. Ferguson (2003, p. 39) provides an overview of some recent, significant studies of classroom CS using the following three categories:

1) *CS for curriculum access* (e.g. to help pupils understand the subject matter of their lessons).

Those studies (Lin, 1996; Martin, 1999) which examine the bilingual negotiation of the meaning of classroom texts belong to this category. The common point these studies illustrate is "the significant role of CS in providing access to English medium text and in scaffolding knowledge construction for pupils with limited English language resources" (Ferguson, 2003). As an example, Martin (1999) analyses an extract from a grade 4 geography class in Brunei in an English-medium school which illustrates how the teacher switches from English to Malay in order to "encourage and elicit pupil participation", "clarify the meaning of certain sections of text" – a process that Martin (1999, p. 53) refers to as "unpacking the meaning" – and "demarcate reading the text from commentary on it".

2) *CS for classroom management discourse* (e.g. to motivate, discipline and praise pupils and to signal a change of footing). The studies which fall into this category (e.g. Canagarajah 1999; Lin 1996) specifically analyze CS which "often contextualize a shift of frame (Goffman, 1974) away from lesson content and towards some 'off-lesson' concern – to discipline a pupil, to attend to latecomers, to gain and focus pupils' attention" (Ferguson 2003). CS may also, as Ferguson states, "demarcate talk about the lesson content from what we may refer to as the management of pupil learning; that is, negotiating task instructions, inviting pupil contributions, disciplining pupils, specifying a particular addressee, and so on". Under the same heading of classroom management, Ferguson (2003) highlights "the use of CS as an "attention-focusing device" (Merritt, 1999); that is, the code contrast functions to redirect pupils' attention – very often at the opening of a new topic".

3) *CS for interpersonal relations* (e.g. to humanise the affective climate of the classroom and to negotiate different identities).

The studies that concentrate on this function of CS (Adendorff, 1993; Merritt, 1999) investigated the social and affective classroom environment where teachers and learners negotiate relationships and identities. Ferguson (2003, p. 43) clarifies this function as follows:

In many classrooms, English indexes a more distanced, formal teacher– pupil relationship and the local language . . . a closer, warmer more personal one. To build rapport with individual pupils, create greater personal warmth and encourage greater pupil involvement, the teacher may, therefore, when the occasion is suitable, switch to the local language.

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Within the debate about allowing the use of the L1 in FL classrooms, Liebscher and Dailey-Ocain (2005) analyzed code-switching patterns between English and German as constitutive of bilingual language practice. They focused on student patterns of code-switching in one content-based German language classroom, in which applied linguistics is the subject matter of the course. Following the interactional model of code-switching suggested by Auer (1998), Liebscher and Dailey-Ocain (2005) showed that while some of these learners' code-switches are participant related, they also use code-switching in discourse-related functions previously identified only in teacher talk and in non-institutional conversation among bilinguals. They found that participant-related uses largely address the roles of students and teacher in the classroom and the teaching context, whereas discourse-related uses clearly resemble bilingual practices outside the classroom environment.

.Method

.1Participants

In total 54 participants at intermediate proficiency level were selected out of 82 students after taking the reading and writing sections of a Preliminary English Test (PET).

(see Appendix A). The criterion for selection of the participants was obtaining a score within the range of one standard deviation below and above the mean. They were all EFL learners at Jamea Language Institute in Tabriz. All the participants were at the intermediate level.

There were two independent groups and the number of participants in each group was the same (i.e., there were 27 participants in each group). All the participants had Iranian nationality and were considered to be typical learners of English as a foreign language. The ages of the participants ranged from 14 to 23 and their average age was measured to be 18. Since the study was conducted at Jamea Language Institute, in Tabriz, there were only female participants within the two selected intact groups of the study. The proficiency level of the learners was specified at the outset of the study. All the participants were at the intermediate level and those who were beyond or below the intermediate level were excluded from the study. In other words, the outliers whose proficiency levels were markedly higher or lower than the whole group were eliminated from the study.

2.3 Instruments

Different kinds of materials and instruments were used in this study. Indeed, the materials used in the study can be categorized as follows:

- Testing materials
  - PET as a proficiency test
  - Pre-test and post-test
- Teaching materials:
  - Explicit grammar instruction (+code-switching)
  - Explicit grammar instruction (- code-switching)
- Questionnaire:
  - An 18-item questionnaire used for surveying EFL learners'

2.3.1 Proficiency test

Owing to some executive problems, it was impossible to use the complete version of PET. Hence, it was modified to include the following sections:

The reading and writing parts of a *Preliminary English Test (PET)* was used in the present study to check the proficiency of the participants and to homogenize the participants within the intact groups. The participants were given one and a half hour to complete both reading and writing parts. The objective of this test was to make sure that the groups are homogeneous and thus comparable

2.3.2 Teaching Materials

The teaching material included in the study was related to teaching a problematic grammar structure, namely object relative clauses. The examples of this structure were drawn from different grammar books based on the experience of the researchers and other teachers who themselves taught grammars, reaserchers decided about the type of grammar points and reasearcher taught them in both groups. The teaching material included explicit grammar instruction.

Not unlike the selection of the sample participants, the choice of the linguistic target for the study was based on a meticulous procedure. Inasmuch as the first research question of the study was concerned with the effectiveness of instruction on acquiring a problematic structure of English language, it was essential for the researcher to select a complex structure as the target of the instructions. The target structure in the present study was object relative clauses. The researcher did not select the target structure subjectively. The selection of the target structure as mentioned previously was based on consulting of researchers with other teachers and professors .

2.3.3 Pre-test and Post-test

Based on the design of the study, a pre-test (see Appendix B)and a post-test (see Appendix C)were included in the study. The tests were esigned to evaluate the participants' knowledge of the selected target structure of the study both before and after the treatments. In other words, the pre-test was intended to check the awareness of students of f the target structure at the outset of the study and the post-test was designed to examine the achievement of the participants at the end of the study in the two groups. A test with 30 items was designed by the researchers based on the materials to be taught in the class. All the items included in the test were multipl:hoice format. The reliability of the test scores was calculated by Kudar-Richardson 21 formula. KR-21 reliability index for the test scores was 0.79. Since the correlation coefficient (r)is more than standard level (the standard level is 0.7)pretest and post test have acceptable reliability.

2.3.4 The Questionnaire

As mentioned at first, a secondary purpose of the study was to survey the sample EFL learners' attitudes and opinions toward teacher's code-switching while teaching problematic grammar structures. Hence, the best instrument required for surveying participants' attitudes and opinions was a questionnaire. An 18-item questionnaire(see Appendix D) was designed by the researchers in Farsi (the official language in the context of the study). The justification for designing the questionnaire in Farsi was that it was easier for the participants to understand and answer the items in Farsi than in English . The questionnaire was developed by the researchers themselves and its content validity validated by three experienced teachers of English in different language institutes in Tabriz that is, they checked the questions clarity and suitability . Cronbach's alpha was used as the reliability coefficient to check the degree of reliability of the items which returned an internal consistency index

of 0.82, Since the correlation coefficient (r)is more than standard level (the standard level is 0.7) questions have acceptable reliability.

3.4 Procedure

The present study was conducted at Jamea Language Institute in Tabriz. It was considered to be both a quasi-experimental study and a survey study on the efficacy of code-switching in teaching grammar to intermediate EFL learners.

The study was carried out based on a predetermined sequence and procedure. At the outset of the study, the researcher introduced the purpose of the study to the participants and asked them to cooperate with her. The students who did not have the motivation to cooperate and participate in the project were eliminated from the study. Then, the researcher gave the reading and writing parts of a PET to the participants to homogenize them. The proficiency test papers were scored and according to the test results, the participants' were labeled intermediate learners of EFL. Those participants who were too weak or too strong (outliers) (i.e., those students whose scores were not between one standard deviation below and above the mean) were eliminated from the study. The test of homogeneity was given during the first session of the study. There were two intact classes to which the homogeneity test was given. The selected participants were randomly assigned into two groups of control and experimental.

In the next session, the researchers gave the pre-test to both groups. The pre-test papers were scored so that they can later be compared with that of the post-test.

Having given the pre-test, the researcher gave the respective treatments within each independent group as it was mentioned above. The treatment period lasted for 10 sessions and each session was lasted for one hour and 15 minutes. Two sessions per week was held during which a different type of teaching treatment was given to each independent group with regard to teacher's code-switching:

- Explicit teaching of object relative clauses with teacher's code-switching
- Explicit teaching of object relative clauses without teacher's code-switching

The feature distinguishing the teaching treatments given to the two groups was related to code-switching. In the experimental group, explicit grammar instruction was used along with the teacher's code-switching. It means that when the teacher felt that a participant or a group of them encountered a problem in understanding the material under the study, switched to Farsi in order to make the issue clearer for the participants. However, in the control group, explicit grammar instruction was given only in English which was the medium of instruction.

The third phase of the study was conducted after giving the treatment. In other words, the session following the last treatment session, the post-test was given to both the experimental and control groups. It included the same multiple-choice questions on the target structure which were given in the pre-test. The results of the post-test were intended to be compared with those of the pre-test to find whether the students have improved their knowledge of the selected grammatical structure (object relative clause). Then, the questionnaire measuring participants' attitudes and opinions toward teacher's code-switching was distributed for the experimental group ..

3.5 Design of the Study

The present study was deemed to be a quasi-experimental study into the efficacy of code-switching on enhancing the acquisition of a problematic grammatical structure by EFL learners. Also, this study surveyed and examined EFL learners' attitudes and preferences on teachers' code-switching inthe experimentalclassroom teaching. Therefore, the following independent and dependent variables were examined in the present study:

- Independent variable:
  - Code-switching used as a technique in grammar instruction;
- Dependent variable:
  - The acquisition of object relative clauses as a problematic grammar structure;
  - The attitudes of the learners toward the code-switching of the teacher.

4. Data Analysis and Results

3.3 Data Analysis

As stated above, the main concern of the present study was to investigate the effect of switching the code from L2 (English) to Farsi on learners' acquisition of a complex syntactic structure of English, namely object relative clauses as well as their attitudes toward the teachers' code-switching. Therefore, an ANCOVA was employed to analyze the elicited data so that a reasonable answer could

be given to the posed research questions. This part provides the results of the related analyses and discusses their interpretations.

Results

4..1The Results of the English Language Proficiency Test

As it was stated above, the reading and writing sections of a Preliminary English Test (PET) was used to homogenize the participants of the study. To select the participants, all initial 82 students took part in PET, and students whose scores were between one standard deviation below and above the mean were selected. Table 4.1 shows the descriptive statistics of the participants' PET scores.

Table4.1Descriptive Statistics of the Participants' Preliminary English Test Scores

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
PET	82	25	60	44.71	9.467
Valid N (listwise)	82				

As table 4.1hows, overall mean and standard deviation of the initial participants' PET scores were 44.71 and 9.467, respectively. Therefore, from among 82 students, 54 students whose scores Were between 36 and 54 were chosen as the participants of this study.

4.2Descriptive Statistics for the Control Group

Table 4.2reflects the descriptive statistics for the participants' object relative clause (ORC) test in the control group.

Table4.2The Results of the Participants' Pre-Test and Post-Test Scores in the Group without Code-switching

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
ORC Pre-Test in Control Group	27	9	30	17.15	6.131
ORC Post-Test in Control Group	27	10	30	21.30	6.132

As it is evident in Table 4.2, the participants' ORC pre-test mean score in control group was 17.15 with the standard deviation of 6.131, and their ORC post-test mean score group was 21.30 with the standard deviation of 6.132.

4.3Descriptive Statistics for the Experimental Group

Table 4.3Presents the descriptive statistics for the participants' ORC test and attitudes toward code-switching scores in the experimental group.

Table4.3The Results of the Participants' Pre-Test and Post-Test Scores in the Group with Code-switching

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
ORC Pre-Test in Experimental Group	27	7	30	17.41	7.132
ORC Post-Test in Experimental Group	27	15	30	23.81	4.820
Attitude Post-Test in Experimental Group	27	75	90	83.15	4.936

As Table4.3 indicates, it has been found that participants' mean score in ORC pre-test in the experimental group was 17.41 with the standard deviation of 7.132, and their mean score in ORC post-test was 23.81 with the standard deviation of 4.820. In the attitude questionnaire, themean score was 83.15 with the standard deviation of 4.936.

4.4The Results Regarding the First Research Hypothesis

The first research hypothesis of the study aimed to investigate the effect of teacher's code-switching on the acquisition of a problematic grammatical structure of object relative clauses by intermediate EFL learners.

In order to make sure about the normal distribution of the scores in both of the control and experimental groups, the researcher ran a One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test on four sets of scores. Table4.4 presents the results of this test.

Table4.4 Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test Normality Check of ORC Pre-test and Post-test Scores in Control and Experimental Groups

		ORC Pre-Test in CG	ORC Pre-Test in EG	ORC Post-Test in CG	ORC Post-Test in EG
N		27	27	27	27
Normal Parameters[a,b]	Mean	17.15	17.41	21.30	23.81
	Std. Deviation	6.131	7.132	6.132	4.820
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.130	.109	.115	.118
	Positive	.130	.109	.102	.100
	Negative	-.092	-.082	-.115	-.118
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		.675	.567	.597	.614
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.753	.904	.869	.845

a. Test distribution is Normal.

b. Calculated from data.

As it is indicated in Table4.4, P-value for each set of scores is higher than 0.05; therefore, all sets of scores have normal distributions, and the parametric test of ANCOVA can be used.
In order to investigate the first research hypothesis and eliminate the effect of pre-test on interpreting the participants' performance on the post-test, the researcher ran an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) in the SPSS software version 17.
One of the assumptions of the ANCOVA is the equality of the variances between groups. The equality of the variances between two groups was checked by Levene's test. Table4.5 shows the results of Levene's test of equality of error variances.

Table4.5Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances in ORC Tests

F	df1	df2	Sig.
7.657	1	52	.098

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + ORC Pre-Test + Groups

From the above table it is clear that the underlying assumption of homogeneity of variance for the one-way ANCOVA has been met – as evidenced by $F(1, 52) = 7.657$, $p = 0.098$. That is, p (0.098) > 0.05.
As the relationship between the dependent variable (i.e., ORC post-test) and the covariate (i.e., ORC pre-test) should be similar for two groups, the homogeneity of regression lines was checked at the first stage the results of which are presented in Table 3.6.

Table4.6.Homogeneity of Regression for ORC Post-test in Two Groups

Dependent Variable: ORC Post-Test

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	1550.887[a]	3	516.962	221.974	.000
Intercept	493.599	1	493.599	211.942	.000
Groups	90.808	1	90.808	38.991	.000
ORC Pre-Test	1463.651	1	1463.651	628.464	.000
Groups * ORC Pre-Test	48.911	1	48.911	21.002	.322
Error	116.447	50	2.329		
Total	29140.000	54			
Corrected Total	1667.333	53			

a. R Squared = .930 (Adjusted R Squared = .926)

As it is shown in Table 4.6, the P-value is equal to 0.322 which is higher than 0.05, so the interaction between the independent variable – teacher's code-switching with two levels of switching and not switching – and covariate (i.e., ORC pre-test) is not significant, and the assumption of the homogeneity of regression is accepted. Therefore, the ANCOVA could be performed.

With regard to the first null hypothesis of the study, that is, *teacher's code-switching has no significant impact on the acquisition of a problematic grammatical structure (object relative clauses) by intermediate EFL learners*, an ANCOVA was conducted. The results of this analysis are shown in Table4.7.

Table4.7.Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) for ORC Scores

Dependent Variable: ORC Post-Test

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	1501.975[a]	2	750.988	231.621	.000	.901
Intercept	545.764	1	545.764	168.325	.000	.767
ORC Pre-Test	1416.346	1	1416.346	436.832	.000	.895
Groups	72.325	1	72.325	22.307	.000	.304
Error	165.358	51	3.242			
Total	29140.000	54				
Corrected Total	1667.333	53				

a. R Squared = .901 (Adjusted R Squared = .897)

As it is shown in Table4.7, the first line highlighted indicates that participants' ORC pre-test is significantly and positively related to the ORC post-test ($P< 0.05$) with the magnitude of 0.895. The next line is the indicator of the main effect of the teacher's code-switching on the dependent variable – ORC post-test. After adjusting for pre-test scores, there was a significant effect of the group, $F(1,51)= 22.307$, $p < 0.05$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.304$. As P-value is less than 0.05, the difference between two groups is significant, and the positive effect of teacher's code switching on the acquisition of a problematic grammatical structure (object relative clauses) by participants is confirmed. Therefore, the first null hypothesis was rejected.

4.5The Results Regarding the Second Research Hypothesis

The aim of the second hypothesis of the study was exploring the impact of teacher's code-switching on the attitudes of intermediate EFL learners toward teacher's code-switching.

As Concerning the second null hypothesis of the study, that is, *teacher's code-switching has no significant impact on the attitudes of intermediate EFL learners toward teacher's code-switching,*One sample Test was run. The results of this analysis are presented in Table4.8

Table4.8 On Sample Test

One-Sample Test						
	Test Value = 3					
	t	**df**	**Sig. (2-tailed)**	**Mean Difference**	**95% Confidence Interval of the Difference**	
					Lower	**Upper**
attitude	5.539	21	.000	.41515	.2593	.5710

Table (4.9) Descriptive Statistics Analysis of Questionnaire

	N	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**	**Std. Error Mean**
attitude	27	3.4152	.35152	.07495

The table4.8Testifies to the statistical significance of the treatment effect on the group attitude 95% confidence, t= 5.53; df =21. However, in analyzing the questionnaire, having examined the t value and significance, one should look at the mean. If it is less than or equal to 3, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected, implying that a given treatment was not effective.If it is greater than 3, the null hypothesis is rejected. As Table 4.9shows, the mean is greater than 3.4, allowing the researcher to reject the second null hypothesis.

5.Discussion

The purpose of this study was to find out whether switching the code from L2 to L1 has any significant effect on learners' acquisition of a complex syntactic structure of English, namely object relative clauses as well as their attitudes toward the teachers' code-switching. The findings of the study indicated that teacher's code-switching was effective both on learning object relative clauses by the participants and making their attitudes more positive toward the teacher's code-switching.

The findings justify the role of code-switching in increasing learners' psychological state in their English classes. It may be due to the anxiety-free atmosphere in the classroom which inspires them to take part more actively in the classroom activities. Thus, it can be concluded that learning success requires successful provision of comprehensible input to make certain that learners understand the intended content, including new concepts, skills and vocabulary and grammar which, as a result, would lead the students to successful accomplishment of the language tasks (Chi, 2000; Schweers, 1999; Tang, 2002).

In short, teachers' code-switching is influential in providing a psychologically encouraging learning environment for the learners (Lai, 1996), providing a strong base to learners' affective gratification. Exposure to code-switching gives learners the opportunity to get a head start towards effective and prosperous learning and to gradually become users of the target language (Chi, 2000; Cole, 1998; Schweers, 1999).

In summary, the participants' success in the experimental group reflects their ability to use object relative clauses effectively as a result of understanding of input generated by the teacher. An English classroom without code-switching, thus, cannot always ensure comprehensible input. Therefore, code-switching by the teacher should be taken into account as a form of teaching strategy (Cook, 2001; Sert, 2005; Skiba, 1997).

The findings of the present study were consistent with the results of Makulloluwa (2013) who revealed that the majority of the students demonstrated a favorable disposition towards the use of L1 since they believed it facilitates language acquisition by making the input more comprehensible and also by lowering the affective filter. The results were also in line with Johansson's (2013) findings. She indicated that in grammar instruction classes a majority of the students preferred a combination of English and Swedish.

6.Conclusion

Teachers' code-switching in the language classroom is a usual practice in most language teaching contexts world-wide as can be observed in different studies (e.g., Canagarajah, 1995; Eftekhari, 2001; Macaro, 2014; Merritt, Cleghorn, Abagi, &Bunyi, 1992; Raschka, Sercombe, & Huang, 2009; Then & Ting, 2011). This practice is mostly common when the teacher is competent in learners' first language or has a common first language with the learners. Previous research has indicated that teachers' code-switching takes place in different forms, from adding a single word of a language into an utterance in another language to alternately repeating utterances in various languages. In studies of classroom context, code-switching was seen in almost all classroom situations, for instance, managing the classroom, checking understanding, providing explanation, and socializing with students. It has several functions, both instructional and social, and is driven by different factors such as classroom requirements, learners' language ability, and learners' motivation (Eftekhari, 2001; Then & Ting, 2011; McLellan, 2009). Nevertheless, over-translation of instruction into Farsi should not be encouraged except for some cases, e.g. stressing instruction or explaining complicated concepts, or rules or information. The reason is that teachers' repetition through translation may lead to learners' strict reliance on their teachers' use of Farsi, and this does not aid to expose learners to as much English as possible. Learners are not likely to feel that they are in an English classroom environment if there is always translation into Farsi. Furthermore, teachers' over-translation into Farsi may result in learner boredom, and demonization of them to learn English. Therefore, English-only use can be encouraged for teachers when they deal with classroom routines. This is since the teachers' instructions on classroom routines are used customarily and repeatedly by the teachers and are thus very familiar to learners.

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THE ROLE OF PODCAST RECONSTRUCTION IN INTERMEDIATE EFL LEARNERS' ORAL PERFORMANCE: THE CASE OF GENDER

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ABSTRACT
THE PURPOSE OF THIS STUDY WAS TO EXPLORE THE ROLE OF PODCAST SOFTWARE IN DEVELOPING EFL LEARNER'S ORAL PERFORMANCE AMONG MALE AND FEMALE LEARNERS AT THE INTERMEDIATE LEVEL. THE RESEARCH SAMPLE INCLUDED 86 MALE AND FEMALE LEARNERS MAJORING IN ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE (EFL) IN ABADAN UNIVERSITY. THEN THEY WERE DIVIDED INTO TWO EQUAL GROUPS OF MALE AND FEMALE AND EACH GROUP INCLUDED 43 PARTICIPANTS. BOTH GROUPS RECEIVED PODCAST RECONSTRUCTION AND AFTER LISTENING TO THE AUTHENTIC PODCASTS, THEY RETELL AND REPORT THE PODCAST MATERIALS IN TWO TO THREE MINUTES. DURING 12 SESSIONS OF TREATMENT, THE PASSAGES WERE TAUGHT THROUGH LISTENING TO THE PODCASTS AND WORKING ON THE CONTENTS OF EACH PODCAST. THE PODCASTS WERE TAUGHT TO CLARIFY THE MAIN IDEA AND THE CONTENT IN TERMS OF SYNONYMS, DEFINITIONS, AND EVEN TRANSLATION. AFTER THE TREATMENT SESSIONS, THE PARTICIPANTS TOOK THE POST-TEST OF THE SPEAKING WHICH WAS AT THE SAME LEVEL OF THE PORE-TEST. DATA WERE ANALYZED THROUGH INDEPENDENT AND PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST AND THE FINDINGS SHOWED NO SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE GROUPS. THE MALE GROUP OUTPERFORMED THE FEMALES IN THE POST-TEST; HOWEVER, THE DIFFERENCE COULD NOT REJECT THE NULL HYPOTHESIS. PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST SHOWED THAT THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE PRE AND POST-TEST AMONG THE MALES WAS SIGNIFICANT BUT AMONG THE FEMALES IT DID NOT REACH THE SIGNIFICANT LEVEL. IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY FOR TEACHING READING COMPREHENSION SUGGEST THAT USING PODCASTS COULD BE MORE EFFECTIVE ON THE MALES RATHER THAN THE FEMALES IN LEARNING SPEAKING SKILL AT THE INTERMEDIATE LEVEL.

KEY WORDS: PODCAST, SPEAKING SKILL, GENDER, EFL LEARNERS

1. Introduction

Using podcasts in teaching speaking skills could be a branch of CALL approach which is used as a method in language teaching and learning. Thus computer is used as an aid to presentation, reinforcement, and assessment of materials to be learned, consists a substantial interactive elements (Graham, 1997, 2012). Levy (1997) also argued that CALL's definition is the research for and study of application of the computer in language teaching and learning. Podcast programs could download and use them through computer for language learning and teaching as offline program.

CALL as a Web-based language learning tool has played the role of supplementary resources for teaching English as a second language (ESL) in using the Web site in teaching English to a group of students in an ESL context. Three types of WBLL activities are pre-created Web activities for grammar, vocabulary, reading and listening, task-based Web activities that require students to use the Web to produce certain outcomes, and teacher-made Web activities which these WBLL sessions

are provided by Web site for ESL teachers. Online podcast programs are kind of these web activities. This study was downloaded the selected contents of podcasts since there was not Internet facilities at the university or it was very slow.

The growth of technology and increase of significant of English learning in business, science and media has made learners learn English through CALL, Moodle, and the Internet. The life of people, nowadays, is affected by their powerful personal computers and net connection (Mishan, 2005). According to Gulek and Demirtas (2005), they prefer to rely on writing e-mails, chatting on yahoo, sending online cards, reading online news, at all using computers and the Internet for their connections. According to the Office of Information Technology of the University of Minnesota in the United States (2006), these days, there is a shift from e-learning to mobile learning and there is a tendency towards the use of podcasting as a time-shifting technology. Podcasting refers to the distribution of audio/video files in digital format. These resources can be manually downloaded from the Internet or distributed automatically to subscribers. These files can be accessed directly from the desktop or transferred to a portable media device such as an MP3 player to be listened to 'on the go (Son, 2008).

1.1. Oral Performance

Oral performance in both native and second or foreign language learning involves acquiring proficiency. Essberger (2000) proposes that speaking is not occurring without opportunity of talk with the interlocutors the same as other skills, and then teachers should prepare an area for learners to speak. Brown and Yule (1983) argue that, "In the production of speech, […] each speaker needs to speak. He needs to speak individually and he needs someone to listen to his speaking and to respond to him" (p. 25).

Hymes' (1972) theory of communication competence is evidence of the relationship between speaking and listening comprehension. While as communicative competence stresses on grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, rules for both cohesion and coherence, and strategies competence. Canale and Swain (1980) separate grammatical from sociolinguistic competence which includes sociocultural rules and discourse rules. Furthermore, they distinguished discourse competence (i.e., coherence and cohesion) from sociolinguistic competence (Bachman, 1995). Learning to speak like the other skills needs more practice and has its own cognitive and metacognitive activities which involves discussion, speeches, role plays, conversations, audiotaped oral dialogue journals and other accuracy- based activities such as retelling and reconstruction (Celce-Murcia, 2001). The present study stressed on significance of improving abilities of speaking by listening to the podcasts and reconstruction activity.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

Iranian EFL learners face difficulties in listening comprehension and oral performance (Dolati & Seliman, 2011). In language classroom, reading and writing skills are given the prime focus where speaking skill is practiced very little but listening skill is neglected to some extent. In classroom, teachers talk time (TTT) is much higher than students talk time (STT) and classroom is conducted by student's mother tongue (L1). Therefore, students speaking skill is not given prime focus. This limitation creates a lot of problems for their future education. The teachers could help learners by giving them opportunity to be in this kind of position. The podcast programs are online learning programs which are so realistic. They could be down loaded and used offline in the areas in which the Internet is absent or slow. The EFL learners would be placed on real native situations by listening to these podcasts. The purpose of the present study is based on improving listening comprehension and oral performance through reconstructing of podcast programs. The main questions to be investigated in this study are:

RQ1. Does podcast reconstruction affect Iranian intermediate male learners' oral performance?

RQ2. Does podcast reconstruction affect Iranian intermediate female learners' oral performance?

RQ3. Does podcast reconstruction make any difference in developing Iranian intermediate male and female learners' oral performance?

2. Review of Literature

Harmer (2001) believes that for speaking fluently, interlocutors should correctly pronounce phonemics, use appropriate stress and intonation in the different range of genre and situations, range of conversational and conversational repair strategies. According to Fang (2008), listening and

speaking are complementary. Listening comprehension is prior to production in speaking a language. In everyday life, listening is the most frequently used language while Morley (1991) argued, we listen twice as much as we speak, four times as much as we read, and five times as much as we write. According to Richards (2006), a learner can control relatively narrow range of vocabulary at his or her own utterance during expression of an idea in speaking, but when listening to the response he or she no longer deals with the choice of vocabulary.

Podcast programs are online learning English programs with realistic dialogues and lectures that would be placed learners on real situation. Constantine (2007) believes that for finding new materials in teaching listening, podcasts are so advantage instead of repetition and bad habits of listening materials repeatedly. Podcasts provide new voices and relevant contents. She argued that a teacher must also be committed to teaching good listening techniques such as listening for details. At the end of the day students must be able to do something with what they have heard. As students respond positively to listening tasks, they will be motivated to learn more. The goal of every teacher should be to help students gain confidence in hearing and understanding what is spoken in their new language.

According to Nunan (2003), speaking is challenge and inherence of skills in foreign language learning. Hedge (1993) argued that the fluency has two meaning "The ability to link units of speech together with facility and without strain or inappropriate slowness or undue hesitation….and ...natural language use" (p. 275). Gilbert (1995) believes that accomplished of listening comprehension depends on correct pronunciation. The hearer is important if he/she could not hear well and understand easily will lost conversation with target speaker. Then, listening content is so important in all aspects of language learning, especially speaking skill. Cameron (2001) argues, "Speaking is the active use of language to express meanings so that other people can make sense of them" (p. 40).

Salkhord, Gorjian and Pazhakh (2012) investigated the effects of digital stories on reading comprehension through Internet- based instruction for Iranian EFL young learners. Placement test based on the course book "Family and Friends 3" as a proficiency exam was given to 90 students of Pooyandegan institute in Abadan, whose score were one standard deviation above and one standard deviation below the mean were chosen as the participants of the study. After reliability coefficient (KR-21) which was (0.76), 60 participants, 14 boys and 48 girls, mean age = 12.7 years, were divided randomly into three groups conventional, paper-based, and internet-based instruction to be taught reading through digital stories. The other students with the same background took pilot- test of synchronous CALL version of the digital stories for investigating investigate the suitability of the level of the stories and to examine how much time it would take the participants to complete the task. Its reliability was 0.75. The next test was given to participants before the instructions period was consisted of 10 digital stories for estimate reading comprehension skills. The reliability of this pre-test was 0.78. Finally, an immediate post-test was given to participants of three groups to determine the effects of treatment period and the result of the two other instructions that contained 10 digital stories. The reliability coefficients of this test calculated through KR-21 formula was 0.77. Two weeks later after period of treatment and immediate post- test, delayed post- test was given for testing the effect of three different instructions in a longer period to see the real effect of the treatment. Its reliability coefficient was 0.75. Results showed that digital stories through Internet-based instruction improve reading comprehension.

3. Methodology

3.1. Participants

The present research was constructed at Islamic Azad University of Abadan. The population of the study included 120 second year learners who were second year students majoring in Teaching EFL. 86 who passed the intermediate level of speaking test developed by The Cambridge English Unlimited Placement Test (Oral Test, 2010) were participated in the experiment. They scored one standard deviation above and below the mean were selected as the participants of the study. Then they were divided into two equal groups of male and female and each group included 43 participants.

3.2. Instrumentation

In the present study, five tools were utilized to estimate participants' speaking proficiency.

1. Pre-test: The pre-test of speaking was developed by The Cambridge English Unlimited Placement Test (Oral Test, 2010). There test included several questions and the participants answered the

questions. The participants' voice was recorded for two or three minutes for the ease of scoring. This test was a face to face interview. Two raters scored the interviews and the total mark was 20 in the pre-test. The reliability coefficient of the test in this research was calculated by Pearson Correlation formula as (r=.874).

2. Post-test: The Cambridge English Unlimited Placement Test (Oral Test, 2010) was given to students to estimate their level of speaking proficiency after the treatment sessions. The oral test included several questions and answers based on the intermediate level of the test. Two raters scored the interviews in the post-test. The reliability coefficient of the post- test was calculated by Pearson Correlation formula as (r=.702).

3. The Check list was used to score the participants' oral proficiency developed by Hughes (2003) for rating performance of the participants both pre- and post- tests. This checklist comprises six items of fluency and accuracy. The fluency consists of three items to estimate participants' ability of coherence, communication and speed and each of them includes 5 sub-items (15 items), whiles accuracy includes three items to rate participants' ability of vocabulary, structure and pronunciation again each of them includes 5 sub- items (15 items), at all 30 items utilized for estimating fluency and accuracy in details. Fluency items include:

Coherence which is the relationships which link the meanings of utterances in a discourse or of the sentences in a text, the quality of being meaningful, and the logical relationships of parts making up the whole. Communication which is the estimating the activity of conveying information among exchanging ideas, feelings, intentions, attitudes, expectations, perceptions or commands, as by speech, gestures, writings, behavior and possibly by other means such as electromagnetic, chemical or physical phenomena. Communication is the negotiation and the meaningful exchange of information between two interlocutors, or more.

Speed which estimates the speed of used words and number of words during talking. Native speakers can speak fluently without paying any attention to proficient. Native-level fluency is estimated to be between 20.000 - 40.000 words, but basic conversational fluency might only require as little as 3.000 words. According to Hughes (2002), how much interlocutor hesitates, spend time to find appropriate words during speech. Accuracy items include:

Structure which deals with the variety of grammatical structure and estimate errors in speech. Pronunciation which deals with estimate the way a language or a word is spoken, or the way in which someone utters a word. Correct pronunciation refers to special dialect, cultural exposure of their childhood; utters of Pitch, intonation, stress of word and sentence or sentences with cooperation of native pronounce. According to Hughes (2003), pronunciation refers to speak with few phonemic, traces and really intelligible by the people who talk the foreign language.

3.3. Materials

The main materials were worked on the reconstruction podcasts. The technology revolution among CALL, Moodle and Web- based give positive facilities to teachers and learners for learning and teaching EFL /ESL, in these days. Podcasts are new technology for broadcasting audio programs on the Internet (Selingo, 2006). Podcasting was originally for conveying information and entertainment. But soon educators saw that it has the huge potential for teaching and learning (Adams, 2006; Warlick, 2005). Many writers believe that podcasting can offer language education, especially developing learners' listening and speaking skills (Pun, 2006; Stanley, 2006). The podcast were found on the Internets from the websites such as http://www.podcastalley.com/, http://epnweb.org/, http://recapltd.uk/podcasting/ and http://zappenglish.com, http://iteslj.org/links/ESL/Listening/Podcasts/, etc (Man- Man, 2006).

The materials of the study were downloaded from podcasts' online programs, *www.podcastsinenglish.com*, to be used offline. Therefore, podcasts were utilized as offline for instructing materials in the class. 12 contents of podcasts were downloaded from this site and were copied on CDs according non-randomly at the intermediate level. On the other hand, the topics for example "Job and Work", "Social values", etc.

3.4. Procedure

The whole research project took place in 12 sessions. First session of the present study started with The Cambridge English Unlimited Placement Test (Oral Test, 2010) which was given to 120 male and female students of Islamic Azad University of Abadan. 86 students who passed the scores one

standard deviation below and above the mean were selected as research participants. Then, The Cambridge English Unlimited Placement Test (Oral Test, 2010) was used to interview students for estimating their level of speaking proficiency at the beginning of the treatment. The participants were at the same level of speaking proficiency and homogenous and then were divided into two groups through non-random convenience sampling method. 43 participants were in the male group and 43 ones were in the female group. The aim of this oral (interview) test was to discover the scores of the speaking proficiency of the participants at the beginning of the treatment. The voice of the participants was recorded to be scored by two raters. Then the inter-rater reliability of the pre-test was estimated.

During the treatment, the participants of both classes were requested to listen to offline selected podcast and to reconstruct what they were hearing one by one, they talk about the contents of the podcasts and discuss the related issues. Both group listened to the topics of podcast and reconstructed the content. In this way, the instructor was asking some questions from students and let participants become familiar with the content before listening to it. The instructor asked them to listen twice to each podcast. After listening, participants reconstructed or retold what he or she was hearing about 2 or 3minutes and the other participants were listened or participated in the retelling activities.

Selected podcast programs were downloaded from *www.podcastsinenglish.com* website which they were corresponded to appropriate participants' level for the experimental group. These podcasts were taught and added to routine conventional course, 60 minutes during 12 sessions of instruction. These podcast programs included 18 podcasts containing so interesting subjects. The podcasts were taught in the class with reconstruction strategy of listening and then speaking procedures. Podcasts are programs that could be daily listened to with different realistic topics. The learners were requested to listen to these podcasts everywhere and try to retell or reconstruct what they were hearing alone and made efforts to record their reconstruction by themselves. Through these podcasts, learners explicitly learn culture, intonation, pitch, stress, and other functions of target language. Then learners unconsciously use all of them in their speech (Stanely, 2006).

Finally, a post-test was given to both groups. It included two- or three- minutes' interview on The Cambridge English Unlimited Placement Test (Oral Test, 2010) like the pre-test. It estimated speaking fluency and accuracy of the participants answers to the questions. Data were recorded and scored by two raters. The inter-rater reliability showed that the scoring consistency. Then the scores were analyzed through SPSS version 17. The descriptive and inferential statistics such as Paired and Independent Samples t-test were done to find any differences between the males and females groups.

3. 5. Data Analysis

The collected data on both oral pre- and post- tests were calculated through Pearson Correlation analysis for measuring the inter-rater reliability of scoring. The scores of the pre- and post- tests were also calculated through the Paired and Independent Samples t- test to analyze the data. The results showed the differences between the groups and indicated the effect of the podcast reconstruction on EFL students' proficiency, fluency and accuracy of their speech.

4. Results

The goal of this study was the investigation of the role podcasts in podcast developing the intermediate learners' speaking accuracy and fluency. After the analysis of pre-test scores, the results are shown in Table 1.

Table 1.Descriptive Statistics (*pre-test, Males vs. Females*)

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Males	43	11.5581	5.30634	.80921
Females	43	12.5349	4.92491	.75104

Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics of the participants' performance in the pre-test. The mean score of the male group is 11.5581 and the mean score of the female group is 12.5349. In order to see if there is any significant difference between the two groups in the pre-test and whether they have been

homogeneous before the treatment or not, an Independent Samples t-test was administered. Table 2 shows the results.

Table 2. Independent Samples t-test (Pre-test)

	t-test for Equality of Means						
						95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	-.885	84	.379	-.976	1.10	-3.17	1.21
Equal variances not assumed	-.885	83.5	.379	-.976	1.103	-3.17	1.21

Table 2 shows the observed t (.885) is less than the critical t (2.06) with df=1.99. Thus, the difference between the groups is not significant. Thus, the two groups are homogeneous (p<.05).

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics (post-test, Males vs. Females)

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Males	43	16.0930	5.91130	.90147
Females	43	13.1395	4.66793	.71185

Table 3 indicates the descriptive statistics of the participants' speaking performance in the post-test. The mean score of the males group is 16.0930 and the mean score of the female group is 13.1395. To find out if there is any significant difference between the two groups in the post-test, an Independent Samples t-test was administered. Table 4 shows the results.

	t-test for Equality of Means						
						95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	2.571	84	.012	2.95	1.14	.66	5.23
Equal variances not assumed	2.571	79.7	.012	2.95	1.14	.66	5.23

Table 4 shows the observed t (2.571) is greater than the critical t (1.99) with df=84. It means that the difference between the two groups is significant (p<.05). Paired Samples t-test was calculated to measure the difference between the pre and post-test of each group. Results are presented in Table 5.

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean

MJLTM

Pair 1	Pre-test Males	11.5581	43	5.30634	.80921
	Post-test Males	16.0930	43	5.91130	.90147
Pair 2	Pre-test Females	12.5349	43	4.92491	.75104
	Post-test Females	13.1395	43	4.66793	.71185

Table 5 shows the descriptive statistics of pre and post-tests on for each group. According to this table, the mean score of the male group in the post-test is 16.0930 while this amount for the pre-test of the same group is 11.5581. This table also shows that the mean score of the female group in the post-test is 13.1395whereas this amount for the pre-test of the same group is 12.5349. In order to discover if there are any significant differences between the pre and post-tests of each group, a Paired Samples t-test was administered. Table 6 indicates the results.

Table 6. Paired Samples t-Test (Pre vs. post-tests)

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Pre-test Male – Post-test Male	-4.53	7.31	1.115	-6.785	-2.284	-4.066	42	.000
Pair 2	Pre-test female – Post-test Female	-.604	5.93	.905	-2.431	1.222	-.668	42	.508

Table 6 indicates that the observed t (4.066) is greater than the critical t (2.02) with df=42, the difference between the groups is significant in pair 1. Since the observed t (.668) is less than the critical t (2.02) with df=42, the difference between the groups is not significant in pair 2.

5. Discussion

The results will be discussed in this section are involved in the following research questions.

RQ1. Does podcast reconstruction affect Iranian intermediate male learners' oral performance?

As it was mentioned before, according to data analysis, the experimental group who worked on the podcast reconstruction instruction has outperformed the control group. It affected both males and females in the post-test; however, the males outperformed the females and got higher scores which made the means of their speaking post-test significant. in the experimental group rather than the control one. The females also progressed in the speaking post-test but the results of Independent and Paired Samples t-test showed no significance in comparing their pre and post-tests.

The ability of accuracy and fluency were reinforced in the males' post-test. This indicates that they were able to use the podcasts more easily than the females. The subjects and topics used in the treatment sessions were about family, entertainment, movies, jobs, and people daily conversations which are general and popular among young learners. Therefore, both groups were familiar with these issues. However, the males could construct theses podcasts more effectively than the females. The other reason may be due to the lack of motivation among the females in using the variety of subjects and issues which are popular in the modern countries. These interests could be the varieties of entertainments an out of school activities which are mainly for males than females in our country. This fact may affect the males' thoughts and makes the familiar with foreign culture and society to have a better future. These abilities may not be seen among females to some extent. Thus it may affect males 'reconstructing of the podcasts at the intermediate level in speaking post-test. This matched with Gorjian's (2008) idea who argued that the other skills like reading and writing improved through online chatting and the use of computer soft wares among males rather than females. The other comment that is evidence of this study belongs to Son's (2008) comment in which argued that for developing vocabulary, reading and listening comprehension, podcasts are more effective than Moodle system. In sum, the statistical analysis showed that the males could gain higher scores in the

speaking post-test of the podcast reconstruction after the treatment sessions and outperformed the other group. Therefore, the first research null hypothesis was rejected at ($p< 0.05$).

RQ2. Does podcast reconstruction affect Iranian intermediate female learners' oral performance?

Based on the results of the speaking post-test among females, the Independent Samples t-test showed there was a significant difference between the post-tests of males and females regarding the reconstruction podcasts. The paired Samples t-test showed the same case since the pre and posttest of the females showed no significant difference; however, they received 12 session s of treatment. Although the female got better scores in the post-test but it is not so high to reject the second null hypothesis. In other words, the second null hypothesis was confirmed at ($p<0.05$). Thus the female group showed that the application the podcast reconstruction could not helped them much since what they were hearing might be of less help in approving their speaking proficiency. By comparing the both pre and post-test scores of female group instructions, it can be inferred that the difference may be due to the enormous listening relevant and authentic podcasts and reconstruction. The subjects of the podcasts were authentic but they may be due to the females' interests. If we provided the females with their own topics of interests, the results might be changed. Although both groups enjoyed having the same podcast reconstruction, the females might have some specific interests which were ignored by the researchers in the present study.

The instruction of podcast reconstruction affected more positive improvement on fluency and accuracy of the females on the post-test since they tried to get better marks but the difference was not so big to reject the null hypothesis at ($p<0.05$). This agrees with Perrotta and Atkinson (2016) who argued that listening on these podcasts improve confident and fluency of learners and if participants work forward on this way they past faster their level than ever thought in which prove direct evidence of improving fluency in speaking. By compering female speaking post-tests with the pre-test, the results revealed that their pre-test scores were higher than the post-test ones. It also showed that the background knowledge of female groups may reinforce more by the podcast reconstruction. The lower scores of the female group may be due to the teacher-centeredness of the instruction or low motivation of participants that may make the students bored.

RQ3**.** Does podcast reconstruction make any difference in developing Iranian intermediate male and female learners' oral performance?

The reasons behind this result could be discussed in terms of the effectiveness of the podcast reconstruction in developing learners' speaking proficiency. The results also are supported by Mohammad (2010) who believed that Internet- based English instruction has positive effect on the teaching grammar. This also agrees with Hall, Wicaksono, Liu, Qian and Xiaoqing's (2013) study which provides direct evidence of this study that prior knowledge can significantly improve students' activation strategies, therefore, clarifies and expends prior knowledge may be important. They added by effectively selecting and implementing instructional strategies to build and active background knowledge, teachers can better support all students on their way toward learning speaking and succeeding throughout the curriculum.

Males and females use different strategies during listening to the podcasts and then speaking reconstruction. Lack of time for working on the podcasts exercises among females should not be ignored due to the above mentioned reason. This could affect the improvement of speaking accuracy and fluency in this study. This agree with Nunan (2001) who proposed that for helping speaking, enormous listening helps speakers to improve their performance as a speaker and being hearer in initial helps the learner recognize and understand the difficulties existing in the task. Participants with their own background knowledge of grammatical competence, more authentic and relevant podcast and pleasure in which resulting from reconstruct what they were hearing may make them to produce and process language. The results of the post-test showed that the podcast reconstruction may have positive effect on the speaking. The present study is compatible with the study conducted by Barth (1990) who found that interactive multimedia computer lessons resulted in an 80 percent retention rate. The results of the present study are matched with Rezapour, Gorjian and Pazhakh's (2012) findings that podcasts have positive effect on improvement English language skills.

The findings of the present study are in line with Tom and Katie (2013) who found the positive effect of podcasts on speaking fluently and confident learners. This is supported by Zamari, Adnan, Idris and Yusof (2011) who proved the evidence of improvement learning materials through using online language. Braun (2007) also supported these results that authentic and relevant podcasts have a positive effect on librarian speaking skill and their motivation. Rini (2012) also believed that

unconscious listening improves speaking skills of learners. Therefore, based on the results of descriptive statistics and the answer to the above research question, the third null hypothesis was rejected. Thus, there was significant evidence that the podcast reconstruction affect pre-intermediate EFL learners' speaking fluency and accuracy.

6. Conclusion

The present study began with the assumption that applying the podcast reconstruction could enhance the intermediate EFL learners' speaking proficiency. The male and the female groups were taught through the same materials, time and procedures. The participants of both received reconstruction of offline podcasts. The instructor explored to see if the application of enormous listening of offline podcasts and reconstruction what they were hearing have any effect on the Iranian intermediate EFL learners' speaking proficiency and to investigate the effect of them, separately, on the ability of participants' speaking sill at the end of the treatment sessions.

Having administered the pre-, post- tests and analyzing the data through specific statistical analysis of descriptive statistics, Independent Samples t- test and Paired Samples t-Test, the results indicated that the instruction of using the reconstruction podcasts did positive effect on the both groups of males and females; however, the males could meet the significant level of difference and females could not reach the significant difference between their pre and post-tests. Based on the present study results, the following conclusions may be made for both male and female students at the intermediate level:

1. Web-based language learning generally and the reconstruction podcasts particularly may influence EFL learners' speaking proficiency.
2. Involvement in language materials through a synchronous approach is an influential factor for EFL learners.
3. Podcasts reconstructing instruction do have more significant impact on the learners' speaking proficiency (both fluency and accuracy) than conventional instruction.
4. Listening out of the classroom or at class can improve prior knowledge of paralinguistic elements (implicitly master on stress, rhythm and intonation patterns).
5. Task- based language teaching can affect listening comprehension and speaking proficiency but its effect is less than the reconstruction podcasts instructions.

Many language teachers in EFL contexts treat the speaking process in a conventional way of memorizing, role-play and giving the definition of new vocabulary, ignoring the product and process of speaking proficiency among males and females (Rezapour, Gorjian & Pazhakh, 2012). In language classrooms, it is suggested that language teachers also familiarize their language learners with privileges of using the podcast instruction to improve their listening comprehension skills and speaking proficiency (both accurately and fluently). Language teachers can motivate the students to use asynchronous or synchronous way of speaking by enormous listening to and reconstruct what they were hearing.

Researchers are highly counseled to consider them before carrying out any research. The future researchers may focus on the sociolinguistic and/or psycholinguistic issues of using podcast reconstruction in Iranian EFL classrooms. The other language skills including listening, reading and writing could be studied in future. The size, level of proficiency, age and the gender of the participants could be changed for better and more reliable results. There are different websites containing effective podcast resources. Regarding learners' proficiency, other websites can be used instead of the " *www.podcastsinenglish.com* " website used in this study.

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IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS' ENGLISH PRONUNCIATION PROBLEMS AND THE USEFUL SUGGESTIONS TO TEACH THEM

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ABSTRACT
INTELLIGIBLE ENGLISH PRONUNCIATION IS AN ESSENTIAL COMPONENT OF COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE, BUT MANY IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS HAVE FAILED TO LEARN THIS SKILL APPROPRIATELY. IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS HAVE SERIOUS PROBLEMS IN PRONOUNCING ENGLISH WORDS. IN THIS STUDY, THE RESEARCHER EXAMINED IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS' PRONUNCIATION PROBLEMS AT THE ISLAMIC AZAD UNIVERSITY OF LAHIJAN, IRAN. IN THIS PAPER, PROBLEMS IN TWO PRINCIPAL AREAS (VOWELS AND CONSONANTS) OF ENGLISH PRONUNCIATION AMONG IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS WERE IDENTIFIED AND SOME USEFUL SUGGESTIONS TO TEACH THEM GIVEN.

KEYWORDS: PRONUNCIATION PROBLEMS, VOWELS, CONSONANTS, SUGGESTIONS

1. Introduction

English is the most important language throughout the world and the means of teaching and communication in significant fields like technology, research, trade, and medicine. As a result, individuals and groups try to learn English for various reasons and objectives. Due to easy access to journey, globalization of business and industry and the wish for non-native speakers to communicate with native speakers of English, English learners should pay attention to their ability to communicate in the second or foreign language (Butler-Pascoe & Wiburg, 2003).

The phonology of a target language involves the theory and knowledge about how the sound system of the target language works. Due to the fact that sounds have a significant role in communication, EFL teachers should devote much of their time to teaching pronunciation in their classes (Gordani & Khajavi, 2012). Pronunciation is an important part of learning oral skills in a second/foreign language and the amount of time and effort devoted to it depends on the teachers (Hismanoglu & Hismanoglu, 2010; Gordani & Khajavi, 2012). Teachers should know the sound system of the language that their learners speak so that they can predict difficulties and understand the sources of their errors (Celce-Murcia, 1991; Gordani & Khajavi, 2012).

Fraser (2000a as cited in Hashemian & Heidari Soureshjani, 2012) stated that a lot of EFL learners have serious problems with English pronunciation after years of learn¬ing English language. According to Hinofotis and Baily (1981 as cited in Hashemian & Heidari Soureshjani, 2012), pronunciation severely impairs the communication process in EFL/ESL learners not vocabulary or grammar. According to Fraser (2006 as cited in Pourasghar & Abdolmanafi-Rokni, 2015), pronunciation is of vital importance to the foreign language learning because it increases understandability.

Pronunciation is very important because it is part of successful communication process and plays a significant role in language learning. Morley (1991) stated that understandable pronunciation is one of the fundamental purposes of pronunciation instruction not perfect pronunciation. It is a necessary part of communicative competence. Perfect pronunciation should not be the basic goal for language learners. Realistic goals that are acceptable, effective, and appropriate for communication should be adopted for learners.

According to Faizul (2012), pronunciation is closely related to communication. When we communicate with other people particularly to native speakers, we should not only have good grammar and vocabulary knowledge but also acceptable pronunciation in order to be understood by native speakers. If we do not speak clearly, other people will not understand us and this may stop communication. Learners should be able to understand pronunciation when people speak with different accents in real situations.

According to Rajadurai (2001), the primary purpose of including listening and speaking skills in any course is to teach English pronunciation as an important oral communication part for learners because it is not reasonable to take away pronunciation from communication. Because of the significance of meaningful communication and understandable pronunciation, it is illogical to teach pronunciation in just pronunciation classes or in listening/speaking classes in some specific programs.

According to Vafaei (2013), Iranian EFL teachers do not pay enough attention to the pronunciation of words by their learners because they do not know how to pronounce the words appropriately. Behzadi and Fahimniya (2014) said that pronunciation is the most neglected part of English teaching in Iran. For this reason, other skills such as grammar and vocabulary are much better understood by most Iranian EFL teachers than pronunciation. Feedback obtained from this study would help Iranian EFL learners to understand the reasons of their pronunciation problems and solve them. The aim of the paper is to discuss the Iranian EFL learners' pronunciation problems in the fields of vowels and consonants and offer some effective solutions to overcome them.

2. Review of Literature

Iranian EFL learners have certain problems in all aspects of English language like reading, writing, pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary. Generally, teachers emphasize reading, writing, grammar, and vocabulary in their classrooms but they do not pay attention to English pronunciation. Therefore, their learners face a lot of pronunciation problems which create serious barriers in the process of communication. According to Gordani and Khajavi (2012), a lot of studies contrasted English with other languages and some differences have been found between English and those languages in terms of phonological differences.

Yarmohammadi, (1969 as cited in Gordani & Khajavi, 2012) examined consonantal differences between English and Persian to forecast the pronunciation errors perpetrated by Persian speakers and to classify those errors based on their kinds. Persian learners' pronunciation errors were classified into four groups called phonemic errors, phonetic errors, allophonic errors, and distributional errors. The researcher stated that pronunciation errors can be either allophonic or phonological. Phonological errors are those in which the misspelled words are not like the target words because the whole words, consonants, vowels, syllables, prefixes, suffixes were not heard, were misheard, were added, or reversed with another (Aljarf, 2008; Gordani & Khajavi, 2012). When the listener understands the word 'pit' as 'bit', the error is phonological; when the speaker pronounces the word "fool" with the clear /l/ instead of the dark, he can perceive the word correctly and the error would be allophonic.

A study was done about the phonological features of Farsi speakers of English when they communicated with L1 Australian English speakers. Some results were obtained based on this study. First, the Farsi sound system does not have phonemes and consonant clusters and this in turn created problems for the Farsi speakers of English. Second, phonemes in the Farsi sound system caused problems for the comprehensibility of Farsi speakers of English. Third, the phonological features of Farsi speakers of English interfered with their understandability when they interacted with L1 Australian English speakers (Hall, 2007; Gordani & Khajavi, 2012).

According to Boran (2005), pronunciation problems stop communication and teachers should seriously pay attention to this skill. When teachers teach vocabulary, they should spend enough time to teach the correct pronunciations of the words they are going to teach so that their learners individually improve their English pronunciation. Moreover, Pourhosein and Ahmadi (2011) investigated the factors that impact the learning of English pronunciation. They emphasised that learners should be encouraged to conceptualize the pronunciation; that is, the learning of isolated words may not lead to communication. Instead, teachers should teach the elements of sounds in order to help their learners comprehend the essential aspects of the sound system of English language. In doing so, they can raise their awareness of the production of English sounds.

Some researchers carried out a study called the phonology of phonotactics. In this study, it was indicated that learners have problems in pronouncing English initial consonant clusters that have three members and final consonant clusters that involve three and four members. Some results in the pronunciation of these clusters were obtained, namely reduction, substitution, and deletion (Al-Shuaibi, 2009; Ahmad & Nazim, 2014). The problems of Arab students of English were examined by and four major areas of problems were obtained. First, Arab learners confused certain pairs of consonant sounds. Second, they added a short vowel to break down the long consonant clusters. Third, some diphthongs are replaced by other sounds owing to L1 interference. Finally, Arab learners confuse the differences between some pairs of vowels (Kharma & Hajjaj, 1989; Ahmad & Nazim, 2014).

2.1. Statement of the Problem

This study was done to examine the Iranian EFL learners' English pronunciation problems in two principal areas of English pronunciation called vowels and consonants at the university level. Through the help of data collected from the Iranian EFL learners, the researcher will provide some suggestions which may decrease future problems concerning the pronunciation of English vowel and consonant sounds.

2.2. Objectives of the Study

The objectives of this study were:

1. To investigate the Iranian EFL learners' pronunciation problems in English vowels.
2. To examine the pronunciation problems of the Iranian EFL learners in English consonants.

3. Methodology

3.1. Population

One hundred Iranian EFL learners at the Islamic Azad University of Lahijan were selected for the purpose of this study.

3.2. Sample

Convenience sampling was used as the sample of this study. Creswell (2003) said that in this sampling, participants voluntarily participate in a study. The participants and the objectives of this study were regarded important factors in identifying sampling for this study. The researcher chose 100 learners of the English Translation Department at the Islamic Azad University of Lahijan based on the following criteria: 1) EFL learners' willingness to participate in the study; (2) being interested in English pronunciation; (3) familiarity with English pronunciation problems specifically vowel and consonant sounds.

3.3. Research Instrument

The researcher conducted a survey of 100 Iranian EFL students majoring in English Translation Department at the Lahijan University, Iran. A questionnaire consisted of 10 statements was developed with the help of language and research experts. The survey put emphasis on two subjects: (1) vowel sounds, (2) consonant sounds. The researcher asked students to choose the best answers.

3.4. Data Collection

Data collection procedure for this study was a questionnaire about Iranian EFL learners' pronunciation problems in two principal areas called vowels and consonants. Ten questions were designed for this purpose. The researcher administered the questionnaire. The items of questionnaires were distributed to the Iranian EFL learners of English at English Translation Department at the Islamic Azad University of Lahijan, Iran. The time of answering questionnaire was about 15 minutes. Then the researcher gathered the data for the purpose of analysis.

3.5. Data Analysis

The collected data was arranged and tabulated. They were analyzed through the use of statistical procedures such as mean and percentages. Suggestions were given based on the findings of this study for improving the Iranian EFL learners' English pronunciation and specifically their English vowels and sounds. Conclusions were drawn according to the purposes of this study.

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4. Findings and Analysis

Table 4.1 indicates the Iranian EFL learners' answers to a questionnaire pertinent to their pronunciation problems in vowel and consonant sounds. The questionnaire had 10 items and the Iranian EFL learners answered all of them. Items were measured on a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from Strongly Disagree (1), Disagree (2), Neutral (3), Agree (4), and Strongly Agree (5).

Table 4.1: Iranian EFL learners' pronunciation problems in vowel and consonant sounds at the university level

Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Neutral (N), Disagree (D), Strongly Disagree (SD)

1. I sometimes mispronounce **/i:/** and **/I/** in the words such as "sheep"-"ship"-"leave"-"live."

SA (40%) A (30%) N (5%) D (15%) SD (10%)

2. I am not able to pronounce /**u:**/ and /**U**/ correctly in the words like "sure"-"foolish"-"put"-"blue."

SA (25%) A (45%) N (0%) D (18%) SD (12%)

3. I cannot easily distinguish **/ɔ:/** and **/ɒ/** correctly in the words such as "saw"-"off"-"fought"-"cough."

SA (35%) A (42%) N (0%) D (17%) SD (6%)

4. I sometimes add /**e**/ before the words that are started with "sk"- "sm" - "st" and "sp" like "students"-"spell"-"sky."

SA (44%) A (28%) N (0%) D (20%) SD (8%)

5. If the second letter of the cluster is either /**l**/ or /**r**/ and the cluster is followed by a high vowel, then I sometimes add a vowel before the two mentioned letters such as "freezer"- "clean"- "drink."

SA (17%) A (38%) N (0%) D (10%) SD (35%)

6. I usually add **/e/** before /**l**/ and/**r**/ if the cluster is followed by a low vowel like "flower"- "traffic"-"flask."

SA (15%) A (36%) N (2%) D (29%) SD (8%)

7. I pronounce **/s/** instead of **/θ/** in words such as "think"-" thick"- "thought"-"thing."

SA (25%) A (33%) N (7%) D (20%) SD (15%)

8. I pronounce /z/ instead of **/ð/** in words like "then"- "thou"- "thus"- though."

SA (27%) A (29%) N (9%) D (19%) SD (16%)

9. I pronounce[**ʒ**] instead of [ʃ] in words such as "pressure"- "mission"- "pension"- "mansion."

SA (47%) A (31%) N (0%) D (8%) SD (14%)

10. I pronounce[ʃ] instead of [**ʒ**] in words such as "pleasure"- "treasure"-"measure"- "occasion."

SA (26%) A (30%) N (5%) D (16%) SD (23%)

Table 4.1 indicates that 40% learners are "strongly agree," 30 % are "agree," 5% neutral, 15% are "disagree," and 10 % are "strongly disagree" to the statement that "I sometimes mispronounce /i:/ and /I/ in the words such as "sheep"-"ship"- "leave"-"live." According to the findings obtained from the above table, many Iranian EFL learners strongly agreed that they couldn't correctly pronounce /i:/ and /I/ in the mentioned words. This indicates that these two sounds created some problems for Iranian learners; therefore, teachers should help them correctly pronounce these sounds while learners are talking to their friends or teachers.

According to the findings, 25% learners are "strongly agree," 45% are "agree," 18% are "disagree" and 12% are "strongly disagree" to the statement that "I am not able to pronounce /u:/ and /U/ correctly in the words like "sure" - "foolish" - "put" - "blue." As it can be seen, a large number of learners agreed that they were not able to appropriately pronounce /u:/ and /U/ sounds and this is the task of teachers to familiarize their learners to the correct production of these two sounds and ask them to repeat the mentioned sounds a lot.

As the table 4.1 shows, 35% learners are "strongly agree," 42% are "agree," 17% are "disagree" and 6% are "strongly disagree" to the statement "I cannot easily distinguish /ɔ:/ and /ɒ/ correctly in the words such as "saw" - "off" - "fought" - "cough." Based on the obtained findings, the majority of learners couldn't distinguish /ɔ:/ and /ɒ/ appropriately and teachers as the facilitator of EFL learners' pronunciation should motivate their learners to improve the production of the above sounds through practice and repetition.

Based on the findings of the above table, 44% learners are "strongly agree," 28% teachers are "agree," 20% learners are "disagree," 8% learners are "strongly disagree" to the statement that "I

sometimes add /e/ before the words that are started with "sk"- "sm" - "st" and "sp" like "students" - "spell" - "sky." A lot of learners said that they added /e/ before the words that began with sk- sm- st and sp. This indicates the lack of familiarity of learners with the correct production of the above combinations. This problem can be tackled by the teachers who have sufficient knowledge in the true pronunciation of the mentioned sounds.

As table 4.1 indicates, 17% learners are "strongly agree," 38% are "agree," 10% learners are "disagree" and 35% learners are "strongly disagree" to the statement that "If the second letter of the cluster is either /l/ or /r/ and the cluster is followed by a high vowel, then I sometimes add a vowel before the two mentioned letters such as "freezer"- "clean"- "drink." The majority of learners stated that they added a vowel before /l/ or /r/ in the above words. When teachers know how to correctly pronounce the words that have the mentioned letters this will automatically help learners imitate their teachers in producing them and this in turn also persuades learners to be more motivated to improve their pronunciation.

According to table 4.1, 25% learners are "strongly disagree," 33% teachers are "agree," 7% learners are "neutral," 20% learners are "disagree", and 15% learners are "strongly disagree" to the statement that "I pronounce /s/ instead of /θ / in words such as "think"-" thick"- "thought"- "thing." /θ / is actually one of the most difficult sounds of English and many learners used to pronounce /s/ instead of /θ / in the above words. This is the responsibility of teachers to first pronounce it appropriately to their learners and then ask them to repeat it numerously because this will create a good habit in learners when they talk to their friends or teachers.

Based on the table 4.1, 27% learners are "strongly agree," 29% learners are "agree," 9% learners are "neutral," 19% learners are "disagree" and 16% learners are "strongly disagree" to the statement that "I pronounce /z/ instead of /ð/ in words like "then"- "thou"- "thus"- "though." The other problematic sound for learners is /ð/ because a lot of learners used to pronounce it /z/. Teachers can guide their learners to use different kinds of tools for overcoming this problem such as listening to TV programs or computer software.

Table 4.1 shows that 47% learners are "strongly agree," 31% teachers are "agree," 8% learners are "disagree" and 14% learners are "strongly disagree" to the statement that "I pronounce[ʒ] instead of [ʃ] in words such as "pressure"- "mission"- "pension"- "mansion." According to the findings, a large number of learners pronounced [ʒ] instead of [ʃ] in some words. Due to the similarity of the pronunciation of these two sounds, learners were not able to differentiate these two sounds from each other. Teachers can write a series of words on the board in two columns. One column is about [ʒ] and the other column is about [ʃ]. Teachers can pronounce them and then ask their learners to repeat them a lot. This can somehow help EFL learners overcome parts of their problems in producing this sound.

5. Discussion

Many Iranian EFL learners (70%) stated that they mispronounced /i:/ and /I/ sounds in the words such as "sheep"-"ship" - "leave" - "live." It was difficult for them to distinguish these sounds correctly. /i:/ as in 'heed' is a long vowel sound and learners need to spread their lips tightly to make the sound. But /I/ as in 'hid' is a short vowel sound and learners' lips are more relaxed and less tightly spread (Hung, 2000). Underlying the letter(s) in words, writing the phonetic feature of these letters, listening too much to native speakers' voices, and then repeating them a lot can overcome this problem.

A lot of Iranian EFL learners (70%) said that they were not able to pronounce /u:/ and /U/ correctly in the words like "sure" - "foolish" - "put" - "blue." Iranian EFL learners had difficulty in the correct production of /u:/ and /U/ sounds. /u:/ as in 'hoot' is a long vowel sound and learners need to push the back of their tongue close to the back of their mouth. But /U/ as in 'hood' is a short vowel sound. Learners' tongue doesn't need to be so high up at the back of their mouth and they don't need to round their lips (Hung, 2000). One of the good ways of overcoming this problem is to write the phonetic features of these sounds and then practice and repeat them a lot.

The majority of Iranian EFL learners (77%) said that they could not easily distinguish /ɔ:/ and /ɒ/ in the words such as "saw" - "off" - "fought" - "cough." Sounds like /ɔ:/ and /ɒ/ were difficult for Iranian EFL learners to correctly pronounce them. /ɔ:/ as in 'caught' is a long vowel and learners need to lower their jaw very slightly and round their lips. Learners' tongue should be pulled back. But /ɒ/ as in 'cot' is a short vowel sound. Learners need to lower their jaw more and keep their lips more open and less round. Learners' tongue should be pulled back and lowered (Hung, 2000). Iranian

EFL learners can solve this problem by grouping these two vowel sounds in two columns and then writing and repeating the phonemic symbol of the sounds in each group.

Most of Iranian EFL learners (72%) said that sometimes added /e/ before the words that are started with "sk"- "sm" - "st" and "sp" like "students" - "spell" - "sky." Iranian EFL learners (55%) also said that they added a vowel before the words such as "freezer"- "clean"- "drink." Furthermore, they (51%) mentioned that they usually added /e/ before the words like "flower"- "traffic"- "flask." /ə/ is the most common sound in English and is found in every English sentence. /ə/ is a weak neutral vowel made with a relaxed jaw, lips, and tongue. Possible spellings are - a, e, i, o, and u. Iranian EFL learners often say the vowel that they see on the written page. This does not work in English pronunciation (Hung, 2000). According to Keshavarz (2001 as cited in Fatemi, & Sobhani, & Abolhassani, 2012), Iranian EFL learners faced problems in the pronunciation of initial consonant clusters since there are not initial consonant clusters in Persian language. They added a vowel before the cluster in order to easily pronounce it. They can eliminate this problem through finding words that have this sound and transcribing them and repeating them for numerous times.

Fifty-eight percent of Iranian EFL learners stated that they pronounced /s/ instead of /θ/ in the words such as "think" -"thick" - "thought" - "thing." Iranian EFL learners have serious problems in pronouncing /θ/ sound. Sometimes they pronounce it as "s." /θ/ as in thin is voiceless. Instead of pronouncing think, thick, thought, thing, path, fourth, mouth they used to pronounce sink, sick, sought, sing, pass, force, and mouse. The best solution to overcome this problem is to listen to native speakers' voices and repeat and imitate them.

Fifty-six percent of Iranian EFL learners stated that they pronounced /z/ instead of /ð/ in words like "then"- "thou"- "thus"- though." Sometimes Iranian EFL learners pronounced /ð/ as /z/. /ð/ as in 'those' is voiced. Otherwise, it is like /T/. Instead of pronouncing then, thou, thus, though, there they used to pronounce zen, zough, zoss, zough, and zere. Too much listening to the voices of native speakers can help Iranian EFL learners to overcome this problem and create good habits of pronouncing these words in themselves.

The majority of Iranian EFL learners (78%) said that they pronounced [ʒ] instead of [ʃ] in words such as "pressure"- "mission"- "pension"- "mansion." [ʃ] was a problematic sound for Iranian EFL learners. They exactly didn't know where to pronounce it as [ʃ]. Therefore, it is necessary for Iranian EFL learners to pay particular attention to the following rules in order to overcome the possible problems they may have in pronouncing this sound. [ʃ] is often spelt sh in words like shoot, shore, cushion, fashion, rush, wash. It can also be spelt s (e.g. surely, surety, sugar, sugary) or ss (e.g. pressure, mission) or ci (ancient, delicious, specious, spacious), sci (conscious) ce (ocean), si (pension, mansion, tension), ti (tuition, retribution, retention, intention). It is a variant of [sj] in words like issue, tissue. In words of French origin the sound is spelt ch: champagne, charade, chargé, moustache, attaché.

[ʒ] was also a problematic sound for Iranian EFL learners. They had serious problems with this sound. They didn't know which letters should be pronounced [ʃ]. So Iranian EFL learners should be aware of English rules to overcome the problems they may have in producing this sound. It is never distributed in initial position, but it can occur in medial (pleasure, treasure, measure) or final position (garage, prestige). It can be spelt either s when followed by u (visual, usury, visualize) or i (decision, occasion, revision, division), or z if followed by u (seizure) or ge (massage, espionage).

Fifty-six percent of Iranian EFL learners stated that they pronounced [ʃ] instead of [ʒ] in words such as "pleasure"- "treasure"- "measure"- "occasion." [tʃ] was a problematic sound for Iranian EFL learners. They exactly didn't know where to pronounce it as [ʃ]. Therefore, it is necessary for them to pay particular attention to the following rules in order to solve their problems in the pronunciation of this sound. We should make a difference between the affricate proper (pitch [pɪtʃ]) and the sequence of the plosive and the fricative [t] + [ʃ] (courtship [kɔ:tʃɪp]), right shoe [raɪtʃu:]). The phoneme is indicated by ch: (chart, chimichurri, rich) or tch (kitchen, bitch) or by t followed by u (creature, culture) when the plosive is palatalized.

In words like habitual, sanctuary the pronunciation with an affricate is a variant of [tj]. Exceptionally, we can have ce or cz as graphic representations of the sound in cello or Czech. [dʒ] created problems for Iranian EFL learners. They didn't know which letters should be pronounced as [dʒ]. Iranian EFL learners should be aware of English rules so that they can solve their problems in pronouncing this sound. It can be expressed by j in either initial or medial position in words like January, justification, rejection, rejoin, by ge in all basic positions: germinate, agenda, sage, by gi in

initial and medial position: ginger, giant, rigidly, rigidity; and gy in initial position: gymnast, gyps. In certain words it can be spelt d followed by u: gradual, individual, procedure/al. In all of these cases, du is pronounced [dj].

6. Suggestions

Based on the findings of this study, the following points are suggested in learning English pronunciation:

1. EFL learners should be provided with materials that increase their motivation in learning pronunciation. This can be supported by Fraser (2000), indicating that High quality, effective materials, and particularly computer-based materials are very important for ESL/EFL learners' pronunciation because they can use these materials and facilities in classes where the teachers need them for better instruction.

2. EFL teachers should create an interesting and attractive environment for their learners in their pronunciation classroom. This is in line with the study of Silveira (2002), showing that a motivating environment in the pronunciation classroom is very important for learners to improve their English pronunciation. This is also supported by Pronunciation Power software. It teaches learners how to speak understandable English in an interactive environment that allows them to proceed on their own pace, practice listening and speaking as they desire, record and playback their own voice, and have fun with interactive games while learning (Pronunciation Power, 2000). According to the previous research, participants' attitudes towards pronunciation software were very positive because this software provided an enjoyable environment for improving pronunciation. It was very easy to use and also provided up-to-date information about pronunciation (Bott, 2005). Furthermore, Lord (2008) indicated that participants who used podcasting software improved their pronunciation learning.

3. EFL teachers should provide opportunities for their learners to listen to native speakers and compare their own pronunciation with that of native speakers (Fraser, 2000; Gooniband Shooshtari, Mehrabi, & Mousavinia, 2013).

4. EFL teachers should increase their learners' awareness of English vowels and consonants. This sentence is supported by Gooniband Shooshtari, Mehrabi, and Mousavinia (2013), stating that teachers should assist their learners by raising their awareness of elements like sounds, syllables, stress, and intonation. The reason is that once the learners realize the functions of these elements, they will be able to make their basic awareness.

5. EFL teachers should encourage their learners to practice and repeat individual sounds and words a lot (Gooniband Shooshtari, Mehrabi, & Mousavinia, 2013).

6. EFL teachers should use computer technologies in their pronunciation classes to help learners improve their pronunciation by exposing them to authentic materials. This is in accordance with the use of computer technologies such as Pronunciation Power software. One of the good means of improving and solving English pronunciation learning is to use Pronunciation Power software. This software has been designed to help learners to identify key elements of their speech and then improve their pronunciation by practicing the important patterns of sound and speech (Pronunciation Power, 2000).

7. A listening model or some electronic devices like a tape-recorder or CD should be provided by teachers to their learners and ask them to repeat whatever they hear in the target language. This is a good technique to improve English pronunciation. This has been supported by Elkhair Muhammad Idriss Hassan (2014), emphasizing that if learners want to correct and develop the pronunciation errors, they should frequently listen to English sounds and words through audio aids such as cassettes and CDs because these are the useful means of improving English pronunciation.

7. Conclusion

In this paper, the researcher identified basic problems with English pronunciation among Iranian EFL learners and presented some useful suggestions in two major areas: vowels and consonants. According to this study, some English vowel and consonant sounds were difficult to pronounce for Iranian EFL learners. The data showed that Iranian EFL learners do not pay enough attention to the repetition and practice of English sounds in their classes. The present study contributes to the identification of particular areas of difficulty which stop communication by mispronouncing the individual sounds. It is necessary for EFL teachers to be aware of the problem areas of their learners

which can help them plan suitable materials in the field of English pronunciation. The researcher stated that if Iranian EFL learners want to use English in any formal setting, they should speak it with intelligible pronunciation. Good speaking style is helpful in communication in many respects. To improve English pronunciation, continuous production and recognition practice is absolutely necessary. This practice will be more effective when supported by fundamental knowledge of English phonetics. It is not easy for Iranian EFL learners to stop previous L1 habits but this can be possible through the cooperation of EFL teachers and learners to each other.

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THE EFFECT OF DIGITAL GAMES ON IRANIAN PRIMARY SCHOOL STUDENTS' VOCABULARY RETENTION

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ABSTRACT
THIS STUDY COMPARED THE EFFECTS OF DIGITAL GAMES WITH THOSE OF TEACHER-FRONTED INSTRUCTION ON THE RETENTION OF L2 VOCABULARY AMONG PRIMARY SCHOOL STUDENTS. TO THIS END, 90 MALE PARTICIPANTS RANGING FROM 12 TO 13 YEARS OLD STUDYING AT PISHGAMAN PRIMARY SCHOOL IN RASHT, IRAN WERE RANDOMLY SELECTED FROM A POPULATION OF 120 STUDENTS. THEY WERE THEN RANDOMLY ASSIGNED TO PILOT, EXPERIMENTAL, AND CONTROL GROUPS. EACH GROUP CONSISTED OF 30 PARTICIPANTS. NEXT, A TEST OF L2 VOCABULARY CONSISTING OF 100 ITEMS WAS ADMINISTERED TO THE PILOT GROUP TO BE STANDARDIZED. AFTERWARDS, A COPY OF THE STANDARDIZED TEST OF L2 VOCABULARY NOW CONTAINING 75 ITEMS WAS ADMINISTERED TO THE PARTICIPANTS OF THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS TO EVALUATE THEIR KNOWLEDGE OF THE TARGET VOCABULARY ITEMS. AFTERWARDS, THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP RECEIVED TREATMENT ON THE TARGET VOCABULARY ITEMS THROUGH DIGITAL GAMES, WHILE THE CONTROL GROUP RECEIVED TREATMENT ON THE SAME ITEMS THROUGH TEACHER-FRONTED INSTRUCTION. THE RESULTS REVEALED THAT THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP OUTPERFORMED THE CONTROL GROUP. THE IMPLICATION WAS THAT DIGITAL GAMES CAN PROMISINGLY IMPROVE THE PARTICIPANTS' VOCABULARY RETENTION.

KEY WORDS: CALL, VOCABULARY, RETENTION, DIGITAL GAME BASED INSTRUCTION

1. Introduction

Donmus (2010) believed that "The value of educational games has been increasing in language education, since they help to make language education entertaining" (p. 1497). Educational games are activities that provide students with the opportunity to reinforce the previous knowledge. Games are used to help students to learn how they can use auditory and visual memory together as well as to develop their problem-solving skill by using their desire and enthusiasm to play. Furthermore, matching the items in some digital games can ensure the students' retention of L2 vocabulary. In

recent years, we can see the effective role of digital games and Internet and technology on people's lives and learning. Nowadays, the use of digital media has changed people's lives and also the way they think and study. Students have also access to a variety of digital electronic devices at home and school. Students spend most of their time in playing with computer games. Students in America watch television and use Internet and play video games every day (Prensky, 2001).

Certainly, vocabulary knowledge functions a basic and vital role in process of learning a language (Pour-Mohammadi & Abidin, 2011a). Learning vocabulary through games has garnered a lot of attention. The learners who learned with the use of games, gain positive attitudes and can be more motivated while learning"(Al Neyadi, 2007). Games improve students' communicative skills and they have a chance to use the target language (Sorayaie-Azar, 2012). Vocabulary games bring real world context into the classroom, and enhance students' use of English in a flexible, communicative way. The role of games in teaching and learning vocabulary cannot be denied (Derakhshan & Khatir, 2015).

A problem that can be stated in the area of language learning in a traditional way is that the data taught by a certain teacher in the classroom is not perpetual in learners' memory. In other words, the contacts that have been exposed to learners directly will be easily forgotten after a while (Roohi, 2009). Besides, according to Juul (2003), a game is a rule-based formal system with a variable and quantifiable outcome, where different outcomes are assigned different values, the player exerts effort in order to influence the outcome; the player feels attached to the outcome, and the consequences of the activity are optional and negotiable. Ang and Zaphiris (2008) maintain that the game definition contains six parameters:

1. *Rules*: games are rule-based;
2. *Outcome*: games have variable, quantifiable outcomes;
3. *Value*: that the different potential outcomes of the game are assigned different values, some being positive, some being negative;
4. *Effort*: that the player invests effort in order to influence the outcome;
5. *Player's attachment*: that the players are attached to the outcomes of the game in the sense that a player will be the winner and happy if a positive outcome happens, and loser and unhappy if a negative outcome happens; and
6. *Negotiable consequences*: the same game can be played with or without real-life consequences.

Educational games are software that helps students to learn the lesson subjects and to develop their problem solving skills by using their desire and enthusiasm to play (Donmus, 2010). Some digital games can be useful in language classes. The uses of Computer Assisted Instruction (CAI) and multimedia in education have significantly changed children's learning and cognitive process.

Several studies have found that computer use enhances children's fine motor skills, alphabet recognition, concept learning, numerical recognition, counting skills and pre-mathematical knowledge, cognitive development, and self-esteem or self-concept (Agudo, 2007). Moreover, Alemi (2010) investigated the role of using word games in expanding the learner's vocabulary. The results showed that using digital games in schools motivate learners to learn English vocabulary and help vocabulary retention. They also help meaningful learning and cause creativity and it is funny for learners. Learners will enjoy learning with playing digital games.

2. Literature Review

Researchers believe that all fields of study such as philosophy, psychology, history, and education define game in different ways, but all have an idea that there is a relationship between games and cognitive development (Mongillo, 2006). Besides, vocabulary learning is a factor which contributes to learners' developing a second or foreign language, and, in this regard, vocabulary knowledge can be viewed as an essential and accurate factor that directly impacts on their language success and progress (Pour-Mohammadi & Abidin, 2011b). Game-use instruction in L2 learners' vocabulary learning makes a potential and powerful learning environment according to the attributes identified by Smeets (2005). Furthermore, as the concept of audience is extremely important when making games, peer collaboration is a necessary component. The purpose of making a game is to create an

artefact which somebody else will enjoy, and so inviting others to play the games a natural part of the process (Howells & Robertson, 2008). Irgin and Turgut (2009), in their study concerning learning English via computer games, found that video games are effective toward learning sub-skills, especially vocabulary and pronunciation. Furthermore, as Girgin (2011) and Kabilan (2010) state, the results with regard to the use of games as a technique for language learning are mostly positive.

The Cognitive Theory of Multimedia Learning (CTML) centers on the idea that learners attempt to build meaningful connections between words and pictures and that they learn more deeply than they could have with words or pictures alone (Mayer, 2003). According to Mayer (2003), CTML is based on three assumptions: the dual-channel assumption, the limited capacity assumption, and the active processing assumption.

Researchers have suggested that the affordances of some types of digital games, especially Massively Multiplayer Online Role-Playing Games (MMORPGs), may be particularly beneficial for L2 learning (e.g., Kuppens, 2010). There is also recent research providing at least partial empirical evidence for such a claim, in particular when time spent playing MMORPGS is compared with time spent playing single-player games (Sundqvist, 2013). Also as regards the specifics of gaming L2 learning, game-based research has revealed significant gender-related differences that merit more attention from CALL researchers. For instance, boys tend to play more frequently and for longer stretches of time than girls do, and boys and girls tend to have different game preferences (Lucas & Sherry, 2004).

Within the framework of Dual Coding Theory, Shen (2010) compared two methods: verbal encoding and verbal encoding plus imagery encoding. Analysis of the results revealed that, compared with the verbal encoding method, the verbal plus imagery encoding method does not demonstrate a greater effect in retention of the sound, shape, and meaning of concrete words, but statistically significant differences are present in retention of the shape and meaning of abstract words. Her findings hence support dual coding theory and confirm the importance of visual learning in Chinese vocabulary acquisition. In another study, Hummel (2010) explored whether translation activities can impede or help short-term vocabulary retention. Although significant effect of translation on short-term vocabulary retention for the three conditions was found, a more important advantage was obtained regarding the "rote-copying condition" than the two translation conditions. However, with the tools of technology finding their way to language classrooms, it is now possible to exploit the potential of multimedia glossing that allows for greater comparability of different gloss types (Babaie & Razmjoo, 2015).

3. Method

3.1. Participants

The participants were 120 male students who had enrolled at level six in Pishgaman Primary School in Rasht, Iran. At first, to ensure their homogeneity, a sample of Oxford Solution Test (OST) was administered. A total of 101 learners were identified as qualified candidates based on the scores they obtained on the proficiency test. The criterion score was 44 and the learners were selected with the help of a digital randomizer called random selection by supercool random number generator for the study. These 90 participants were all at pre-intermediate level of language proficiency and were divided into three equal groups of pilot, experimental and control by means of supercool random number generator. Their age range was from 12 to 13 and all were non-native speakers of English. Gender was not considered as a variable to be controlled in this study.

3.2. Materials

Materials used under the present study consisted of high-frequency L2 vocabulary items presented to the participants through a software package developed by Cambridge ESOL. The materials were graded for elementary and pre-intermediate-level EFL students. Instruments of this study consisted of OST, pretest multiple-choice test of L2 vocabulary.

3.3. Procedures

The game in experimental group was from "Cambridge University Press". The pedagogical domain in the game consisted of eight different parts with 60 different subjects and they were so interesting for

primary school students with the age of 12-13. Thirty homogenous learners in pilot group were asked to choose unknown vocabularies from a list of 100 words presented to them before the start of the treatment in order to ensure that the participants in the experimental group were not familiar with the target vocabularies. Based on their responses, the number of vocabulary items in the initial draft of the test was reduced to 75 items. The participants in the pilot group were the least familiar with these vocabulary items.

Then the experimental group received eight sessions treatment in which the participants were taught 15 vocabulary items with digital games unlike the control group who received normal teaching of vocabulary with some pictures and cards. The learners received given training to help them fully understand the definitions of words by utilizing pictures and cards which would show the meanings. Moreover, their teacher asked them to look at the pictures and make some sentences and use them in conversations.

4. Results

As Table 1 below indicates, the sig. value for the Levene's test and t-test exceeded 5% level of significance and the confidence intervals contained zero; therefore, the assumption of the homogeneity of variances was justified.

Table 1. Results of the Independent-Samples T-test Reported for the Pretest Statistics

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		**t-test for Equality of Means**						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
pretest	Equal variances assumed	.179	.674	.399	58	.691	.2666	.66753	-1.069	1.6028
	Equal variances not assumed			.399	57.80	.691	.2666	.66753	-1.069	1.6029

However, as Table 2 displays, the sig. value for both Levene and t-test was smaller than the preset alpha level; thus, the groups belonged to different populations.

Table 2. Results of the Independent-Samples T-test Reported for the Posttest Statistics

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		**t-test for Equality of Means**						
		F	Sig.	t	df.	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Posttest	Equal variances assumed	2.234	.140	14.8	58	.000	6.166	.4144	5.337	6.995

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Equal variances not assumed	14.8	52.25	.000	6.166	.4144	5.335	6.997	

Also, Table 3 presents the results for the paired-samples t-test for two sets of the learners' scores in the control group across the pre- and posttests.

Table 3. Paired-Samples Results for the Control Group

	Paired Differences							
				95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper	t	df.	sig. (2-tailed)
Con-Post Con-Pre	34.93	3.09	.56514	33.77	36.08	61.8	29	.000

Finally, as Table 4 indicates, the sig value reported for the paired-samples t-test was smaller than .05 alpha value; this means that the participants' performance level shows great improvement over the course of the study.

Table 4. Paired-Samples Results for the Experimental Group

	Paired Differences							
				95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std.Error Mean	Lower	Upper	t	df.	sig.(2-tailed)
Exp-Post Exp-Pre	40.8	2.67	.48915	39.83	41.83	83.5	29	.000

5. Discussions

In this study, some points were found on using multimedia learning. In this way learners also use their hands for using computers' keyword and games. Hence, one additional part to multimedia cognitive theory of multimedia learning can be considered. According to the cognitive theory of multimedia learning and Paivio's Dual Coding Theory and DGBL, the integration of three theories can contribute the availability of information in multiple modalities both learning and retaining the L2 vocabulary items.

Dual-coding theory, a theory of cognition, was first advanced by Paivio (1986). The theory postulates that both visual and verbal information are processed differently and along distinct channels with the human mind creating separate representations for information processed in each channel. Both visual and verbal codes for representing information are used to organize incoming information into knowledge that can be acted upon, stored, and retrieved for subsequent use.

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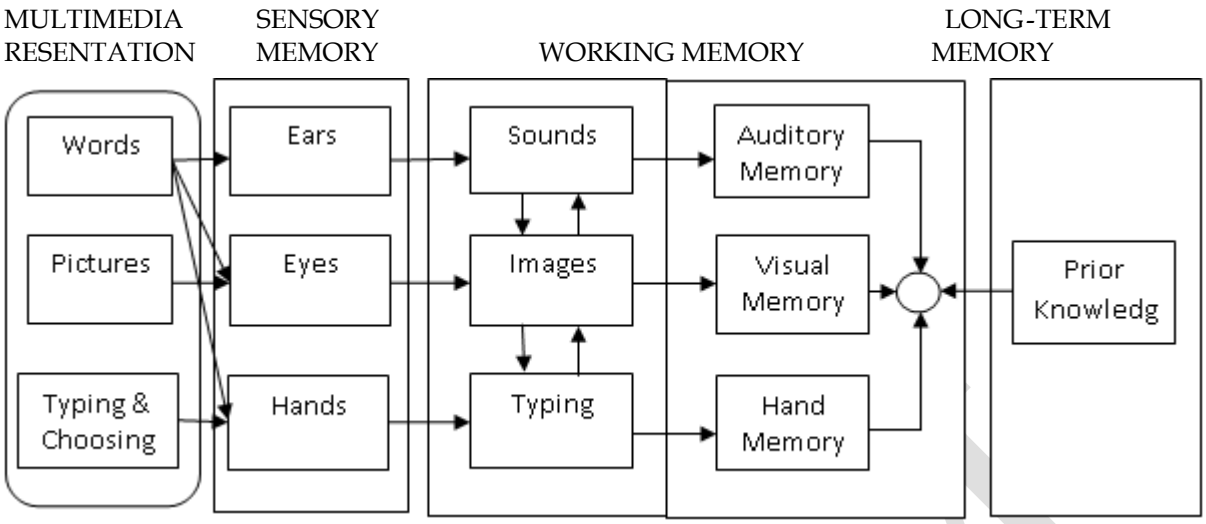

Figure 1. The Linkage Between CTML, DCT and DGBL

Mayer (2005) states that sensory memory has a visual sensory memory that briefly holds pictures and printed text as visual images; and auditory memory that briefly holds spoken words and sounds as auditory images.

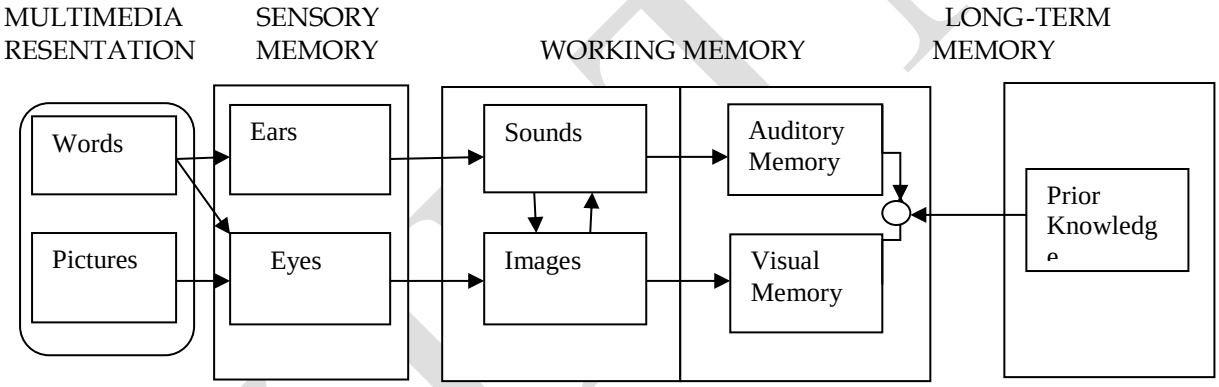

Figure 2. Cognitive Theory of Multimedia Learning

6. Conclusion

The findings of this study revealed that vocabulary learning using the digital games is significantly effective for better vocabulary retention and choosing the correct vocabularies in the posttest. The findings also indicated that the trained learners in the experimental group could understand and remember the vocabularies in the posttest better than those in the control group. This means that using digital games as an enjoyable way is an effective way for improving the vocabulary retention, making the vocabulary learning enjoyable and exciting for students and thus motivating them to learn better. Therefore, the null hypothesis which was proposed at the beginning of the study was rejected.

It should be mentioned that utilizing technological ways is so good for educational system and it may depend on amount of time needed for it in each session and also how many items can be used as a teacher for teaching new vocabularies in one session, how many sessions is enough. How repetition after, before or within using the game can be used to be interesting not confusing. How the games more interesting and exciting to students can be introduced. How suitable games or programs for men and women, for fathers and mothers can be used, too; it should be interesting for each person in each age. Maybe men are interested in politics or they can choose the topics that are related to their job. Maybe the time between sessions is so long, so it cannot be so effective. Students will miss their

motivation in this way, because these external factors are so important. Factors such as time and suitable topics affect treatment very much. If suitable game or technological programs are used for each level or age, the results change best and can be positive based on this and other research.

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THE IMPACT OF EXTENSIVE VERSUS INTENSIVE READING ON IRANIAN INTERMEDIATE EFL LEARNERS' KNOWLEDGE OF SEMANTIC PROSODY

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ABSTRACT
THE PRESENT STUDY SOUGHT TO INVESTIGATE THE EFFECT OF EXTENSIVE VERSUS INTENSIVE READING ON KNOWLEDGE OF SEMANTIC PROSODY OF IRANIAN INTERMEDIATE EFL LEARNERS. FORTY ONE STUDENTS WERE SELECTED VIA ADMINISTERING AN OXFORD QUICK PLACEMENT TEST AND WERE THEN DIVIDED INTO TWO EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS OF 21 AND 20. A PRETEST OF SEMANTIC PROSODY OF VOCABULARY WAS ADMINISTERED TO BOTH GROUPS. NEXT, THE FIRST EXPERIMENTAL GROUP WAS TAUGHT SEMANTIC PROSODY THROUGH INTENSIVE READING AND THE SECOND ONE WAS TAUGHT THROUGH EXTENSIVE READING. A POSTTEST OF VOCABULARY BASED ON SEMANTIC PROSODY WAS THEN ADMINISTERED TO BOTH GROUPS. THE GATHERED DATA WERE ANALYZED VIA CALCULATING AN INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST. THE RESULTS ILLUSTRATED THAT THE IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS IN EXPERIMENTAL GROUP PROVIDED WITH EXTENSIVE READING RECEIVED HIGHER SCORES IN POSTTEST.

KEY WORDS: SEMANTIC PROSODY, READING COMPREHENSION, EXTENSIVE READING, INTENSIVE READING

1. Introduction

It is commonly believed that reading comprehension is the essential way of learning new information in teaching English as a second or Foreign Language and it is the most significant skill required for the students' success (Pour-Mohammadi & Abidin, 2011a; Pour-Mohammadi & Abidin, 2011b). Moreover, one significant part of improving reading comprehension is teaching vocabulary. As a result of the growing interest in vocabulary teaching by researchers, various techniques and strategies have been suggested for learning and teaching the forms of target language. Researchers started testing and evaluating these techniques in order to reach the best result in the process of language

learning and as a result of that a growing body of literature now addresses lexical acquisition. As Csomay and Petrovic (2012, p. 305) put it, "Vocabulary is an essential element of every second/ foreign language teaching and learning program."

Vocabulary teaching and learning has significant effect on communication and acquisition (Richards & Renandya, 2002). One area of word knowledge that has been shown to be especially problematic for learners is the use of appropriate collocation. Without explicit instruction of collocation, learners must rely on evidence that input alone is not sufficient for the acquisition of collocation knowledge, as learners' difficulties in this area have been well-documented over the past 20 years (Nesselhauf, 2005). For this reason, choosing inappropriate words due to lack of knowledge of evaluative meaning (i.e. semantic prosody) is very common among EFL learners of English (Xiao & McEnery, 2006).

In addition, L2 learners' relying on just dictionaries and thesauri makes a number of semantic errors as they provide denotative meanings of lexical items and do not present the subtle implications embedded in contexts (Lee & Liu, 2009).

According to Bednarek (2008, p. 132), SP "refers to POS/NEG [positive/negative] connotation as well as more complex attitudinal connotations, affecting both single words and larger units of meaning such as phrases". It is also defined as "word forms which have a tendency to be (or in some cases which are always) followed by words with certain connotations, basically positive or negative" (Zethsen, 2006, p. 132). In short, it is a kind of (positive, negative, or neutral) *connotative* meaning which a word takes due to its consistent collocations.

Whilst CAUSE and BRING about have a very similar denotative meaning, their collocational behaviors and semantic prosodies differ markedly. In contrast to the strongly negative prosody of CAUSE, the objects of BRING about more frequently refer to desirable, or at least non-negative, situations.

In addition to CAUSE and BRING about, there are a number of phrasal verbs that share similar meanings but vary in semantic prosodies. They include e.g., RESULT in/from, LEAD to, AROUSE and GIVE rise to RESULT in and RESULT from are quite similar in affective meanings irrespective of some differences in frequency (the former is significantly more frequent than the latter) and syntax (event A results in event B whereas event B results from event A).

Concerning the acquisition of word meaning more generally, Evans (2009) proposed that word meanings, influenced by situated usage-events, are dependent on the utterance context in which they are embedded. So acquiring the semantic knowledge of a word is neither a one-to-one form-meaning mapping process, nor a once-and-for-all learning event, even if some meaning can be temporarily extracted from a single exposure to a word (Horst & Samuelson, 2008). Instead, learners need to learn meaning of a word from varied instances of its use. Crucial to the meaning of a word is its semantic prosody which plays a leading role in the integration of a lexical item with its context.

2. Literature Review

Reading as a basic and complementary skill in language teaching and learning is remarkable in keeping one abreast of new findings and increasing one's academic and professional position. The word "reading" of course has a number of common interpretations by language teachers. It may mean both "reading aloud" which involves understanding the printed words first and then the production of the right noises and also "silent reading" which is done for comprehension (Hayati & Pour-Mohammadi, 2005). Similarly, different types of reading such as intensive reading, extensive reading, skimming and scanning have been suggested by some researchers (e.g., Hedge, 2008).

Related to this subject, semantic prosody, also called semantic harmony (Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk, 1996), is a relatively new concept in linguistic field. There are different definitions of semantic prosody by various researchers; semantic prosody is "a certain aura of meaning connected with individual lexical items which spreads over the senses of their neighbors by creating specific semantic expectation" (Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk, 1996, p. 153). In other words, "It describes the consistent

aura of meaning that is created through the general tendencies of the set of collocates associated with the central node word" (Louw & Chateau, 2010, p. 755). All semantic prosody definitions have more or less the same base in different scopes and as Fan (2010) states all these definitions reflect "the close relationship between the semantic prosody of a form and its collocates" (p. 53).

According to Partington (2004), there are two forms of evaluated meaning; one form of evaluative meaning is connotative meaning which is obvious and in-built, for example, items such as extensive and flappy have negative connotative meaning which are clear to language users. Another form of evaluated meaning is semantic prosody which is spread over a unit of language and goes well beyond the single word and is much less evident to language users. He adds that "This knowledge is not necessarily either conscious or explicitly recollectable, but remains part of our communicative competence" (p. 32). In the same way, Xiao and McEnery (2006) argue that "It would appear, from the literature published on semantic prosody, that it is at least as inaccessible to a speaker's conscious introspection as collocation is (p. 106). They also argue that "Connotation can be collocational or noncollocational whereas semantic prosody can only be collocational" (p. 107).

Answering the questions of if the favorable or unfavorable semantic prosody is not part of in-built aspect of items, 'inherent meaning', how do language users apply them in the appropriate environment, Partington (2004) argues that such awareness is in the mind of language users and "language users have a set of mental rules derived from the priming process, alongside or integrated with the mental lexicon, of how items should collocate" (p. 132). He also argues that prosodies are different from other types of meaning in that this kind of meaning is usually produced and perceived unconsciously on the part of senders and receivers. In his view, a semantic prosody is not accessible to an individual's introspection and is not recorded in dictionaries and only alphabetically listing of numerous examples are able to reveal it. Based on the aforementioned understanding of the concept, two conducted empirical studies in the field have been reviewed below.

Partington (2004) examined the two related concepts of semantic prosody and semantic preference. In this study, he showed that not only HAPPEN and SET have unfavorable prosodies, but that the majority of words belonging to the HAPPEN semantic group (SET IN, HAPPEN, OCCUR, TAKE PLACE, COME ABOUT) have a bad prosody. He related this to the fact that humans have a greater tendency or need to talk to each other about bad things. However, he showed that there are different degrees of bad prosody among the items in the group

To asses English learners' knowledge of semantic prosody, Ahmadian, Yazdani and Darabi (2011) chose 60 Iranian Persian-speaking English learners to take a 70-item test of semantic prosody. The items were based on those cases of semantic prosody whose condition (positive or negative) had been already determined by other researchers. Although their corpus-driven test of semantic prosody was of the modest reliability and validity, their data analysis showed that learners' knowledge of semantic prosody can be appropriately measured by the corpus-driven test of semantic prosody. They also showed that the overall performance of the learners on the semantic prosody test was weak and the level of language proficiency did not have any possible effect on semantic prosody.

3. Method

This study used a mixed method; i.e., a quantitative method in addition to participants' reflection (qualitative method) to understand the potential of semantic prosody learning through extensive versus intensive reading (IR) methods on the improvement of learners' performance in choosing appropriate vocabulary in an EFL context. In the quantitative stage, data were collected from 41 EFL learners, in two classes of 20 and 21 learners studying at Pardis English Language Institute in Talesh, Iran. They were tested twice on vocabulary test based on semantic prosody, once at the beginning of the study and then six weeks after the study.

Afterwards, in the qualitative stage, all participants were interviewed briefly and individually. In brief, semi-structured interviews, specific questions and their sequence were determined in advance. Participants were allowed to speak in either English or Persian in order to allow them to express their ideas more clearly.

3.1. Research question

This study intended to answer the following question:

Does extensive versus intensive reading have any statistically significant effect on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' knowledge of semantic prosody?

3.2. Participants

Forty one learners participated in this study. They were studying English at Pardis English Language Institution in Talesh, Iran, and were native speakers of Persian. They were divided into two classes of 20 and 21 learners. After administering Oxford Quick Placement Test (QPT) to homogenize the participants as intermediate learners, one of these two classes was selected as the first experimental group and another as the second one.

3.3. Instrument

First, QPT was the first material used to put participants into homogeneous groups at intermediate level. After that, the pretest including 30 multiple-choice vocabulary items (based on semantic prosody) was administered. In order to make sure, graded readers were chosen from publishers such as Oxford University Press, and Pearson Longman, with a range of basic vocabulary from 200-1000 words. About seven graded readers were provided for the participants in both groups. They were taught extensively and intensively in the first and second experimental groups. During 12 treatment sessions, extensive and intensive groups received texts to study in the class. Moreover, a pretest and a posttest were applied before and after the treatment in this study. Each of them contained 30 items with three options to measure the participants' respective knowledge of vocabulary test based on semantic prosody. The posttest was conducted after the last treatment session.

3.4. Pilot study

A pilot study was carried out for 6 weeks (one institute semester) in an attempt to determine the amount of time needed to learn how to discover semantic prosody of words through intensive method, and to identify any probable problem with the research design. To check the validity of the test, it was sent to five university lecturers, to select the missing words. The results showed that the agreement between the five judges was high (about 85%), which was indicative of acceptable estimate of test validity. The human judges were allowed to choose more than one correct answer when they were convinced that more than one near-synonym fitted well in the context.

To calculate the reliability, Cronbach alpha was calculated. The reliability of 30 items of the vocabulary test was approximated through a pilot study on 15 EFL learners. The reliability estimate for vocabulary choice appropriateness test (based on semantic prosody) was .86, which means the test was reliable.

4. Results

In order to measure the participants' knowledge of vocabulary, a test of vocabulary was used for both experimental groups. Two tests were administered to the participants: a pretest and a posttest. For two reasons, the pretest was used in the study. Firstly, a t-test was run on pretest scores of the two groups to make sure the groups were homogeneous regarding vocabulary knowledge at the beginning of the study. Secondly, it was reflected that the difference between the two experimental groups was as a result of the treatment which was used in the study.

To select homogenous participants as the target population sample regarding their general language proficiency, QPT was administered to 60 EFL students. The participants answered three sections including the structure, vocabulary and reading comprehension sections of the test with a maximum possible score of 60 points. Table 1 indicates the statistics for QPT.

Table 1. Statistics for QPT

QPT Descriptive Statistics		
QPT scores		
N	Valid	60
	Missing	0
Mean		37.8500
Std. Error of Mean		.73157
Median		36.0000
Mode		36.00[a]
SD		7.97448
Variance		63.592
Skewness		-.449
Std. Error of Skewness		.269
Kurtosis		-.058
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.532
Range		38.00
Minimum		31.00
Maximum		58.00
Sum		2956.00
a. Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown		

Accordingly, Tables 2 and 3 indicate descriptive statistics for groups on pretests and posttest respectively.

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics for Groups on Pretests

Groups	N	Mean	SD
Extensive	21	12.57	3.05
Intensive	20	12.20	2.68

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics for Groups on Posttest

Groups	N	Mean	SD
Extensive	21	20.95	3.70
Intensive	20	13.90	4.38

As Tables 4 and 5 show, to determine whether there was a difference between the two experimental groups, independent samples t-tests were run on the pretest and posttest scores of the two groups.

Table 4. Independent Samples T-Test on Pretests

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
	F	Sig.	T	df	Sig.2tailed
Equal variances assumed	.905	.347	.412	39	.682
Equal variances not assumed			.414	38.757	.681

Table 5. Independent Samples T-Test on Posttests

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

	F	Sig.	T	df	Sig.2tailed
Equal variances assumed	26.118	.763	5.572	39	.000
Equal variances not assumed			5.548	37.246	.000

The Levene's test assumes the equality of the variances. This is a test that determines if the two variables have about the same or different amounts of variability between scores. Accordingly, the significance level came to .763 which is larger than the .05 value. The t-test section of the table shows that the significance level equaled .000. This means that there is a statistically significant relation between the two conditions. This rejects the assumption of effect of extensive versus intensive reading having no effect on groups' semantic prosody on the test. That is to say the extensive reading (ER) had an impact on the semantic prosody ability of female learners.

Table 6. Paired Samples Test for the Intensive Group

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	Pre.int & Post.int	20	.220	.352

Table 6 summarizes the inferential analysis of the data before and after vocabulary instruction for the first experimental group who received IR instruction. It presents the results for the paired samples t-test for two sets of the learners' scores in the intensive group in both pre- and posttests. The sig. value is bigger than .05 which means the difference is not significant.

Table 7. Paired Samples T-Test for the Extensive Group

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	Pre.ext. & Post.ext.	21	.526	.014

Table 7 summarizes the inferential analysis of the data on both pretest and posttest for the second experimental group of the study who received ER instruction. It indicates that unlike the intensive group, significance level of the extensive group in both pre- and posttest is significant. That is to say, the extensive group performed better than the intensive group.

With regards to the qualitative findings, as mentioned before, the learners in both groups were interviewed briefly. This section reports on first experimental group's responses to questions focused on their strategies in learning the differences among near-synonyms, as well as on second experimental group's experience in ER and reading concordances.

The basic question that was asked from first experimental group was "How did you learn the differences among English near-synonyms?" Using dictionaries was claimed by all participants in this group. However, those who had better performance on the test said that they had used English-English dictionaries. In contrast, those who had poorer performance said that they had used English-Persian dictionaries. In addition, the key question that was asked from them was "How did you feel about experiencing ER method?" The major findings from the interviews with participants of this group are follows:

1. Almost all participants felt that ER could help in improving their English ability.
2. Generally, they found it more interesting; however, a few students found it difficult.
3. Their attitudes toward ER were more positive than negative.
4. They tended to work in pairs or groups.
5. They did feel that ER method would make them more autonomous and creative.

Accordingly, the following are the major findings from the interviews with participants in the second experimental group (IR):

1. Almost all of them claimed that they used dictionaries as their tools for learning the difference among near-synonyms.
2. Those who had better function in vocabulary test based on semantic prosody claimed using English-English dictionary definitions.
3. Participants with low test scores claimed using English-Persian dictionaries or their intuitions (in order to find the difference among English near-synonyms through Persian equivalents).

5. Discussion

It is generally believed that inappropriate lexical use can lead to miscommunication and unfavorable social consequences. Therefore, misuse of lexical items, particularly among near-synonyms, calls for more attention and treatment in L2 lexical learning. It was observed by scientists (e.g., Xiao & Mc Enery, 2006; Zhang, 2009) that choosing inappropriate words can be a result of lack of knowledge of semantic prosody and this problem is very common among EFL learners of English. On the other hand, teachers usually teach vocabulary by giving synonyms which sometimes misses some important information about words and learners can be led to use words inappropriately. Therefore, knowledge about the differences among near-synonyms is necessary to convey slight differences of meaning and to avoid undesirable implications (Inkpen & Hirst, 2002).

There is much evidence to support the necessity of EFL learners' being aware of semantic prosody of lexical items in order to equip themselves in vocabulary learning. The findings of the present study are compatible with the findings of some studies such as Xiao and McEnery (2006), Fan (2010), Ahmadian, et al. (2011), and Siepmann (2005). As mentioned earlier, semantic prosody has considerable benefits for EFL learners. Such awareness, according to Zhang (2009), can help language learners understand how to use lexical items appropriately. Semantic prosody can help students understand how to use lexical items. He also recommended the teaching of near-synonyms, and the teaching and learning of vocabulary instruction and dictionary compilation. He has further argued for a different teaching focus than the traditional vocabulary teaching methods in English language schools.

ER and IR both have played important roles in helping learners gain fluency, first in the critical area of vocabulary and word recognition, then in developing better reading comprehension skills. Also regarding ER, an impressive body of evidence has appeared supporting ER as a means of improving not only students' reading level but also their general language proficiency and its sub skills like vocabulary. There are various studies emphasizing the fact that ER leads to language proficiency in general, and vocabulary development in particular. Some researchers such as Nassaji (2003), Gu (2003), and Horst (2005) found the effect of this approach on vocabulary development. Also regarding ER, an impressive body of evidence has appeared supporting ER as a means of improving not only students' reading level but also their general language proficiency and its sub skills like vocabulary.

6. Conclusion and Implications

The findings of this study suggest that it is possible to learn semantic prosody of vocabulary. Consequently, it is possible to learn prosodic behavior of vocabulary unconsciously. Besides, it has been shown that near-synonyms have different prosodic behaviors and this suggests that teachers should be cautious in introducing new English vocabulary by giving their synonyms. Furthermore, interviews with participants in the first experimental group revealed that those who used Persian equivalents to get the differences among near-synonyms of verbs had lower scores. This suggests that in classes with the same background language teachers should be cautious about using the EFL learners' background language in order to introduce vocabulary. At last, as nowadays it is common to evaluate vocabulary knowledge of EFL learners by asking for its synonyms, test designers are suggested to use words with the same semantic prosody to avoid negative backwash effect of the test.

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MJLTM

ON THE IMPACT OF ONE-WAY VS. TWO-WAY TASKS ON IRANIAN INTERMEDIATE EFL LEARNERS' COLLOCATION COMPETENCE

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ABSTRACT
THIS STUDY ATTEMPTED TO INVESTIGATE THE EFFECT OF ONE-WAY VERSUS TWO-WAY TASKS ON THE DEVELOPMENT OF COLLOCATION COMPETENCE AMONG IRANIAN INTERMEDIATE EFL LEARNERS. TO THIS END, 60 STUDENTS OF ENGLISH TRANSLATION STUDYING AT ISLAMIC AZAD UNIVERSITY, RASHT BRANCH, PARTICIPATED IN THIS STUDY. PET WAS USED TO HOMOGENIZE THEM. PARTICIPANTS WERE DIVIDED INTO TWO GROUPS: EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL. THEY SAT FOR A PRETEST AND AFTER A 10-SESSION PERIOD OF TREATMENT AND PLACEBO FOR THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS RESPECTIVELY, THEY SAT FOR A POSTTEST. THE RESULTS OF PAIRED AND INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TESTS REVEALED THE FACT THAT TWO-WAY TASK GROUP OUTPERFORMED THE ONE-WAY TASK GROUP. THE FINDINGS ALSO SHOWED THAT BOTH GROUPS PROGRESSED FROM PRETEST TO POSTTEST. BASED ON THE FINDINGS OF THIS STUDY, TWO-WAY TASKS ARE MORE BENEFICIAL TO TEACHING COLLOCATIONS TO IRANIAN INTERMEDIATE EFL LEARNERS THAN ONE-WAY TASKS.

KEY WORDS: TASK-BASED LANGUAGE TEACHING, TWO-WAY TASK, ONE-WAY TASK, COLLOCATION COMPETENCE

1. Introduction

There has currently been a high emphasis on the practice of Communicative Approach in language teaching. This English teaching approach highlights the importance of Learner – Centered classrooms where teachers' talking time is minimized and students' talking time is increased to the utmost (Richards & Renandya, 2002, p.49). Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT), as a sub-branch of Communicative approach in language teaching, has also taken the attention of a lot of scholars in recent years. This approach bases itself on the implementation of a great variety of tasks and procedures to produce effective results in L2 acquisition (Ellis, 2003; Richards, 2001). Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT) refers to "an approach/method based on the use of tasks as the core unit of planning and instruction in language teaching, as a logical development of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)" (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p.223). In current pedagogical discussions, the task-based approach has achieved something of the status of a new orthodoxy; teachers in a wide range of settings are being told how they should teach. Furthermore, most newly published

textbooks and papers are being recognized as emphasizing task-based instruction (Ellis, 2003; Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Clearly, whatever a task-based approach means, it is a good thing (Littlewood, 2004). The effect of TBLT on the development of different skills and components of language has been studied by many researchers (e.g. Bygate, Skehan & Swain, 2001; Ellis, 2003; Johnson, 2003; Leaver & Willis, 2005; Long, 2015; Nunan, 2004; Shehada, 2005; Shintani, 2014; Van den Branden, 2006). However, no research project has directly investigated the impact of TBLT on EFL learners' collocation competence yet. To this end, the present study is aimed to compare the effect of two well-known types of task i.e. one-way and two-way (Ellis, 2003; Long, 2015) on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' collocation competence.

2. Review of the Literature

2.1. Task-Based Language Teaching

Task-based language teaching (TBLT) was developed as an alternative to traditional methods of language teaching. TBLT aims to develop learners' communicative competence by engaging them in meaning-focused communication through the performance of tasks. However, TBLT is not just concerned with developing "fluency in the communicative process"; it aims to develop learners' linguistic competence and their interactional competence (Ellis, 2014, p.135). TBLT has received increasing support from a number of SLA researchers. A number of books – Candlin and Murphy (1987), Crookes and Gass (1993), Skehan (1998, 2011), Ellis (2003), Mayo (2007), Eckerth and Siekmann (2008) and Samuda and Bygate (2008) – have expounded the theoretical and research basis for TBLT. It has also received strong support from teacher educators such as Prabhu (1987), Estaire and Zanon (1994), Willis (1996) and Nunan (1989, 2004).According to Willis (2007, p.2) "task-based language teaching (TBLT) helps language learners make real efforts to communicate as best as they can in the foreign language which they are learning".

2.1.1. One-way task

In one-way tasks the information is held by a single person and there is no chance for negotiation of meaning or interaction between students. In these tasks, the burden of completing the task successfully is placed on the participant who holds the information. Long (2015, p.241) defines this type of task as "task, such as opinion-gap tasks, where information exchange is optional, as when learners express their views on an issue, a task where one party holds all the information needed for task completion (e.g., has & describe a picture that a classmate, who does not have it, must draw or identify)".

2.1.2. Two-way task

Two-way tasks are the activity of the communicative approach. Also known as an "information gap" activity, it pushes learners to communicate with each other in order to retrieve information to complete a task. In two-way tasks all the participants are obligated to participate in order to complete the task. According to Long (2015),

Two-way tasks (sometimes also referred to as "reciprocal," or "jigsaw," tasks) i.e., those like "spot-the-difference" and map-route tasks, where (a) each participant holds unique information (b) that must be exchanged for the task to be completed successfully, have been shown to be superior to one-way tasks in the amount of negotiation for meaning they engender. (p. 242)

2.2. Collocation

Collocation was first introduced by Firth (1957) to define a combination of words associated with each other, for example *to take a photo*. The term 'collocation' has its origin in the Latin verb 'collocare' which means 'to set in order/to arrange' (Martyńska, 2004).Collocation is the way in which words are used together regularly. Collocation refers to the restrictions on how words can be used together, for example which prepositions are used with particular verbs, or which verbs and nouns are used together (Richard & Schmidt, 2002).

Lewis (2000) elaborates a collocation as a subgroup of multi-word items, consisting of individual words which co-occur on a regular basis. Woolard (2000) also gives further depth to the above-mentioned definitions by stating that collocations are "co-occurrence of words which are statistically much more likely to appear together than random chance suggests" (p.29). Nation (2001) uses the term collocation to define the words that co-occur for two reasons: because they are

commonly used together by language users, (e.g., take a shower), or because the meaning of the groups is not obvious from the meaning of the parts like "how do you do?"

3. Purpose of the Study

Collocations are often paid little attention to in comparison with other items in teaching English. Therefore, even though learners at intermediate or advanced levels of language proficiency know many vocabulary items and grammatical rules, they make longer sentences to make their intentions understandable, and their sentences may not make sense or do not sound natural in English. An important problem which Persian learners of English face in learning collocations is their lack of awareness of significance of collocations. Methods and strategies used for the instruction of collocations are sometimes inappropriate as well. Most of the traditional approaches have ignored the importance of fixed expressions, lexical collocations and bundles which are important for foreign language learners and they have put the emphasis on the meaning of the separate words. Most of the traditional approaches have advocated Presentation-Practice-Production (PPP) model of vocabulary instruction in classroom settings. They do not provide learners with tasks that enhance their capability in applying such elements and their mastery for real communicative situations. In other words, many teachers tend to show lists of words that they have chosen for learners, which are likely to appear in examinations, and encourage learners to memorize them. Based on these grounds, applying task-based approach may help learners to improve their collocation knowledge.

This study aimed to shed light on these controversial issues. More specifically, the purpose of this study was to compare the effects of two types of tasks (i.e. two-way vs. one-way) on collocation learning of Iranian Intermediate EFL learners. In so doing, the following research question was formulated:

RQ1: Do two-way tasks lead to a more efficient learning of collocations than one-way tasks among Iranian intermediate EFL learners?

In order to answer the research question, the following null hypothesis was formulated:

$H_{o1:}$ Two-way tasks do not lead to a more efficient learning of collocations than one-way tasks among Iranian intermediate EFL learners.

4. Method

4.1. The Design of the Study

The participants of this study were selected non-randomly, so the present study followed a quasi-experimental design. The participants of the experimental group received a 10-session treatment in which they worked with two-way tasks, while those of the control group encountered one-way tasks in the same period of time. To compare their collocation competence, the participants of both groups sat for a pretest and posttest before and after treatment, respectively. The schematic representation of the design is as follows.

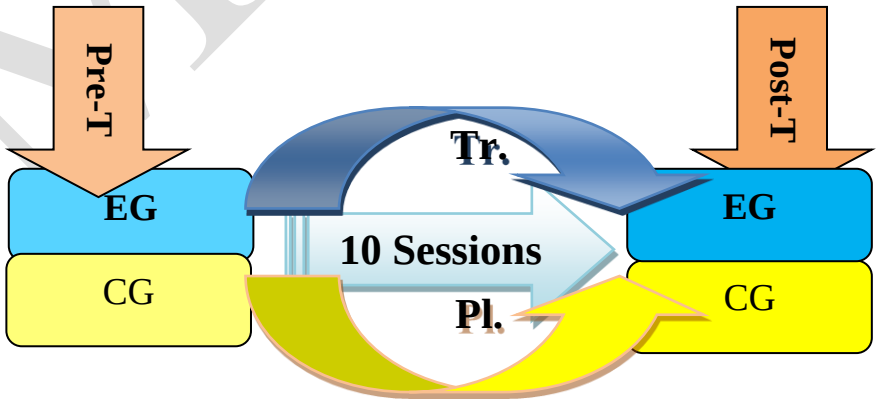

Figure 3.0. Procedure of the study

4.2. Participants

For this study, the participants were 60 male and female students majoring in English Translation at Islamic Azad University, Rasht Branch. Their range of age was between 21 and 29. They were selected among 86 students passing their 'Reading 3' course in two intact classes. One intact class was

randomly chosen as the experimental group, and the other one as control group. To keep the homogeneity of the participants, a PET was administered. Among those participants who passed the exam the ones who obtained the score one SD above and below the mean were selected for the study.

4.3. Instruments

4.3.1. PET

The English language proficiency test used in the study for homogenizing the subjects was a sample of the Preliminary English Test (PET) adopted from "Objective PET" by Louise Hashemi and Barbara Thomas (2010), Cambridge University Press. It tests four skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking.

4.3.2. Pretest

The purpose of this test administered before the treatment was to find the possible initial differences between the collocation competence of the experimental and control groups. It included 20 collocations and required the participants to either give an L1 equivalent or an L2 definition for the target collocations. The procedures to pilot and choose these 20 target collocations are described below.

4.3.3. Target Collocations

A total of 20 target collocations were selected according to the following criteria: First, 30 students who were representative of the sample selected for this study, were asked to choose unknown collocations from a list of 50 collocations selected from the intermediate level of the book entitled 'English Collocations in Use' (O'Dell &McCarthy, 2005). Based on their responses, the following 20 target collocations (table 4.1) that were unfamiliar to all students were selected for the study.

Table 4.1.

The List of 20 Target Collocations Used in the Study

Swallow your pride	Square meal
Droopy moustache	Pay a compliment
Sharp difference	Pay tribute
Considerable amount	Hard frost
Bitterly disappointed	Budget accommodation
Breathtaking scenery	Secluded beach
Substantiate a claim	Tranquil countryside
Brisk business	Volume of traffic
Absolutely impossible	Bumper-to-bumper traffic
A permanent job	Shanty town

4.3.4. Posttest

This test which was administered after the treatment sessions was equal in all respects to pretest except for the arrangement of the target collocations. This rearrangement was done to control for the probable testing effect. The participants were again required to provide the English equivalents or the Persian translations of these collocations in writing.

4.4. Data Collection Procedures and Data Analysis

This study was conducted in September 2014. Two intact classes including 42 and 44 students at Islamic Azad University, Rasht branch, were randomly selected as the experimental and control groups. To make sure of their homogeneity, all the participants, majoring in English translation and passing their 'Reading 3' course, sat for a PET. Among those participants who passed the exam the ones who obtained the score one SD above and below the mean were selected for the study. Therefore, 60 participants (30 in each intact class) remained and the scores of other students were excluded from the data analysis in the remaining phases of this study (i.e. pretest and posttest). A pretest piloted before with a reliability index of 0.75was then administered. This test required the participants to either give an L1 equivalent or an L2 definition for the 20 target collocations piloted

and selected before. An independent-samples t-test was run to find any possible initial differences between the performance of participants in the experimental and control groups in the pretest. After making sure of the homogeneity of the groups with respect to their collocation competence, the experimental group received a 10-session treatment through which the participants in this group encountered and performed two-way tasks. Meanwhile, the participants in control group encountered and performed one-way tasks. At the end of these 10 sessions, a post-test was administered which was equal in all respects to pretest except for the arrangement of the target collocations. This rearrangement was done to control for the probable testing effect. The participants were again required to provide the English equivalents or the Persian translations of these collocations in writing. Another independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the means of the experimental group and control group in the posttest with the alpha level set at 0.5. To compare the means of these two groups from pretest to posttest, two paired-samples t-tests were run too.

5. Results

This study aimed to investigate the possible effects of two types of tasks namely one-way and two-way on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' collocation competence. In so doing, a pretest-treatment-posttest design was followed. The participants of both groups (i.e. experimental & control) sat for a teacher-made collocation pretest first. The results of the pretest, then, were put into SPSS. The descriptive statistics of this test are presented in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1.
Descriptive statistics for groups on the pre-test

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Two-way tasks	30	6.0333	6.0333
One-way tasks	30	6.0000	6.0000

To determine whether there was any statistically significant difference between the scores of the two groups in pretest, an independent samples t-test was run. The results are presented in table 5.2.

Table 5.2.
Independent samples T-Test on pre-test

	t-test for Equality of MeansLevene's T			
	t	**df**	**Sig. 2tailed**	**Sig.**
Equal variances assumed	.150	58	.881	
Equal variances not assumed	.150	57.215	.881	.769

The obtained Sig. value (p= .881), which is above our cut-off of 0.05, indicted that the two groups did not perform differently in the pretest. Then, the participants (following a 10-session period of intervention and non-intervention) sat for a posttest too. The results of the posttest were put into SPSS too. The descriptive statistics of this test are presented in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3.
Descriptive statistics for groups on the post-test

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Two-way tasks	30	16.53	4.67
One-way tasks	30	14.60	3.04

To determine whether there was any statistically significant difference between the scores of the two groups in posttest, another independent-samples T-test was run. The results are presented in table 5.4.

Table 5.4.
Independent samples T-Test on post-test

	t-test for Equality of MeansLevene's T			
	t	**df**	**Sig. 2tailed**	Sig.
Equal variances assumed	6.984	58	.000	
Equal variances not assumed	6.984	53.328	.000	.011

As it can be seen, this time our Sig. value is less than .05 (p= .000) indicating a statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the groups in the posttest.
To compare the mean scores of participants in the experimental and control groups from pretest to posttest, two paired-samples t-tests were run. The results of these tests are presented in the following tables.

Table 5.5.
Paired sample result for the experimental group of the study

		N	**Sig.**
Pair 1	PreEX&PosEX	30	.000

Table 5.5 presents the results for the paired-samples t-test for two sets of the learners' scores in the experimental group in both pretest and posttest. The Sig. value is smaller than 0.05 which means that there is a statistically significant difference between the scores of participants in the experimental group from pretest to posttest.

Table 5.6.
Paired sample result for the control group of the study

		N	**Sig.**
Pair 1	PreCON&PosCON	30	.000

Table 5.6 presents the results for the paired-samples t-test for two sets of the learners' scores in the control group in both pretest and posttest. The Sig. value is again smaller than 0.05 which means that there is a statistically significant difference between the scores of participants in the control group from pretest to posttest too.
As it was mentioned earlier, a hypothesis about the effect of two-way tasks and one-way tasks on Iranian EFL students' collocation competence was proposed. The participants of both groups (i.e. experimental and control) sat for a pretest and a posttest. Based on the obtained results, the null hypothesis of this study (i.e. two-way tasks do not lead to a more efficient collocation learning than one-way tasks among Iranian EFL learners) was rejected.

6. Discussion

This study sought to compare the impact of two types of tasks (i.e. one-way and two-way) on EFL learners' collocation competence. To this end, two intact classes were randomly chosen as experimental and control groups. All the participants sat for a pretest. The purpose of this test was to find out any possible initial differences between the groups with respect to their knowledge of collocations. The Sig. value obtained from the independent-samples t-test run on the scores of participants in pretest indicated no statistically significant difference between the groups. Then a 10-session treatment and placebo were conducted for the experimental and control groups respectively. Afterwards, another independent-samples t-test was run on the scores of participants in the posttest. The results (p= .00) indicated a statistically significant difference between the performance of the two groups in posttest. This led to the rejection of the null hypothesis of this study. Based on these findings, two-way tasks are more beneficial in teaching and learning collocations than one-way tasks.

The results of this study shed light on applicability of two-way activities in teaching collocations. The outperformance of the experimental group in this study is possibly due to the priority of two-way tasks in creating engagement and interaction among learners. By using interactional and communicative tasks such as "jigsaw puzzle, cue-card activity, memorizing cards, jumbled sentences", and…etc., which create interaction and cooperation among learners, learning and teaching different skills and components of language (e.g. collocations) can be facilitated. Task-based language teaching (especially two-way tasks) proved to be more fruitful than the conventional instruction.

In recent years, remarkable efforts have been made to investigate the effects of task-based language teaching on different aspects of language. Blake (2000) claim that two-way tasks such as jigsaw tasks due to their convergent nature would elicit more negotiation of meaning than other task types. "In a small-scale classroom study (Newton, 2013), two-way tasks were found better than opinion-gap tasks for learning new vocabulary items" (cited in Long, 2015, p.242). Some studies (e.g. Iwashita, 2001; Shehadeh, 2001), however, indicated that one-way tasks allow more modification of output than two-way tasks (Long, 2015, p.242). Jauregi (1990, reported in Ondarra, 1997) found that a one-way task (describe-and-draw) produced more negotiation work than a two-way task (talking about future plan). This finding enjoys opposite results in comparison with the current study.

7. Conclusion

Collocation is an important component of language for second and foreign language learners; however, due to the great number of them and the lack of a systematic rule to learn them, it is extremely problematic to learn. This study attempted to find the effect of two types of tasks namely two-way and one-way (conventional) on Iranian EFL learners' collocation competence. Based on the findings of this study, incorporating tasks and task-based activities in EFL classrooms enhance acquisition of collocations and task-based teaching is a suitable and effective alternative for traditional methods of teaching collocations. Moreover, two-way tasks are more beneficial to teaching collocations to Iranian intermediate EFL learners than one-way tasks.

8. Suggestions for Further Research

In sum, only two-way and one-way tasks and their effects on collocational competence of Iranian intermediate EFL learners were investigated. Maybe for future research it is beneficial to study and review the effect of two-way tasks on teaching and learning four main language skills i.e. listening, writing, speaking, reading as well as the components of language such as grammar, and pronunciation. Investigating the possible effects of these types of tasks on learners belonging to other age groups and with other proficiency levels (i.e. elementary or advanced) can also fill some research gaps in this field. The effect of two-way tasks on Iranian EFL learners' translation ability is another avenue of research with probable fruitful results and findings.

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THE IMPACT OF FIRST LANGUAGE POLYSEMOUS WORDS ON THE PRODUCTION OF SECOND LANGUAGE LEXICAL ITEMS

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ABSTRACT
POLYSEMY IS ONE OF THE MOST PROBLEMATIC AREAS AND ONE OF THE MOST IMPORTANT SKILLS TO BE LEARNT IN THE PROCESS OF SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING. THIS STUDY ATTEMPTS TO INVESTIGATE THE IMPACT OF FIRST LANGUAGE POLYSEMOUS WORDS ON THE PRODUCTION OF SECOND LANGUAGE LEXICAL ITEMS. TO DO SO, 60 OUT OF A PILE OF 97 MALE EFL LEARNERS WERE SELECTED BASED ON THE RESULTS OF THEIR QUICK PLACEMENT TEST, AND THEY WERE ASSIGNED TO ELEMENTARY AND INTERMEDIATE GROUP. TWO GROUPS OF POLYSEMOUS WORDS, 20 VERBS AND 20 NOUNS, WERE CHOSEN FROM *HAIM* AND *MOIN PERSIAN DICTIONARIES*, AND THEY WERE TAUGHT TO THE STUDENTS IN FOUR SESSIONS, 30 MINUTES OF EACH TWO-HOUR IN EACH SESSION, FIVE VERBS AND FIVE NOUNS. ONE WEEK AFTER THE LAST SESSION, THE LEARNERS WERE TESTED WITH THE POSTTEST IN WHICH THEY WERE SUPPOSED TO COMPLETE EACH STATEMENT WITH THE ENGLISH WORD WHICH THEY CONSIDERED SUITABLE FOR THE GIVEN FARSI WORD. THE RESULTS OF THE TWO TESTS WERE ANALYSED THROUGH A PAIRED-SAMPLE T-TEST AND TWO INDEPENDENT-SAMPLE T-TESTS. THE ANALYSES SHOWED THAT ALL OF THE PARTICIPANTS ANSWERED QUESTIONS RELATED TO NOUNS BETTER THAN THE QUESTIONS RELATED TO VERBS; MOREOVER, THE INTERMEDIATE GROUP OUTPERFORMED THE ELEMENTARY GROUP IN PRODUCING BOTH L2 POLYSEMOUS NOUNS AND VERBS. THE RESULTS OF THE STUDY HAVE IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHERS, RESEARCHERS, AND MATERIAL DEVELOPERS.

KEY WORD: LEXICAL ITEM, POLYSEMY, SEMANTIC PRODUCTION, ELEMENTARY LEARNERS, INTERMEDIATE LEARNERS

Introduction

Polysemy is a noticeable ambiguous lexical element in the studies of linguistics. During even a short process of reading lots of polysemous words may be encountered. As noted by Guttler and William (2008), during a day a big part of our mental lexicon activities are devoted to process different aspects of polysemous words.

According to Kang (1995) with regard to mental lexicon, it is not enough to have the vocabulary knowledge for a language learner but besides this person should be aware of the applications of different senses of polysemous words of that language, since polysemy words can be a source of ambiguity in the process of L2 learning. According to *Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics* (2002), a word, phrase, or sentence, which has more than one meaning is said to be ambiguous. Traditionally, two kinds of lexical ambiguity are considered: *polysemy* and *homonymy*. While polysemy is the ambiguity between various senses of a lexeme, which are in some way related to each other, homonymy is the ambiguity between completely unconnected or diachronically separate meanings (Rumshisky, 2009).

With attention to the role and value of polysemous words, it is claimed that the ambiguity is considered as a challenging and thought-provoking element in language and therefore it plays a very noticeable role in language interpretation (Langaker, 1988). As Williams (1992) mentioned, the vital role of polysemous words can be inferred from their availability in everyday language. Polysemy becomes more important when two languages are involved because in some cases it has been observed that one word in a language is monosemous while that word has two or more equivalences in the other language (Klepousniotou, 2007).

In spite of the importance of polysemy in language use and interpretation, very little attention has been paid to their pedagogical practices and their presentation in teaching materials and this fact becomes more prominent when it comes to the interpretation of L1 polysemous words (Hino & Lupker, 2006). In almost all available studies so far, none of the studies has aimed systematically to investigate the effect of the co-activation of L1 polysemous words on L2. Therefore, it seems that it is of crucial importance to investigate such issue in L2 learning literature, an issue which is the focus of the present study.

1. **Review of Literature**

In the studies in the field of L2, a lot of researches on ambiguous words belong to homonymy not polysemy (e.g., Bierwische & Schreuder, 1992; Brown, 2006; Rodd, 2002). It is also noteworthy that most of the studies which are devoted to polysemy are about L2 polysemy and its effect on L1 polysemy and therefore some researchers have decided to discover about L1 polysemy and its effect on L2 polysemy.

Among these researchers we can point to Kroll and Stewart (1994) who mention that in the process of the effect of L1 polysemy on L2 two very important aspects should be concentrated: the first one is *lexical-level translation connection* which refers to the direct relationship between a word in L2 and its translation in L1 through a link in the lexical-level. The second aspect mentioned by these researchers is *co-activation of L1 polysemous senses* which implies that different senses of an L1 polysemous word activate each other at the same time.

So far, a variety of models has been introduced to explain about L2 polysemy acquisition and its effect on L2 word recognition. One of the most recent models is the underlying meaning model presented by Nation (2001). This model, which is a technique to introduce new and different senses of L2 polysemous words and describes a pedagogical procedure for L2 polysemy, claims that different senses of an L2 polysemous word should be presented and taught in a context by asking about or providing L2 learners with all of the common properties in all senses.

Another perspective of the processing of L2 polysemous words is represented by Read (2005). In his consideration, Read investigated vocabulary knowledge not only from the aspect of quantity (or breath) but also quality (or depth). By quantity of vocabulary knowledge he concentrates on the number of known words, and by the word quality he concentrates on vocabulary knowledge including collocations and polysemous senses, and he thinks that L2 learners should improve their vocabulary knowledge both qualitatively and quantitatively. In line with this opinion he conducted a test which was based on the test conducted by Dolch and Heeds (1987) on various vocabulary sets. In his study L2 polysemous words were followed by three different definitions of the senses of that polysemous word and a distracting definition and the participants were asked to select the

appropriate meaning for that polysemous word which was represented in a paragraph. Finally he found that L2 learners in his study who took this test could reflect their vocabulary knowledge, especially their knowledge of ambiguous words, much better than those who took the test including four vocabulary items with no definition of polysemous senses.

The other model is worth mentioning here is Meara's (1997) model known as polysemy network connection. He describes mental lexicon as a network and concludes that learning a word activates a connection between the new word and the already existing words, and therefore according to this view the more the connections, the more the known words. Via this model, when a polysemous word is provided one sense which is the known word, will be linked to other senses. This property is one of the advantages of this model because based on this property learners are not forced to learn all meanings of an L2 polysemous word at once, but L2 teachers can teach one sense and then connect it to the other sense later on.

2. Research Questions

With regard to the phenomenon of lexicalization pattern and polysemy as its major issue, the following questions are posed to be investigated in this study:

1. Does the type of L1 polysemous words (i.e., nouns vs. verbs) influence the production of L2 words?
2. Do high-proficient L2 learners perform the same as the low-proficient L2 learners in terms of producing L2 polysemous nouns?
3. Do high-proficient learners perform the same as the low-proficient L2 learners in terms of producing L2 polysemous verbs?

4. Research Hypotheses

Accordingly, the following null hypotheses are formulated:

1. The type of L1 polysemous words (i.e., nouns vs. verbs) does not influence the production of L2 words.
2. High-proficient L2 learners are not different from low-proficient L2 learners in terms of producing L2 polysemous nouns.
3. High-proficient L2 learners are not different from low-proficient L2 learners in terms of producing L2 polysemous verbs.

5. Methodology

5.1. Participants

The Participants in this study were 60 EFL learners who were selected non-randomly by administering the Quick Placement Test (Oxford University Press and University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate). According to the test level chart, 30 students who scored between 28 and 36 were put in intermediate group, and 30 learners who scored between 18 and 27 were assigned to elementary group. All the participants were male students whose first language was Farsi. Their age range was between 17 and 23 with a mean of 18.6. The participants in intermediate group have been studying English at language institutes for over a ear, and the participants in elementary group have been studying English in the same institute for about a year.

5.2. Instruments

The materials for this study comprised three sets, the QPT, 20 polysemous nouns and 20 polysemous verbs, and the posttest.

5.2.1. The QPT

In order to control for the proficiency factor, there was a need to homogenize the participants according to their level of L2 proficiency. To do so, the Quick Placement Test (QPT) was used to select the intermediate group. The test consists of 60 questions. There were five questions related to their knowledge of different signs and notices used to indicate particular meanings, five cloze passages (25 questions), 20 multiple-choice questions which assessed the participants' knowledge of grammar, 10 multiple-choice questions related to the knowledge of vocabulary.

5.2.2. The Polysemous Words

By using *Haim* and *Moin Persian Dictionaries*, 80 words, 40 verbs and 40 nouns, which could have different meanings in English, were chosen. Then they were given to three MA students of English translation to write their English equivalents. After checking the experts' responses, 20 polysemous verbs and 20 polysemous nouns were selected as the main words to be dealt with.

5.2.3. The Posttest

The researchers prepared a 30-item test which contained the 20 polysemous verbs and 20 polysemous nouns. For each item of the test, the participants were supposed to choose between the two different meanings of the Persian word which was given in the parentheses.

By administering this test to the main participants, it was given to two university professors to give their opinion about the test. Then using their comments, the researchers revised the test and pilot-tested it against 10 intermediate students for checking the plausibility and reliability of the test. The results of the pilot study showed that the test was plausible, and its reliability turned out to be .872 by using the Cronbach's Alfa formula.

5.3. Procedure

In order to select the required number of participants, the researchers referred to one of English Language teaching institutes in Esfahan, Iran, and using QPT tested 97 EFL learners, 48 of whom, according to the institute manager, were at intermediate level, and the other 49 learners were elementary learners. Then, according to the test results, he chose 30 intermediate learners and 30 elementary learners.

In the next stage, by using Haim and Moin Dictionaries, 40 verbs and 40 nouns, which could have different meanings in English, were chosen. Then they were given to three MA students of translation to write their English equivalents. After checking the experts' responses, 20 polysemous verbs and 20 polysemous nouns were selected as the main words to be dealt with.

The next step was to prepare the appropriate statements for the posttest. After deciding on the statements, the researchers consulted with two experts, and the statements were revised according to their comments. Moreover, in order to make sure that the statements were suitable for the intended population and also to decide on the timing for the test, 10 intermediate students from the same institute were asked to complete the sentences.

Having finished with the preliminary procedure for preparing the required instruments and choosing the main participants of the study, the researchers started teaching the polysemous words to the students. The teaching was done in four sessions, 30 minutes of each two-hour class. It should be mentioned that in each session, five verbs and five nouns were taught. One week after the last session, the learners were supposed to complete each statement with the English word which they thought was a suitable equivalent for the given Farsi word.

6. Results

The result section consists of three subsections, one being devoted to one of the hypotheses.

6.1. Investigating the First Null Hypothesis

In ordrer to find out whether or not the participants performed differently with regard to two types of polysemous words, after carrying out the experiment, the groups were given a test on the taught words to check for the possible differences. Table 1 indicates the descriptive statistics for the posttest.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics for Hpotheseis One

	Mean	N	SD	SEM
Nouns	8.60	60	2.842	.367
Verbs	6.70	60	1.942	.251

Table 1 confirms that there is a difference between the two sets of words (i.e., nouns and verbs), but they do not tell whether this difference is significant or not. In order to find this out, a paired-sample t-test was employed. Table 2 presents the results of this t-test.

Table 2. The Results of the Paired-sample t-test for Hypothesis One

T	Df	Sig.	Mean Difference
10.711	59	.000	1.90

Since the figures in Table 2 reveal that the amount of t-observed (t(59) = 10.711) is high enough to be statistically significant (p = .000), and since the amount of t-observed is positive, it can be concluded that the participants answered questions related to nouns better than the questions about verbs. Therefore, the first null hypothesis can safely be rejected. In other words, the type of polysemy does not affect the EFL learners in producing the L2 words.

6.2. Investigating the Second Null Hypothesis

By proposing the second null hypothesis, the researchers tried to understand if participants with different proficiency levels performed differently although they all went through the same procedure for learning the polysemous nouns. For this purpose, the results of the test of the two groups on nouns were compared. Table 3 depicts the descriptive statistics for this comparison.

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics for Hypothesis Two

Groups	N	Mean	SD	SEM
Intermediate	30	11.03	1.497	.273
Elementary	30	6.17	1.392	.254

According to Table 3, the means of the two groups are different, and it affirms that the two groups of participants performed differently. However, it does not show whether or not this difference is statistically significant. To answer this question, an independent-sample t-test was run. Table 4 indicates the results of this t-test.

Table 4. The Results of the Independent-sample t-test for Hypothesis Two

T	Df	Sig.	Mean Difference
13.042	58	.000	4.87

By checking the table for the independent-sample t-test, that is, Table 4, it can be seen that the amount of t-observed (13.042) is meaningful at the significance level of p = .000. In other words, since the amount of t-observed is positive, it can be concluded that the intermediate group outperformed the elementary group. As a result, the second hypothesis is rejected, and it can be claimed that EFL learners with different proficiency levels perform differently on the test of polysemous nouns.

6.3. Investigating the Third Hypothesis

For testing the third hypothesis, the same procedure was followed as that for the second hypothesis except for the type of word; that is, for hypothesis two the polysemous nouns were taken into account, but for hypothesis three the focus was on the polysemous verbs. For this purpose, the result of the test of the two groups on verbs were compared. Table 5 reports the descriptive statistics for this comparison.

Table 5. Descriptive Statistics for Hypothesis Three

Groups	N	Mean	SD	SEM
Intermediate	30	8.30	1.264	.231
Elementary	30	5.10	.885	.162

As it can clearly be seen in Table 5, the two means are not the same which denotes that the performances of the participants in the two proficiency groups are not similar. Since the above table does not provide enough information to decide if this difference is statistically significant or not, another independent-sample t-test was needed to find it out. Table 6 indicates the results of this t-test.

Table 6. The Results of the Independent-sample t-test for Hypothesis Three

T	Df	Sig.	Mean Difference
11.363	58	.000	3.20

Investigating the data in the table for the independent-sample t-test reveals that, that amount of t-observed (11.363) is significant at the probability level of p = .000. In other words, since the amount of t-observed is positive, it can be concluded that, once again, the intermediate group showed a better performance than the elementary group. As a result, the third null hypothesis, like the other two hypotheses, can safely be rejected, and it can be claimed that EFL learners with different proficiency levels perform differently on the test of polysemy verbs although they are taught with the same procedure.

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7. Discussion

The findings of this study showed that L1 polysemous words (i.e., nouns vs. verbs) affect the production of L2 words in that the participants answered questions related to nouns better than the questions about verbs. As far as the researchers considered, no exact research was found about the priority of nouns or verbs in polysemy production but in a study by Elston-Guttler and Williams (2007) almost similar result was drawn. They investigated the influence of first language (L1) lexicalization patterns on the processing of second language (L2) words in sentential contexts by advanced German learners of English. The focus was on cases where a polysemous word in the L1 was realized by independent words in the L2. The results showed that for nouns, access to L1 concepts was likely to be involved in the interference effects, either via a lexical-level translation connection or directly from L2 words, but in the case of verbs, both the natives and non-native learners showed highly significant interference in the highly related verbs conditions.

The second result showed that the intermediate group outperformed the elementary group in terms of producing L2 polysemous nouns. Zuo (2011) in a study attempted to explore factors affecting polysemous characterization. These factors were the level of learner language proficiency, different parts of speech polysemy, including nouns, verbs, adjectives, and polysemy generation mechanisms, including metaphor and metonymy. Objects of this article were the first grade and third grade students of English majors. The experiment consisted of two test tools. The first one was British turned Han practice which aimed to explore the representation or independent polysemy characterization tended to the core meaning of a word, and the other one was meaning associated strength test which was designed to explore the impact of different factors on the meanings on their strength of the association. The experimental results showed that: 1) low level language learners tended core senses characterization and the strength of their association between the various meanings were stronger. 2) Meaning characterization of high level language learners tended to separate, and the strength of association between the nouns were weak, and 3) noun polysemy characterization was significantly different.

The last result showed that the intermediate group outperformed the elementary group although they were taught with the same procedures in terms of producing L2 polysemous verbs. The purpose of a study by Makni (2013) was to compare the pedagogic efficiency of two methods for teaching polysemous vocabulary- the *image-schema-based vocabulary instruction method* (ISBM) and the *translation-based vocabulary instruction method* (TBM). Additionally, this study aimed to evaluate the way in which three learner characteristics involving language proficiency contributed to individual differences in acquiring polysemous words. Finally the results showed that the higher the language proficiency of the learners was, the better they would be at understanding and retaining polysemous words. Verbs appear to be especially problematic for L2 learners. In another study with congruent result with our study, Kallkvist (1997, cited in Gutller & Williams, 2008) found that verbs were more likely than nouns to be used incorrectly by advanced Swedish learners in written compositions and in retellings of stories.

As far as the researchers have concerned, there were no studies about the effect of L1 polysemous words (i.e., nouns vs. verbs) on the production of L2 words and whether this L2 word production is different between high and low proficient L2 learners. Our research showed that the participants answered questions related to nouns better than the questions about verbs and it was also proven that high proficient learners outperformed low proficient learners in terms of producing L2 polysemous nouns and verbs. Therefore, it seems that we cannot ignore the effect of L1 on second language learning. Our study, like lots of other studies, has proven that L1 affects L2 learning, and more proficient learners act better in second language production.

8. Conclusion

This research program investigated the effect of L1 polysemous words on the production of L2 words. Two types of polysemous words- nouns and verbs- along with proficiency level were explored by two high and low proficient experimental groups. The results gave us a clear understanding of the problems of L2 learners in terms of the production of L2 words. The result of our study is consistent with results of some other studies which have concluded that nouns and verbs in English differ in many ways. Our study has shown that polysemous nouns are not only easier to be acquired but also to be produced. Our results bear out some of the previous findings for polysemous English words; L2 polysemous nouns were produced easier than verbs and high proficient learners outperformed low proficient learners. The effect of L1 on L2 learning has been proven in lots of different studies about

aspects of L2 and even different aspects of polysemy, but as far as the researchers studied, there has been no study to investigate the effect of L1 polysemous words on the production of L2 words and whether this production is related to the proficiency level of learners or not. Thus, the results of the present study have enriched the previous literature, and it shows that L1 is effective on the production of L2 polysemous words and more proficient learners act better in the process of production.

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THE SCOPE OF DISCOURSE ANALYSIS AND LANGUAGE TEACHING (A REVIEW)

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ABSTRACT

A DESIRABLE AND ANTICIPATED EFFECT OF THE STUDY OF DISCOURSE IS ALSO THE DEVELOPMENT OF AN OPEN AND TOLERANT MIND WHICH WILL EVENTUALLY LEAD TO A BETTER UNDERSTANDING OF THE DIFFERENT AND VARIED MANIFESTATIONS OF LANGUAGE, CULTURE AND COMMUNICATION IN HUMAN SOCIETY (LAURA ALBA-JUEZ , 2009) . WITH THE EMERGENCE OF DISCOURSE ANALYSIS, MORE AND MORE LINGUISTS AND PEDAGOGISTS BEGIN TO APPLY THE RESEARCH FINDINGS AND RESULTS IN THIS FIELD TO LANGUAGE LEARNING AND TEACHING. DISCOURSE ANALYSIS AS THE SCIENTIFIC STUDY OF LANGUAGE USE IN CONTEXT MAINLY INVOLVES LOOKING AT BOTH LANGUAGE FORM AND LANGUAGE FUNCTION AND INCLUDES THE STUDY OF BOTH SPOKEN INTERACTION AND WRITTEN TEXTS. IT TRIES TO IDENTIFY LINGUISTIC FEATURES THAT CHARACTERIZE DIFFERENT GENRES AS WELL AS SOCIAL AND CULTURAL FACTORS THAT AID IN OUR INTERPRETATION AND UNDERSTANDING OF DIFFERENT TEXTS AND TYPES OF TALK. A DISCOURSE ANALYSIS OF WRITTEN TEXTS MIGHT INCLUDE A STUDY OF TOPIC DEVELOPMENT AND COHESION ACROSS THE SENTENCES, WHILE AN ANALYSIS OF SPOKEN LANGUAGE MIGHT FOCUS ON THESE ASPECTS PLUS TURN-TAKING PRACTICES, OPENING AND CLOSING SEQUENCES OF SOCIAL ENCOUNTERS, OR NARRATIVE STRUCTURE. THE STUDY OF DISCOURSE HAS DEVELOPED IN A VARIETY OF DISCIPLINES-SOCIOLINGUISTICS, ANTHROPOLOGY, SOCIOLOGY, AND SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY. THUS DISCOURSE ANALYSIS TAKES DIFFERENT THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES AND ANALYTIC APPROACHES: SPEECH ACT THEORY, INTERACTIONAL SOCIOLINGUISTICS, AND ETHNOGRAPHY OF COMMUNICATION, PRAGMATICS, CONVERSATION ANALYSIS, AND VARIATION ANALYSIS (SCHIFFRIN, 1994). ALTHOUGH EACH APPROACH EMPHASIZES DIFFERENT ASPECTS OF LANGUAGE USE, THEY ALL VIEW LANGUAGE AS SOCIAL INTERACTION. THE MAIN GOAL BEHIND THE PRESENT PAPER IS TO PROVIDE THE READER WITH THE BASIC SCOPE AND THEORETICAL PRINCIPLES OF DISCOURSE ANALYSIS. THE SUBJECT MATTER OF THE PAPER COULD NOT ONLY BE OF USE FOR LINGUISTS , ITS FINDINGS AND APPLICATIONS CAN BE USED AND APPLIED BY PRACTITIONERS AND SCHOLARS FROM DIFFERENT FIELDS OF STUDY , SUCH AS SOCIOLOGY, PSYCHOLOGY, MEDICAL SCIENCE, COMPUTER SCIENCE, AND SO ON. THE WRITER WOULD LIKE TO POINT OUT THAT THIS PAPER DOES NOT CLAIM ORIGINALITY IN ITS CONTENT, IN THE SENSE THAT NO NEW THEORY OF DISCOURSE ANALYSIS IS

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PRESENTED OR OUTLINED. THE MAIN AIM HAS BEEN TO PRESENT A STATE-OF -THE-ART DESCRIPTION OF SOME OF THE ALREADY EXISTING APPROACHES TO THE DISCIPLINE, AS WELL AS ITS MAIN ISSUES OR CONCERNS. HOWEVER, THE ORGANIZATION OF IDEAS AND APPROACHES ALONG WITH THE PEDAGOGICAL ORIENTATIONS TIRES TO CONTRIBUTE TO THE STUDY OF DISCOURSE ANALYSIS IN GENERAL.

KEYWORDS: DISCOURSE ANALYSIS, LANGUAGE TEACHER

Introduction

The origin of discourse analysis

The history and origin of Discourse analysis actually goes back to different disciplines in the 1960s and early 1970s, including linguistics semiotics, psychology, anthropology and sociology.

The publication of "Discourse analysis "(Harris 1952) by Zellig Harris showed his eagerness for the distribution of linguistic elements-in extended texts, and the links between the text and its social situation . With the emergence of semiotics and the French structuralist approach to the study of narrative in 1960s, Dell Hymes provided a sociological perspective with the study of speech in its social setting (e.g. Hymes 1964). Austin (1962), Searle (1969) and Grice (1975) were also influential in the study of language as social action, reflected in speech-act theory and the formulation of conversational maxims, alongside the emergence of pragmatics as the study of meaning in context (Levinson 1983; Leech 1983).

After the Chomskyan Generative linguistics, other schools of thoughts emerged in different parts of the world that supported opposing ideas to those of Chomsky's. They strongly believed that a good linguistic description should go **beyond the sentence level**, and the idea that there are certain meanings and aspects of language that cannot be understood if its study is limited to the syntactic analysis of sentences. Therefore, in the twentieth century, the following new disciplines emerged within the field of Linguistics:

- Functionalism (functional grammars)
- Cognitive Linguistics
- Sociolinguistics
- Pragmatics
- Text Linguistics
- Discourse Analysis

When dealing with DA, then, researchers automatically may also engage themselves in Functional Grammar, Sociolinguistics, Pragmatics or Cognitivism, because all these fields are interrelated and have common tenets. As an important element of DA is coherence concerns the idea that texts are organized at more global descriptive levels than that of the sentence. With the emergence of the cognitive theories, the notion of strategic understanding was also developed, which tried to account for what the users of a language really do when they understand a given text. Van Dijk also showed how several other new concepts were introduced in TL studies, such as socio-cultural knowledge and mental models (Johnson-Laird, 1983), as well as all the ideas and concepts coming from the field of Pragmatics. In his particular case, he took interest in the study of power and ideology, which places him within the DA stream-of-thought known as Critical Discourse Analysis. Therefore , the current goal behind DA is to describe language in the context of human interaction and this interaction often involves other media and semiotic systems besides language such as : gesture, dance, song, photography or clothing, and it is also the discourse analyst's job to explain the connection between these systems and language. So within the field of discourse not only the "purely" linguistic content , but also sign language, dramatization, or the so-called 'bodily hexis' is included(Bordieu, 1990). It can thus be concluded that discourse is multi-modal because it uses more than one semiotic system and performs several functions at the same time.

The ambiguity of the terms: Discourse Analysis and Text Linguistics

To define and describe the scope of study of discourse analysis and text linguistics and to establish the differences between them both is not an easy task.. Both terms text and discourse have been used in a variety of ways by different scholars and researchers: there is numerous theoretical approaches to

both text analysis and discourse analysis proposed by different research traditions, but all of them share similar principles. Some scholars have limited the term text to written language and discourse to spoken language. However, according to (Laura Alba-Juez , 2009) in modern linguistics the concept of text is introduced since it includes all types of utterance such as whatever which is appeared in a magazine article, a television talk show, a dialogue and so on. To Stef Slembrouck (DA web page), discourse analysis does not presuppose a bias towards the study of either spoken or written language. In fact, the monolithic character of the categories of speech and writing has been widely challenged, especially as the gaze of analysts' turns to multi-media texts and practices on the Internet. According to Crystal (1997) Text Linguistics is "the formal account of the linguistic principles governing the structure of texts". However, De Beaugrande and Dressler (1981) define text as a communicative event that must satisfy the following seven criteria:

1) Cohesion, which has to do with the relationship between text and syntax. Phenomena such as conjunction, ellipsis, anaphora, cataphora or recurrence are basic for cohesion.

2) **Coherence,** which has to do with the meaning of the text. Here we may refer to elements of knowledge or to cognitive structures that do not have a linguistic realization but are implied by the language used, and thus influence the reception of the message by the interlocutor.

3) **Intentionality,** which relates to the attitude and purpose of the speaker or writer.

4) **Acceptability,** which concerns the preparation of the hearer or reader to assess the relevance or usefulness of a given text.

5) **Informativity,** which refers to the quantity and quality of new or expected information.

6) **Situationality,** which points to the fact that the situation in which the text is produced plays a crucial role in the production and reception of the message.

7) **Intertextuality,** which refers to two main facts: a) a text is always related to some preceding or simultaneous discourse; b) texts are always linked and grouped in particular text varieties or genres (e.g.: narrative, argumentative, descriptive, etc.) by formal criteria.

Schiffrin believed that discourse analysis involves the study of both **text and context**. One might conclude that text linguistics only studies the text, while discourse analysis is more complete because it studies both text and context. However, there are definitions of text (like de Beaugrande's) that are very broad and include both elements, and that is why it would be very risky to talk about clear cut differences between the two disciplines. De Beaugrande's (2002) definition of Text Linguistics as "the study of real language in use" does not differ from many of the definitions of Discourse Analysis presented by Schiffrin within its functional approach, some of which are the following:

The study of discourse is the study of any aspect of language use (Fasold,1990: 65).The analysis of discourse is, necessarily, the analysis of language in use. As such, it cannot be restricted to the description of linguistic forms independent of the purposes or functions which these forms are designed to serve in human affairs (Brown & Yule, 1983: 1).According to (Candlin, 1997: ix) discourse… refers to language in use, as a process which is socially situated.

However, the terms Text Linguistics (TL) and Discourse Analysis (DA) are sometimes used interchangeably to mean the same. However, it seems that TL enjoys a more formal and experimental approach, while DA will mostly favor a functional approach. According to Schiffrin DA is an umbrella term which covers TL studies as well. To Slembrouck term discourse analysis is ambiguous so he provides a broad definition as follows:

DA refers mainly to the linguistic analysis of naturally occurring connected speech or written discourse. Roughly speaking, it refers to attempts to study the organization of language above the sentence or above the clause, and therefore to study larger linguistic units, such as conversational exchanges or written texts. It follows that discourse analysis is also concerned with language use in social contexts, and in particular with interaction or dialogue between speakers. (2005:1)

To Stubbs, M. (1983) discourse analysis is very ambiguous. To him, DA refers mainly to the linguistic analysis of naturally occurring connected speech or written discourse**.** Roughly speaking, it refers to attempts to study the organization of language above the sentence or above the clause, and therefore to study larger linguistic units, such as conversational exchanges or written texts. It follows that discourse analysis is also concerned with language use in social contexts, and in particular with interaction or dialogue between speakers.

The multidisciplinary nature of discourse analysis

Van Dijk truly maintains that Discourse Analysis is multidisciplinary by saying:

…discourse analysis for me is essentially multidisciplinary, and involves linguistics, poetics, semiotics, psychology, sociology, anthropology, history, and communication research. What I find crucial though is that precisely because of its multi-faceted nature, this multidisciplinary research should be integrated. We should devise theories that are complex and account both for the textual, the cognitive, the social, the political and the historical dimension of discourse. (2002: 10) . As according to Brown and Yule (1983) Discourse analysis tries to explain how humans use language to communicate and, in particular, how addressers construct linguistic messages for addressees and how addressees work on linguistic messages in order to interpret them.
Thus, when analyzing discourse, researchers are not only concerned with "purely" linguistic facts; they pay equal or more attention to language use in relation to social, political and cultural aspects. For this reason, discourse is not only within the interests of linguists; it is a field that is also studied by communication scientists, literary critics, philosophers, sociologists, anthropologists, social psychologists, political scientists, and many others. Barbara Johnstone puts it as follows:
DA is used by scholars with a variety of academic and non-academic affiliations, coming from a variety of disciplines, to answer a variety of questions. (2002: xi) .

DA has close interrelationship with other scientific approaches such as Sociolinguistics: Social interaction in conversation; social context transcribed spoken data. Psycholinguistics: Issues related to language comprehension short constructed texts (textoids) or sequences of written sentences. Philosophical linguistics: Semantic roles of sentences; relation sentences and the world, truth-values constructed sentences. Computational linguistics: Models of discourse processing, Short constructed texts Critical Discourse Analysis: The use of discourse analysis techniques to reveal ideological bias, hidden power relations, sexism, racism, etc. in discourse.

The overlap between DA and Pragmatics
Pragmatics refers to all aspects of linguistics which don't fit inside semantics, syntax or phonology .It is more about the relationship between language and its users and mainly deals with such topics as speech-acts, and what people can infer from language but is not said (implicature, pre-suppositions, indirect speech acts).In fact , pragmatics is concerned with choices in individual utterance, not patterns of choices throughout a discourse .In other words Pragmatics [is] a general cognitive, social, and cultural perspective on linguistic phenomena in relation to their usage in forms of behaviour." (Verschueren, 1999: 7)

It is clear that discourse analysis has objectives that overlap to those of pragmatics. This is because discourse is none other than a sequence of sentences in operation -in other words utterances. But while discourse analysts explain the interpretation of the elements in question without going outside language, pragmatics resorts to other ambits of human activity (beliefs, feelings, knowledge, intentions… (Margarida Bassols Puig).

Approaches to the study of language according to discourse analysis
The approaches used to deal with DA can be divide into two types : Internal approach and external approach .Internal approach: looks for internal rules that native speakers use to generate grammatically correct sentences while external approach asks how we use language to communicate .

What is discourse analysis for?
Discourse analysts in general try to investigate the use of language in context, thus they are interested in what speakers/writers do, and not so much in the formal relationships among sentences or propositions. Since discourse analysis as a social dimension, it is a method for studying how language "gets recruited 'on site' to enact specific social activities and social identities" (Gee 1999: 1). The study of DA may help to explore matters such as:

- Turn-taking in telephone conversations
- The language of humor
- Power relationships in doctor/patient interviews
- Dialogue in chat rooms
- The discourse of the archives, records or files of psychoanalysts
- The conversation at a dinner table

- The scripts of a given television program
- The discourse of politicians
- The study of racism through the use of discourse
- How power relations and sexism are manifested in the conversation between men and women
- The characteristics of persuasive discourse
- Openings and closings in different types of conversations
- The structure of narrative
- Representations of black/white people (or any race) in the written media (magazines, newspapers, etc.)
- The strategies used by speakers/writers in order to fulfill a given discourse function
- The use of irony or metaphor for certain communicative aims
- The use of linguistic politeness
- The discourse of E-mail messages
- Legal discourse used in trials
- How people create social categories like "boy" or "immigrant" or "lady" as they talk to, about, or among each other
- And a long etcetera…

DA may help those researchers studying the language in use such as:
1. Linguists who try to find out how language works, to improve our understanding of an important kind of human activity.
2. Educators who want to find out how good texts work, so that we can focus on teaching our students these writing/speaking strategies.
3. Critical analysts who seek to discover meanings in the text which are not obvious on the surface (e.g., analyzing a politician's speech to see their preconceptions).

Discourse analysis for language teaching

Since language learners face the monumental task of acquiring not only new vocabulary, syntactic patterns, and phonology, but also discourse competence, sociolinguistic competence, strategic competence, and interactional competence. They need opportunities to investigate the systematicity of language at all linguistic levels, especially at the highest level (Riggenbach, 1999; Young and He, 1998). Without knowledge of and experience with the discourse and sociocultural patterns of the target language, second language learners are likely to rely on the strategies and expectations acquired as part of their first language development, which may be inappropriate for the second language setting and may lead to communication difficulties and misunderstandings.

For language learners

One problem for second language learners is limited experience with a variety of interactive practices in the target language. Therefore, one of the goals of second language teaching is to expose learners to different discourse patterns in different texts and interactions. One way that teachers can include the study of discourse in the second language classroom is to allow the students themselves to study language, that is, to make them discourse analysts (see Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000; McCarthy & Carter, 1994; Riggenbach, 1999). By exploring natural language use in authentic environments, learners gain a greater appreciation and understanding of the discourse patterns associated with a given genre or speech event as well as the sociolinguistic factors that contribute to linguistic variation across settings and contexts. For example, students can study speech acts in a service encounter, turn-taking patterns in a conversation between friends, opening and closings of answering machine messages, or other aspects of speech events. Riggenbach (1999) suggests a wide variety of activities that can easily be adapted to suit a range of second language learning contexts.

For language teachers

Nowadays the time of teaching language in isolation without its use is over. For an effective language teacher, the context plays a major role in teaching the new language in real life situations .In this way, language learners would be able to comprehend and use the language effectively and recognize the function of the utterances they may hear or see in their future linguistics material. With the

emergence of popular idea of functionalism in the study of language, the study of how language as it is used, and to find out what the specific purposes that language serves for us, and how the members of a language community achieve and react to these purposes through speaking, reading, writing and listening is a must both for language teachers and the language learners as well. For this reason, Simpson says: "It is clear that the use of language ... is part of a communication channel that includes non-linguistic behavior.

To this end, language teachers changed their attitudes towards teaching language as communication after 1970s. Many studies in Discourse Analysis (text, context, authentic texts, conversation analysis, function) and pragmatics (speech acts, psychopragmatics, sociopragmatics, pragmalinguistics) led to the emergence of such a change. It is out of question that language learners should consider form along with function to accomplish accuracy and fluency in the target language. As Widdowson mentions : "Knowing a language does not mean to understand, speak, read and write sentences, it means to know how sentences are used to communicate effect." Since the purpose is to accept language a tool for communication, the students have to be trained accordingly.

Conclusion

The study of the scope of discourse analysis has developed into a variety of disciplines-sociolinguistics, anthropology, sociology, and social psychology. In fact, discourse analysis takes different theoretical perspectives and analytic approaches: speech act theory, interactional sociolinguistics, ethnography of communication, pragmatics, conversation analysis, and variation analysis (Schiffrin, 1994). Although each approach emphasizes different aspects of language use, they all view language as social interaction.

Discourse analysts are mainly eager to study the actual patterns of use in naturally occurring texts. These natural texts, once transcribed and annotated, are known as the **corpus**, which constitutes the basis for analysis. Thus, discourse analysts necessarily take a corpus-based approach to their research. DA explores the language of face-to-face conversations, telephone conversations, e-mail messages, etc., and they may study power relations, the structure of turn-taking, politeness strategies, the linguistic manifestation of racism or sexism, and many, many other aspects of language in use. The sky is the limit!

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THE EFFECT OF TEACHER'S FACIAL EXPRESSIONS ON TEACHING PHONETICS

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ABSTRACT
THE PURPOSE OF THIS STUDY WAS TO REVEAL THE POSSIBLE EFFECT OF EFL TEACHERS' FACIAL EXPRESSIONS ON S' UNDERSTANDING OF TRUE PRONUNCIATION PATTERNS. THE STUDY TRIED TO SHED LIGHT ON DIFFERENT FACTORS AFFECTING THE AMOUNT OF PHONETIC INPUT RECEIVED BY EFL LEARNERS REGARDING GENDER AND PROFICIENCY LEVEL. THE FOCUS OF THE STUDY WAS ON PRONUNCIATION OF THE CONSONANT 'TH' BOTH VOICED AND VOICELESS, DIPHTHONGS; AND OTHER VOWEL AND CONSONANT PRONUNCIATIONS THROUGH PRESENCE AND ABSENCE OF TEACHERS' FACIAL EXPRESSION IN ENGLISH CLASSES. IN THE FIRST STAGE OF THE STUDY A GROUP OF 92 EFL LEARNERS WERE GIVEN THE OPT TEST (OXFORD PLACEMENT TEST) TO BE HOMOGENIZED BASED ON THEIR PROFICIENCY LEVEL; NAMELY, ELEMENTARY, INTERMEDIATE. LATER ON, THE EFL LEARNERS WERE INTERVIEWED BY THE RESEARCHER TO GET A SCORE FOR THEIR PRONUNCIATION ACCURACY AS THE PRETEST. THE MEAN SCORE AND STANDARD DEVIATION OF THE TEST WERE GAUGED FOR BOTH LEVEL PARTICIPANTS GROUPS TO BE COMPARED WITH THE RESULTS GAINED FROM THE POSTTEST. THE RESULTS GAINED PROVED THAT EFL LEARNERS IN THE ELEMENTARY LEVEL BENEFITED FROM TEACHERS' FACIAL EXPRESSION MORE THAN INTERMEDIATE EFL LEARNERS.

KEY WORDS: PHONETICS, NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION, FACIAL EXPRESSION, LANGUAGE TEACHING.

1. INTRODUCTION

All language teachers have for sure asked EFL learners to pay attention to their non-verbal communicative signals in the classroom. It indicates the importance of non-verbal messages in decoding linguistic messages. A well-known research by Mehrabian (1971) resulted in an often quoted formula:

Total liking = 7% Verbal liking + 38% Vocal liking + 55% Facial liking

As the formula suggests facial liking which refers to the facial expression of the speaker plays an important role in understanding the messages. Other effective factors include gestures, intonation and voice quality. Facial expression which is the main variable in the present study is important in

true interpretation of the messages received from the speaker and also plays a significant role in the learning environment.

Brown (2007) states that teachers and EFL learners use nonverbal features differently. Good teachers use nonverbal features a lot when teaching. In contrast, many learners have been found to use little or no nonverbal features in class, even those learners who seem to use nonverbal features expressively when speaking in their native language.

The present study aims at finding possible relationships between facial expressions of the teacher while teaching and EFL learners' accuracy in pronunciation. It tries to discover other possibly influential factors such as gender and proficiency level as potential moderator variables.

This study is an investigation in the realm of language teaching – phonetics in particular. The researcher attempts to gauge the effect of facial expression, as a crucial factor can affect EFL learners' intake while learning phonetics. This can be dependent on EFL learners' gender and the level in which they study as other variables in this study. Estimating the importance of facial expression in teaching phonetics can help teachers and curriculum designers take benefit in creating novel teaching techniques. It can also be a source for further studies on other different aspects of non-verbal communication and from different perspectives.

1.1 Research Question and Hypothesis

Based on the aforementioned literature, three research questions are made:

1. Does teachers' facial expression have any effect on pronunciation accuracy of elementary EFL learners?
2. Does teachers' facial expression have any effect on pronunciation accuracy of intermediate EFL learners?

2. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Non-verbal language is a great tool for communication. Its importance is to the extent that researchers studying infant communication (e.g., Aviezer, 1986) and deaf impaired take crucial advantages of this sort of communication. Burgoon, Buller, and Woodall (1987) believe that 65% of communication in any social context happens via non-verbal communication.

Brown (2004) believes teachers of phonetics, pronunciation and language can exploit nonverbal features, especially gestures, but also facial expressions as a resource. The research is based on this belief and is trying to reveal how important facial expression is as a universal non-verbal language.

In the educational atmosphere non-verbal language plays an important role. Allen (1999) in her book "Functions of Nonverbal Communication in Teaching and Learning A Foreign Language" asserts that "non-verbal language is used to both encode and decode linguistic massages. She further explains that non-verbals contribute to the comprehension of messages in three ways: 1) heightening attention, 2) providing additional context, and 3) facilitating recall.

Gilbert (1978) in her paper "Non-verbal tools for teaching pronunciation" asserts that a mouth-model can be a solution to EFL learners' pronunciation difficulties. She further explains that she had prepared a mouth model in her classes to help her teach phonetics. This simply shows the importance of EFL learners gazing at the teacher in comprehension of phonetics.

Ekman and Friesen (1969) and McNeill (1992) classified non-verbal factors as deictic , counting, beats, iconic, affect displays, metaphoric, emblems, regulators and adaptors. Later on, Adam Brown (2004) took advantages of the aforementioned categorization and claimed that Nonverbal language can help EFL learners in different aspects of pronunciation. He, then, claimed that this can be helpful in teaching rhythm, tonic syllables, tones, word-stress and vowel- length.

Apart from non-verbal communication and facial expressions, teaching pronunciation has always been a great concern for language teachers. Many studies so far have focused on how pronunciation is taught in different classes and the problems both teachers and EFL learners usually face in the class.

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. Participants

Participants for this study were chosen from among 92 English learners in Azad Language institute in Tabriz. After conducting the OPT to assure the homogeneity of the learners in three proficiency levels, 60 learners took part in the study as participants as elementary learners (n=30) and intermediate participants (N=30). The participants at each level formed a control group (N=15) and an experimental group (n=15).

3.2 Materials

Materials used in this study include first the OPT (Oxford Placement Test) and an oral interview with the EFL learners consisting of a few general English questions which was scored by the teacher to categorize EFL learners in appropriate proficiency levels based on their pronunciation accuracy. The interview questions are available in appendix A of this study. A word list appropriate for each proficiency level was given to each EFL learner before the instruction. Each EFL learner got an accuracy score on his/her pronunciation. The words were randomly chosen from English Vocabulary in use for elementary, intermediate and advanced levels accordingly.

3.3 Procedures

Having selected the participants, 2 with square-shaped tables were used in the study; allowing half of EFL learners to face the teacher while the teacher taught phonetics and the rest to only hear the teacher with having no sight of the teacher. After a period of 1 week ,10 educational hours, the EFL learners were interviewed for the second time to see if teacher's facial expression while teaching the pronunciation patterns had an effect on EFL learners pronunciation learning. They were interviewed and their scores were compared to the previous scores gained in the first interview. The data coding was conducted by two English language teachers with 7 years of experience and with master's degrees in TEFL. The inter-rater reliability reached above 0.89%.

4. RESULTS

Research Question 1

Q1: Does teachers' facial expression have any effect on pronunciation accuracy of elementary EFL learners?

An independent t-test was run to compare the experimental groups (Considered as one group) and control groups' mean score prior to the main study. Based on the results displayed in Table 1, it can be claimed that the experimental group (M = 25.617, SD = 2.81) had a slightly higher mean than the control group (M = 25.608, SD = 2.75).

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics

Group Statistics

	VAR00002	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
General	1.00	15	25.6170	2.81729	.41094
	2.00	15	25.6087	2.75910	.57531

The results of the independent t-test (t (68) = 0-12, p = .991, r = .712 representing a weak effect size) (Table 7) indicate that the difference between the mean scores of the control group and experimental group is not meaningful.

Table 2.

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
General	Equal variances assumed	.036	.850	.012	68	.991	.00833	.71216	-1.41276	1.42941
	Equal variances not assumed			.012	44.621	.991	.00833	.70701	-1.41599	1.43264

It should be noted that the assumption of homogeneity of variances was met (Levene's F = 0.36, p = .850). That is why the first row of Table 2, i.e., "Equal variances assumed" was reported.
An independent t-test was run to compare the elementary experimental group's and elementary control group's mean score on the posttest. Based on the results displayed in Table 3, it can be claimed that the experimental group (M = 29.68, SD = 2.71) had a higher mean than the control group (M = 27, SD = 2.67).
Table 3
Descriptive Statistics

Group Statistics

	VAR00003	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
general_posttest	1.00	15	29.6809	2.71955	.39669
	2.00	15	27.0000	2.67989	.55880

The results of the independent t-test (t (68) = 3-89, p = .00, r = .688 representing a large effect size) (Table 4) indicate that the difference between the mean scores of the control group and experimental group is meaningful. Thus, the first null hypothesis was **rejected**.

Table 4
Independent Samples Test

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					
		F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower	Upper
Posttest	Equal variances assumed	.041	.841	3.892	68	.000	2.68085	68879	1.30638	4.05532
	Equal variances not assumed			3.912	44.37	.000	2.68085	.68528	1.30008	4.06162

It should be noted that the assumption of homogeneity of variances was met (Levene's F = 0.41, p = .841). That is why the first row of Table 4, i.e., "Equal variances assumed" was reported.

Research question 2
Q2: Does teachers' facial expression have any effect on pronunciation accuracy of intermediate EFL learners?
In order to probe the answer to research Question 2, independent samples t-test was run to make sure the difference between the control group intermediate participants and experimental group intermediate participants on the pretest is not meaningful. As can be seen in Table 5, the control group (M=25.91, SD= 2.84) had a slightly higher mean than the experimental intermediate group (M=25.62, SD= 2.93).

Table 5
Descriptive Statistics

	VAR00004	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Male_female_pretest	control	15	25.9167	2.84248	.58022
	experi	15	25.6250	2.93128	.59834

The results of the independent t-test (t (46) = .350, p = .728, r = .833 representing a weak effect size) (Table 6) indicate that the difference between the mean scores of the control group and experimental group is not meaningful.

Table 6
Independent Samples Test
Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Male_female_pretest	Equal variances assumed	.207	.651	.350	46	.728	.2916	.8334	-1.38602	1.96935
	Equal variances not assumed			.350	45.957	.728	.2916	.8334	-1.38606	1.96940

It should be noted that the assumption of homogeneity of variances was met (Levene's F = 0.207, p = .651). That is why the first row of Table 6, i.e., "Equal variances assumed" was reported.

Next, an independent samples t-test was run to see if the intermediate control group and intermediate Experimental group mean score was different on the posttest.

As can be seen in Table 7 The female group's mean score (M= 29.87, SD= 2.786) is slightly higher than the male group (M=29.75, SD= 2.952).

Table 12
Descriptive Statistics

Group Statistics

	VAR00005	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
male_female_posttest	1.00	15	29.8750	2.78681	.56886
	2.00	15	29.7500	2.95252	.60268

An independent samples t-test was run to find out if the difference between the female group's and male group's is significant. As displayed in Table 8. (t(46)=.151, p=881, r= .828) indicating that there is a weak effect size and that the difference between the groups is not meaningful. Thus, the second null hypothesis was **supported**.

Table 13
Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig.(2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower	Upper
male_female_posttest	Equal variances assumed 1.79318	.164	.688	.151	46	.881	.12500	.8287	-1.5431
	Equal variances not assumed 1.79333			.151	45.847	.881	.12500	.82875	-1.5433

It should be mentioned that the assumption of homogeneity of variance was met (Leven's F= .164, P=.688).

3. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

In sum, the results of the present study showed the significant role that teacher's facial expression plays in teaching phonetics to EFL learners in the elementary levels of learning English. The findings of this study are in line with the findings of Mehrabian (1971) stating that facial expressions play a significant role in our communications as elementary EFL learners pronunciation was considerably affect by lack of teacher's facial expression. As a result they may not be able to interact with other English speakers effectively.

The findings of the study are also congruent with the findings of Brown (2007). He believes that facial expressions are used as a tool to better communicate with the language learners. The findings of this study also proved that not having access to the teacher's facial expression can affect the quality of input received by the EFL learners. However, this was not the case with intermediate EFL leaners. This may be due to the fact that intermediate learners were familiar with the pronunciation patterns. That is why not having access to the teacher's facila expressions did not affect their pronunciation significantly.

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MOTIVATION AND SELF-EFFICACY OF IRANIAN HIGH SCHOOL LEARNERS AND THEIR VOCABULARY SIZE

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ABSTRACT
THE PRESENT STUDY SEEKS TO ADDRESS THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE MOTIVATION AND SELF-EFFICACY OF IRANIAN HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS AND THEIR VOCABULARY SIZE. TO THIS AIM, THE RESEARCHER MADE USE OF THREE MAIN INSTRUMENTS:A MOTIVATIONAL TEST, A SELF-EFFICACY QUESTIONNAIRE AND A BILINGUAL VOCABULARY SIZE TEST. THE PARTICIPANTS IN THE PRESENT STUDY INCLUDED 176 STUDENTS IN PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS LOCATED IN SABZEVAR. THE STUDENTS WERE FEMALE AND AGED 14-18. THE MOTHER TONGUE OF ALL OF THE STUDENTS WAS PERSIAN. THESE PARTICIPANTS WERE SELECTED RANDOMLY AND WERE ASKED TO FILL OUT THE QUESTIONNAIRES. THE RESEARCHER WAS PRESENT AT THE SITE FOR GIVING INSTRUCTIONS. QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS WAS USED TO ANALYZE THE DATA THAT WERE COLLECTED THROUGH QUESTIONNAIRES. THE STATISTICAL TEST FOR FIRST AND SECOND QUESTIONNAIRE IS PEARSON CORRELATION AND THUS MULTIPLE REGRESSIONS HAS BEEN USED FOR VOCABULARY SIZE TEST. THE OBTAINED RESULTS REVEALED A SIGNIFICANT RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN VARIABLES MEASURED BY THESE INSTRUMENTS. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MOTIVATION AND VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE OF STUDENTS WAS POSITIVE AND SIGNIFICANT. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SELF-EFFICACY AND VOCABULARY SIZE WAS SIGNIFICANT TOO. THE RESULTS OF THE MULTIPLE REGRESSION INDICATED THAT MOTIVATION IS A BETTER PREDICTOR OF VOCABULARY SIZE THAN SELF-EFFICACY. IN ADDITION, THE FINDINGS OF THE STUDY INDICATED THE IMPORTANCE OF NURTURING LEARNERS' MOTIVATION AND ITS RELATIONSHIP WITH SUCCESSFUL LEARNING EXPERIENCES AND ACHIEVEMENT.

KEY WORDS: MOTIVATION; SELF EFFICACY; VOCABULARY SIZE

1 . INTRODUCTION

It is a common belief that people with high levels of self-efficacy perform tasks better than those with lower levels of self-efficacy. Graham (2011) asserted that self-efficacy as individuals' beliefs in their ability has a strong influence on levels of persistence and the choices individuals make. Regarding the importance of self-efficacy, Bandura (1984) considered self-efficacy to have a major role in language learning by fostering or impeding learners' progress.

As Barry (2007) said motivation has long been a major problem for most teachers of English as a Second Language (ESL) or as a foreign language. Motivation in the ESL/EFL classroom is easily one of the most important factors but unfortunately most of our students have low motivation to learn English. In addition to was stated most of them have a vague sense that whether "English will be useful for my future" or not. Therefore, the teachers need to understand the role and importance of motivation in any learning process.

Vocabulary knowledge is vital when applying a foreign language that is,anybody is not capable to communicate without words .Thus, this knowledge has a critical role in academic development of

students . Carter and Mccarthy (1988)pointed out that learning vocabulary is closely related to teacher's and student's perceptions of the difficulties of words,therefore ,teachers should be taken into account also in vocabulary learning,motivation,and self –efficacy of students.

Since students' motivation is essential for engaging them in vocabulary instruction, it is necessary to pay attention to the factors affecting students`behaviors and emotion in vocabulary learning. Sokmen (1997) reported that the central role of vocabulary in second language learning during the 21 century. This can be a good reason for teachers to help students learn and use new words.

With regard to what the present body of research states about the importance of motivation and self-efficacy in learning process they should be emphasized by the practitioners (Yilmaz, 2010). Previously, self-efficay was considered as unidimentioanl concept attributing to the students performance while it has been investigated that there is a close positive correlation between self-efficy and students motivation (Yilmaz, 2010). Therefore to achive the greatest gain in this area, and based on the importance of vocabulary, in the present study we examine the relationship between self-efficay, motivation and vocabulary knowledge.

The result of this study can be an assistant to those teachers who intend to have more effective language classes and students will be expected to use vocabulary in productive skills. It is hoped that the present study can offer a helpful perspective and opens a new window in high school instruction and serves as a means for the teachers to develop their teaching methods in regard to vocabulary learning.

This study attempts to answer the following questions:

1-Is there any relationship between Iranian EFL learners' motivation and vocabulary size?

2-Is there any relationship between Iranian EFL learners' self-efficacy and vocabulary size?

3-Does motivation predict vocabulary size of learners better than self-efficacy?

Review of Literature

2.1 What Is Motivation

According to Dornyei (2001), motivation has three components that are purpose, keeping on, and the initiation of learning effort and it interprets why individuals choose a certain activity, how long people continue that activity, and how they try to achieve their goals. Motivation is typically defined as the forces that account for the arousal , selection, direction, and continuation of behavior. Based on socio-psychological model by Gardner and Lambert (1974) motivation for learning a language is the desire to control the language through effort ,want, affect or attitude.

Based on Sadeghi (2013) there are various kinds of motivation namely: instrumental and integrative motivation. Instrumental motivation refers to learning a language for specific goals such as traveling, getting a job, passing a test, and integrative motivation refers to learning a language for the purpose of communicating with the target language community.

2.2 What is Self-efficacy?

According to Surman and Schumacker (2012)"self-efficacy is defined as a belief in one's ability to perform an action, where self-esteem is an evaluative judgment and self-concept is an overall regard Self-efficacy affects one's behaviors and the environments with which one interacts, and is influenced by one's actions and conditions in the environment"(p. 90)

High self-efficacy helps enhancing human accomplishment in different ways. Students with high self-efficacy exert more effort when approaching challenges and consider challenges as goals to be mastered rather than threats to be avoided. Students with high self-efficacy experience less negative emotions during a task (Bandura, 1997).

2.3 What Is Vocabulary size?

A vocabulary size means both a list of words and the range of words known by a person. A person's vocabulary develops with age and learning (Wollacott, 2015).

Vocabulary is commonly defined as "all the words known and used by a particular person " **(**Barnhart, 1974, p. 3). In learning a language, vocabulary knowledge is important because people cannot communicate without words and learning strategies can help students learn vocabulary of a

language. Marttinen (2008) stated that vocabulary is important to realize a language; the meaning of a word is depended to its linguistic and semantic content situations.

2.4 Previous Studies

The concept of self-efficacy could be elaborated from different aspects and in a study Heidari et al. (2012) investigated about the relationship between Iranian EFL Learners' Self-efficacy beliefs and the methods of vocabulary learning. Participants of study were 50 students (male and female) from University of Sistan & Baluchestan. The authors of study asserted that students' self-efficacy impacts on students' performance in language components such as vocabulary learning. The purpose of study was to determine level of self-efficacy attitudes of Iranian EFL students and their use of vocabulary learning strategies. For data collection authors had used self-efficacy beliefs questionnaire and vocabulary learning strategy questionnaire. The finding of study indicated that students with high level of self-efficacy can learn language components better and learners' self-efficacy impact on their learning experiences and improvement successfully.

Huang and Ma (2007) investigated about the relationships of learning strategy instruction, autonomy, and motivation in L2 vocabulary learning. Participants of study were forty-four volunteer ESL students of the University of Hawai`i at Mānoa (UHM) from East-Asian countries. The main goal of this study was to explore whether learning strategy teaching can enhance autonomy and motivation in L2 vocabulary learning and there is relationship between learning strategy, motivation, and autonomy in L2 vocabulary learning. Authors asserted that learning vocabulary and knowledge of it is important in learning a language. For data collection authors used a questionnaire to determine learners' attitudes of autonomy and motivation. This questionnaire divided into four parts. Section one was related to the motivation, sections two and three were related to autonomy and section four was related to learning strategies. The findings of study indicate that "the learners were highly motivated regarding L2 vocabulary learning" (p.13). Results for learners' autonomy in learning vocabulary indicated that learners had responsibility and autonomy in vocabulary learning. Findings of study indicated that motivation and autonomy "positively correlated with learners' self-assessed ability on L2 vocabulary learning strategies" (p.17).

Sadeghi (2013) studied about the impact of motivation on intermediate Iranian EFL learners' vocabulary learning. Participants of study were 120 Iranian junior students of English language majors (male and female) at Islamic Azad University of Tonekabon, Mazandaran. Participants' age were was between 18 and 25. For data collection, author used Oxford Placement Test, Touchstone vocabulary knowledge test, and Hermans' (1970) questionnaire of measure of achievement motivation. Findings of study indicated that there were significant differences between learners with high motivation and learners with low motivation, students with high motivation performed in their vocabulary learning and their vocabulary knowledge.

DeWitz and Walsh (2002) investigated about the relationship between self-efficacy and and college student satisfaction. Participants of study were 312 undergraduate students of a large Midwestern University. For data collection researchers used College Student Satisfaction Questionnaire, Form D (CSSQ). The CSSQ consist of five parts: 1. Compensation, 2. Social Life, 3. Working Conditions, 4. Recognition, and 5. Quality of Education. Findings of study indicated that there is no significant differences between five satisfaction subscales and all three measures of self-efficacy were significantly associated with college satisfaction.

Thanh and Huan (2012) studied about the influence of task-based language learning on students' motivation in vocabulary learning in Vietnam. Participants of study were Seventy-six freshmen (48 female, 28 male) from Vinh Long Community College in Vietnam. For data collection researchers used questionnaires, tests, and interviews. The questionnaires were related to the participants' motivation in vocabulary acquisition, the tests were used as a pre-test and post-test to determine students vocabulary ability and to measure their vocabulary knowledge. According to researchers cited of Richards and Renandya (2002) "vocabulary is viewed as a major part of language proficiency as it allows learners to use four language skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing" (p.106). The findings of study show that the respondents were motivated to acquire vocabulary and their vocabulary improvement improved after the experiment.

Li (2010), investigated about vocabulary learning beliefs and strategies of English learners in China. Participants of study were 102 sophomores in a vocational college in Sichuan province of China and 22 of them interviewed for study. For data collection the researcher used a vocabulary size

test, a general English proficiency test system, a questionnaire survey on vocabulary learning beliefs (VLB) and strategies and (VLS), and interviews with students and their English teachers. The findings of study indicated that motivational beliefs in vocabulary learning are important. Self-efficacy in vocabulary learning beliefs had a significant correlation with vocabulary proficiency and VLB did not indicate significant correlation with general English proficiency but vocabulary learning strategies indicate a significant correlation with vocabulary proficiency and general English proficiency.

As stated above there is a positive relationship between motivation and self-efficacy and self-regulated learning but there has been little studies about the effect of motivation and self-efficacy on vocabulary size. Thus this study holds to explore the effect of motivation and self-efficacy on the vocabulary size of the learners. This area remains untouched since the past up to now and it has the capability of providing quality and successes to English classrooms.

3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Participants

The respondents who participated in the present study included 176 students in public high schools located in Sabzevar. The students were female and aged 14-18. The mother tongue of all of the students was Persian.These participants were selected randomly. All of the them answered the questionnaires.The researcher was present at the site for giving instructions.

It should be mentioned that over 200 students participated in the study,but due to some problems such as the existence of some anonymous questionnaire responses and impossibility of matching the responses with the participants'corresponding vocabulary size scores, the researcher could only use the responses of 176 students and included them in the final data analysis.

3.2 Research Design

Correlational design was used to describe the relationship between independent variables including: motivation, self-efficacy and dependent variable which is vocabulary size of students. For this purpose, the quantitative data collection tools, were employed. In this study three questionnaires were used. First questionnaire was a Motivational test, second questionnaire was a Self-efficacy measurement, and the last one was a Vocabulary Size Test. **3.3 Instrumentation**

To answer the research questions guiding the study three types of questionnaires were used. Two types of questionnaires evaluated personal characteristic of learners that is related to motivation and self –efficacy of the students and another questionnaire was a vocabulary size test that estimated learners 'vocabulary domain in English. According to Iran-moshaver institute, achievement motivation test was designed by Hermans in 1970. The reliability of the motivational questionnaire was calculated through Cronbach's alpha in 1970 by Hermans and was 84%. The self-efficacy beliefs questionnaire which was the Persian Adaptation of the General Self-efficacy Scale constructed by Nezami, Schwarzer and Jerusalem (1996). This questionnaire consists of 10 likert-scale items. The students were asked to read each statement and decide if they: (1) strongly disagree (2) moderately disagree (3) moderately agree (4) strongly agree.The last one that is The Vocabulary Size Test was designed to measure both first language and second language learners' written receptive vocabulary size in English. This test include 140 multiple-choice items, with 10 items from each 1000 word family level. A learner's total score needs to be multiplied by 100 to get their total receptive vocabulary size. This vocabulary size test is designed by Nation and Beglar (2007).The questionnaires and vocabulary size test were administered in May 2015.

3.4Data Collection and Data Analysis Procedures

This study is about the relationship between motivation,self-efficacy and vocabulary size.The data obtained through three separate questionnaires namely achievement motivation test, self-efficacy beliefs questionnaire, and vocabulary size test . Self-efficacy beliefs questionnaire includes 10 items, achievement motivation test includes 29 items, and the last one that is vocabulary size test consists of 140 items for assessment of students' vocabulary repertoire. Participants of the study were selected randomly and every student in this study has received all of the three questionnaires. The distribution of questionnaires among students was conducted in three sequential days.The findings of the test is used to evaluate the students' vocabulary in English language.The study has three variables consisted of dependant and independant variables. Dependant variable is vocabulary size and independant variables are motivation and self-efficacy. Quantitative analysis were used to

analyze the data that were collected through the questionnaires. In this study, percentage, mean, and correlation were used to analyze quantitative data in order to obtain descriptive statistics. The statistical test for first and second questionnaire was Pearson correlation and thus multiple regression has been used for third questionnaire. The coefficient of linear correlation which indicates the reinforcement of a relationship between two variables was calculated by Pearson formula.

4.RESULT

The main goal of this study was to explore the relationship between motivation, self-efficacy, and vocabulary size of high school learners and also to investigate which one has more strong relation with vocabulary size: motivation or self-efficacy.

4.1 Results of Motivation and Vocabulary Size

The first question of this research sought to investigate if there was any meaningful relationship between Iranian EFL learners' motivation and vocabulary size? In order to answer to this question ,the pearson correlation procedure was used. The results are summarized in the following tables.

Table 1.

Descriptive Statistics for Motivation and Vocabulary Size

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Vocab Size	4308.97	1277.275	176
Motivation	65.94	16.030	176

As it was indicated in Table 1 vocabulary size (Mean=4308.97, SD=1277.275) and motivation (Mean=65.94, SD=16.030) were the major variable of the present study.

Table 1 represents the descriptive statistics including the mean and standard deviation. As it is obvious from the table, the mean obtained from the participants` attitudes about motivation, implies that the participants are more or less consistent with each other regarding their attitudes towards the questionnaire items. Moreover, the mean obtained for the scores of the participants in the vocabulary size test also shows that the scores were almost the same.

Table 2.

Correlation between Motivation and Vocabulary Size

		Vocab Size	Motivation
Vocab Size	Pearson Correlation	1	.827**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	176	176
Motivation	Pearson Correlation	.827**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	176	176

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

Table 2 indicates the correlation between vocabulary size test and motivation by Pearson correlation coefficient. According to Pearson correlation coefficient, motivation and vocabulary size have a significant relationship in level of 0.01 and also the following graph shows strength of this relationship.

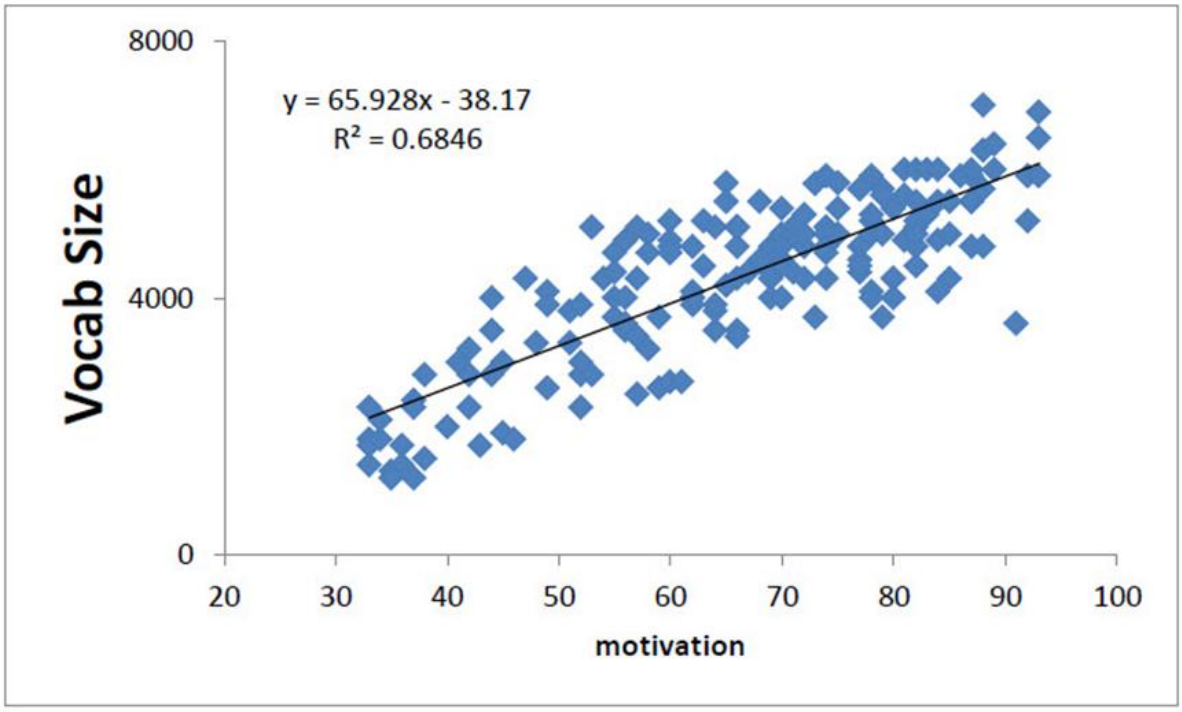

Figure 1: Correlation between motivation and vocabulary size

This graph shows R^2 =0.68. It means 68 percent of development of students` vocabulary size depends on their motivation. So, based on findings of this study number 1 null hypothesis is rejected. This hypothesis claimed that there is no relationship between motivation of EFL learners and their vocabulary size while this research found that there is a significant relationship between motivation and vocabulary size.

4.2 Results of self-efficacy and vocabulary size

The second question of this research was about the relationship between Iranian EFL learners' self-efficacy and vocabulary size?

Table 3 shows the descriptive statistics including the mean and standard deviation for vocabulary size test and self-efficacy. As it is obvious from the table, the mean obtained from the participants` attitudes about the self-efficacy, implies that the participants are more or less consistent with each other according to their opinions towards the questionnaire items. Moreover, the mean obtained for the scores of the participants in the vocabulary size test also shows that the scores were almost the same.

Table 3.

Descriptive Statistics for Self-efficacy and Vocabulary Size

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Vocab Size	4308.97	1277.275	176
Self-Efficacy	33.07	4.859	176

Table4 indicates the correlation between vocabulary size test and self-efficacy by Pearson correlation coefficient.

Table 4.

Correlation between Self-efficacy and Vocabulary Size

	Vocab Size	Self-Efficacy

	Pearson Correlation	1	.806**
Vocab Size	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	176	176
	Pearson Correlation	.806**	1
Self-Efficacy	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	176	176

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

Self-efficacy was found to be significantly and positively correlated with vocabulary size. This reveals that learners with a higher level of self-efficacy tend to have higher vocabulary knowledge. Table 4 indicates the correlation between vocabulary size test and self-efficacy by Pearson correlation coefficient . Based on Pearson correlation coefficient self-efficacy and vocabulary size have a meaningful relationship at .01 level of significance.

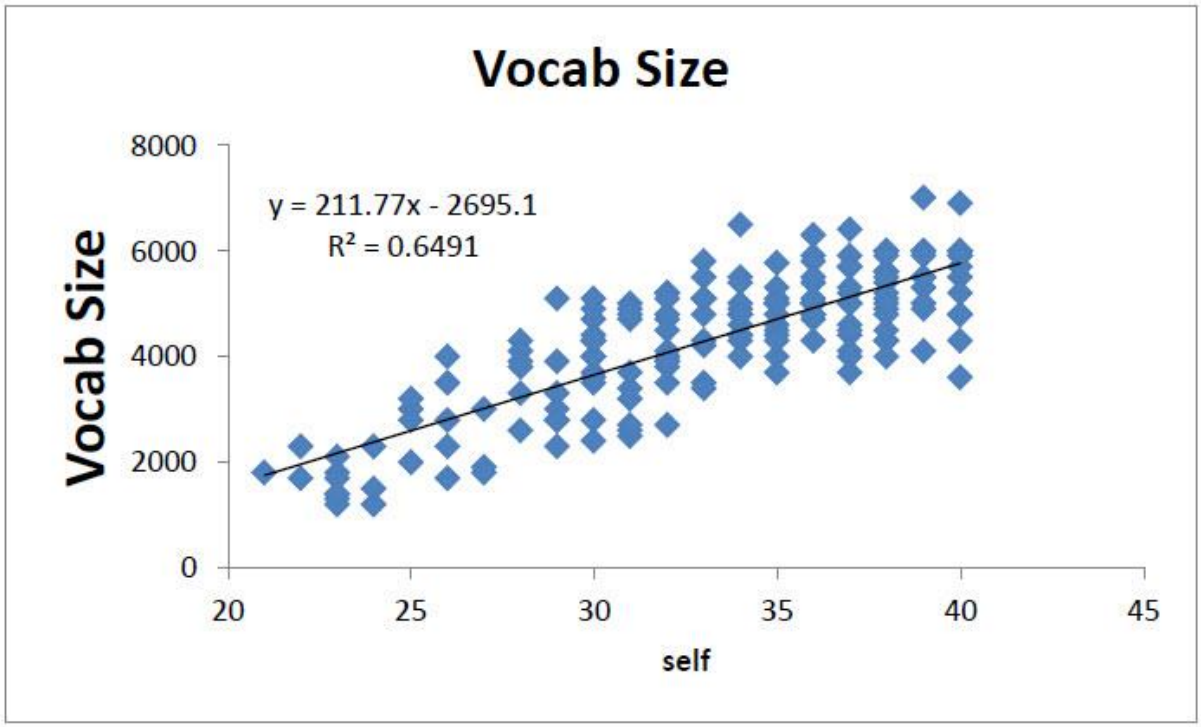

Figure2: Correlation between self-efficacy and vocabulary size

Based on the students' scores of the vocabulary size test and self-efficacy, one can conclude that there is a significant relationship between students' self-efficacy and vocabulary knowledge. So, based on findings of this study the second null hypothesis is rejected. This hypothesis claimed that there is no relationship between self-efficacy of EFL learners and their vocabulary size while this research found that there is a significant relationship between self-efficacy and vocabulary size.

4.3 Results **of comparison between Motivation and Self-efficacy**

The third question of this research was about whether motivation can predict vocabulary size of learners better than self-efficacy.

In order to answer the third question multiple regressions is used.

Table 5.

Descriptive Statistics for variables

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Vocab Size	4308.97	1277.275	176
Motivation	65.94	16.030	176

Self-Efficacy	33.07	4.859	176

Table 5 shows the descriptive statistics including the mean and standard deviation for vocabulary size test (Mean=4308.97, SD=1277.275), self-efficacy (Mean=33.07, SD=4.859), and motivation (Mean=65.94, SD=16.030) .

Table 6.
ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
	Regression	195476354.332	2	97738177.166	187.824	.000[b]
.	Residual	90023981.463	173	520369.835		
	Total	285500335.795	175			

a. Dependent Variable: Vocab Size
b. Predictors: (Constant), Self-Efficacy, Motivation

In the following table there is a β (beta) coefficient for every variable. The bigger variable in the statistic level is more significant and its role is more important. In this research, motivation has bigger β (Beta) coefficient, β= .873 and it has significant statistic and the role of motivation is more important than self-efficacy.

Table 7.
Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.	Correlations		
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part
	(Constant)	129.425	740.892		.175	.862			
1	Motivation	69.587	15.741	.873	4.421	.000	.827	.319	.189
	Self-Efficacy	-12.361	51.926	-.047	-.238	.812	.806	-.018	-.010

a. Dependent Variable: Vocab Size

In this study the Beta coefficient of motivation is equal .873 (β= .873) and the Beta coefficient of self-efficacy is equal -.47 (β=-.47) regarding to this result motivation is a better predictor of self-efficacy because Beta coefficient of motivation is bigger than self-efficacy.

It is shown that motivation is a better predictor of vocabulary size of EFL learners than self – efficacy. Based on findings of this study the third null hypothesis is rejected. This hypothesis claimed that motivation is not a better predictor of vocabulary size than self-efficacy while this research found that motivation can predict students' vocabulary size better than self-efficacy. So motivation can predict vocabulary size better than self-efficacy and the role of motivation is more than self-efficacy therefore if students have more motivation for vocabulary learning, they can learn better and can develop their vocabulary knowledge.

4.4 DISCUSSTION

In this part, the data analysis results are interpreted and discussed in relation to the research questions. The findings of the study are weighed against previous results and researchers' attitudes.

When looking at the results of the research question 1 (Is there any relationship between Iranian EFL learners' motivation and vocabulary size?), the results of the study revealed a significant and positive relationship between motivation and vocabulary size. In sharp contrast to this result there are some researchers who have reported a very weak relationship between the motivation and vocabulary knowledge. For example, according to the Heidari Soureshjani and Naseri's study (2011), correlation between motivation and vocabulary knowledge indicated that there is a weak relationship among the variables of the study. It also clarified that the variables of the study (motivations and the

vocabulary scores) are significantly different. In another example that was reported by Mohammadi and Bagheri (2011), there was no significant and meaningful relationship between motivation and vocabulary size.

Although, these results are in conflict with findings of the present study , there are many studies which are consistent with the results of this study. For example, according to the Rostampour and Niroomand's study (2013), there is a high and significant relationship between motivation and vocabulary size. Also, based on Fernandez Fontecha and Gallego's study (2012), there is a significant positive relationship between the level of motivation and the three receptive vocabulary tests. Therefore, if motivation has a positive relationship with vocabulary size of students, it is better that teachers consider students' motivation in language learning especially in vocabulary learning since teachers can create a necessity for their learners to use the words and grammar suitably as instruments required for the correct understanding and communication of messages. So, if students have a high motivation in their language learning such as vocabulary learning, they can improve their language knowledge.

When looking at the results of the second research question is there any relationship between Iranian EFL learners' self-efficacy and vocabulary size? It is concluded that there is a significant and positive relationship between self-efficacy and vocabulary size. In sharp contrast to this result there are some researchers who have reported a very weak relationship between the self-efficacy and vocabulary knowledge such as Amirian, Mallahi and Zaghi's study (2015), the researchers in this study reported that there is no significant relationship between the self-regulation and vocabulary size. These researchers asserted that "based on the learners' own perception, their self-regulation capacity may not be a determining factor in acquiring vocabulary"(p.36).

In another study by Zarei and Hatami (2012), about the relationship between self-regulated components, vocabulary learning and reading comprehension, the researchers found that there is no significant relationship between self-efficacy and vocabulary. The researchers asserted that "if there is a positive relationship between self-regulated learning strategies and language proficiency, the self-regulated learning strategies ought to have a direct relationship with reading comprehension and vocabulary knowledge"(p.1942). According to Zarei and Hatami (2012), "one of the possible reasons for such differences may be partially attributable to the cultural differences leading to different abilities of the participants. In such contexts, students prefer to be quiet than lose their face. The Iranian context, by culture and attitude, falls into the same category" (p.1942).

Although these studies are in conflict with the finding of the present study , there are some studies that support the findings of this study. For example, Heidari, Izadi and Ahmadian (2012) found a significantly positive relationship between self-efficacy and vocabulary learning strategies. The researchers asserted that the participants of the study had a high ability in their vocabulary learning strategies but according to Heidari et al.,(2012) "most of students' difficulties are due to students' self-beliefs" (p.177). Also, these researchers reported that students with high self-efficacy use vocabulary strategies "more than the ones with low self-efficacy" and students with low ability have "low motivation participation, performance and achievement" (p.177).

In a study of Mizumoto about self-efficacy in vocabulary learning, the researcher concluded that through enhancing self-regulated learning approach, students and teachers can enhance self-efficacy which contributes to the improvement of vocabulary knowledge. Haji Hassan Hamedani (2013) investigated about the relationship between self-efficacy, self-regulation and vocabulary acquisition on male and female learners. In this study the researcher found that there is a relationship between self-efficacy and self-regulation in vocabulary acquisition. Haji Hassan Hamedani (2013) asserted that efficacious students can control environmental and emotional changes in vocabulary acquisition and despite proved relation between self-efficacy and self-regulation in vocabulary acquisition, there is no difference regarding learners' gender.

Finally, based on the result of the third research question, i.e. "does motivation predict vocabulary size of learners better than self-efficacy?" showed that motivation is a better predictor of the students' vocabulary size than self-efficacy.

Based on inferential statistic of Beta coefficient of motivation and self-efficacy, it is concluded that the bigger Beta coefficient of each variable means that the variable is significant in statistic level and therefore, it is a better predictor. In this study the Beta coefficient of motivation equals .873 (β= .873) and the Beta coefficient of self-efficacy equals -.47 (β=-.47). According to this result motivation is a better predictor of self-efficacy

The results of this study are consistent with Onoda's study (2013). The study sought to investigate the relationship between self-efficacy, self-regulated strategy and second language vocabulary skills. The result of the study indicated that "self-efficacy significantly predicted self-regulation strategy use, which in turn predicted L2 vocabulary skills. However, the path from self-efficacy to L2 vocabulary skills was not significant" (p.120). The researcher asserted that although, self-efficacy cannot predict second language skills directly but it can influence second language vocabulary skills by the mediation of self-regulation strategy use indirectly.

The following recommendations can be expressed on the basis of the findings and conclusions. The results indicated that there is a meaningful relationship between motivation, self-efficacy and vocabulary size therefore syllabus designers and materials developers should pay more attention to the ways of teaching vocabulary in the textbooks. Teachers should try to enhance students' motivation and explain the importance and benefits of vocabulary learning to the students until they are motivated to learn language words since having rich vocabulary knowledge is very important in learning of various language skills such as reading, speaking and writing.

Based on the findings of study, it is recommended that English language teachers pay enough attention to the students' motivation. In fact, if teachers provide learners with the appropriate support and knowledge of their learning, they can take more responsibility towards their own learning and finally, this factor causes to increase motivation in students.

Finally, because vocabulary knowledge is related to successful performance and strong motivation on other language skills, more emphasis is to be placed upon vocabulary learning in foreign or second language classrooms.

In future research, it would be interesting to examine the relationship between motivation, self-efficacy and writing or how much motivation and self-efficacy can be effective in learning writing because motivation is an important and major factor in learning everything. Also, it would be interesting to examine the relationship between motivation, self-efficacy and other language skills such as reading and speaking especially vocabulary knowledge plays an important and casual role in reading comprehension and it isa prerequisite factor in comprehension and learning language skills.

In the end, it should be admitted that the present study, like any other ones, suffer from a set of limitations. Although the number of participants seems to be appropriate, one main problem with them is that they all were high school language learners therefore making the findings of the study less generalizable. Moreover, in order to reach more reliable findings, other studies can be conducted in other foreign and second language contexts.

5. CONCLUSION

The present study attempted to primarily investigate the relationship between motivations, self-efficacy and vocabulary size of students. The results of data analysis indicated a positive and significant relationship between variables. The relationship between motivation and vocabulary knowledge of students was positive and significant also, the relationship between self-efficacy and vocabulary size was significant. It means that self-efficacy and motivation can influence vocabulary size. However, motivation had a better predicting power compared to self-efficacy; it means that motivation has a more powerful connection with the students' vocabulary than self-efficacy. In addition, the findings of study indicated that students who felt a need for learning vocabulary had a high motivation for vocabulary learning.

Motivation can influence students' learning, students may have different motivations for their learning in different cultural contexts. If students have a high motivation, they learn more effectively and therefore they are efficacious students but students with low motivation maybe have more difficulty in their learning. Also, the role of teachers is very important in enhancing students' motivation. Teachers must try to develop the power of motivation in their students because as was stated the role of motivation is very important in learning language skills such as vocabulary size.

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MJLTM

ACCEPTABILITY AND ADEQUACY IN TRANSLATION OF JOHN STEINBECK'S NOVEL BY PARVIZ DARYOUSH

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ABSTRACT
THIS STUDY EXAMINES A NOVEL WRITTEN BY JOHN STEINBECK AND CORRESPONDINGLY ITS TRANSLATION INTO PERSIAN BY PARVIZ DARYOUSH (1961). GIDEON TOURY'S ACCEPTABILITY, ADEQUACY AND CULTURAL NORMS (1995) HAVE BEEN APPLIED IN THIS STUDY. THE RESEARCHER GATHERED SOME INFORMATION ABOUT TOURY AND HIS THEORY OF "CULTURAL NORMS", AND ALSO THE TWO TYPES OF TRANSLATION, NAMELY "ADEQUATE" AND "ACCEPTABLE" DEFINED BY THE SAME SCHOLAR. THE TRANSLATED TEXT WAS ANALYZED AGAINST THE ORIGINAL WORK TO DETERMINE IF IT IS SOURCE-ORIENTED (ADEQUATE) OR RECEPTOR-ORIENTED (ACCEPTABLE). THE IMPACT OF THE IDEOLOGY OF THE TRANSLATOR ON ADEQUACY AND ACCEPTABILITY IN TRANSLATION HAS ALSO BEEN CONSIDERED AS THE MOST IMPORTANT CASE IN THE STUDY. THE FINDINGS OF THE STUDY REVEALED THAT DARYOUSH'S TRANSLATION WAS ADEQUATE.

KEY TERMS: TRANSLATION, ACCEPTABLE TRANSLATION, ADEQUATE TRANSLATION, NORM

1. Introduction

Munday (2001, p. 5) maintains that "Throughout history of man, written and spoken translations have played a crucial role in interhuman communication, not least in providing access to important text for scholarship and religious purposes." Translating a text maybe a rather ambiguous process that involves processing unknown linguistic and cultural input, which might eventually causes uncertainty and/or confusion on the part of students and translators. As translators we are faced with an unfamiliar culture which requires that its message maybe conveyed. The culture expresses its idiosyncrasies in a way that is 'culturally-bound': cultural words, proverbs and of course idiomatic expressions, whose origin and use are intrinsically and uniquely bound to the culture concerned (Karamanian, 2001, p. 48).

Over the last two decades, translation studies have received a number of pristine perspectives and in this way have been influenced by the discipline of cultural studies. Translation scholars in England and America such as Bassnett, Lefevere, David L1oyd, and Maria Tymoczko distanced themselves from Even-Zohars's polysestem model. They were on this belief that Zohar's model was too formalistic and restrictive. By adopting more of cultural studies, they concentrated both on institutions of prestige and power within any given culture and patterns in literary translation. Most of translation theorists consider translation as a form of "political" intervention not a neutral activity.

"How to deal with features like dialect and heteroglossia, literary allusions, culturally specific items such as food or architecture, or further-reaching differences in the assumed contextual knowledge that surrounds the text and gives it meaning" are indeed complex technical issues raised in cultural translation (Sturge, 2009, p. 67). Culture is interconnected to language. It determines the way that people behave or speak. Wardhaugh claims that "the structure of a given language determines the way in which the speakers of that language view the world" (1986, p. 212).

Larson declares that "different cultures have different focuses. Some societies are more technical and others less technical." This difference is reflected in the amount of vocabulary which is available to talk about a particular topic (1984, p. 95).

Nord uses the term 'cultureme' to refer to the culture specific items. He defines cultureme as "a cultural phenomenon that is present in culture X but not present (in the same way) in culture Y" (1997, p. 34). Baker refers to the cultural words and concedes that the SL words may express a concept which is totally unknown in the target culture. She points out that the concept in question may be "abstract or concrete, it may relate to a religious belief, a social custom, or even a type of food." Baker then, calls such concepts 'culture-specific items' (1992, p. 21).

According to Gideon Toury, translations are not isolated utterances and a translator does not operate in a vacuum, but is rather "playing a social role", "fulfilling a function allotted by a community", which means that translation as cultural activity is governed by certain constraints, or norms (1995, p. 53). When analyzing translations for the purpose of uncovering the underlying norms in the tradition of Descriptive Translation Studies (Toury 1995), it is beneficial to study certain features that can be seen as symptomatic of these norms.

In the mid-20th century, there has been increasing interest in the question of translators' attitudes to cultural hegemonies when cultural features and values expressed in a Source Text (ST)are different from the translator's, and target reader's. But in this regard, there is a question remains to be answered, which is how to translate these cultural factors. Since culture plays an important role in translation, much consideration should be taken to handle the process of translational cultural norms.

1.1. Statement of the Problem

According to Toury's work, there are specific norms which govern the translator and his performance. These norms are either source-oriented or receptor-oriented. Toury considers a translation to be either source-oriented "adequate" or receptor-oriented "acceptable." The main problem examined in this research is whether the translation of John Steinbeck's novel by Parviz Daryoush is adequate or acceptable.

1.2. Research Significance

This study is one of the rare researches which have been conducted on the cross-cultural overlap and gaps in English and Persian influencing translation in the literary work. It can help translators, interpreters, translation students,….know more about the acceptability and adequacy of translation. This is also a topic which is excessively worthy of research and investigation. Concerning acceptability and adequacy as somehow problematic cases affecting various aspects of translation including: quality, assessment, translators' views, translation policy and…. should be more discussed and investigated. Moreover, this research tries to enlarge the horizon for English Department students who wish for more understanding of the area. It is expected that this study offers some effective aids to the translators when doing the translation of cultural norms and assist them to overcome the misunderstandings and barriers during the cross-cultural communication.

1.3. Research Questions

1. Considering acceptability and adequacy in translation, to what extent is the translation of "Of mice and men" compatible with Gideon Toury's model?
2. What strategies have been employed by the translator in rendering the samples from English into Persian in the novel *"Of Mice and Men"*?
3. What effects do the translated cultural norms have on the meaning of the novel?

1.4.Research Limitations

In the wide and expanding world of translation studies, there exists a large number of names, each with numerous theories and concepts. Roman Jakobson, Eugene Nida, Catford, Venuti, John Dryden, and many other names are only some of the scholars working in the field of translation studies. It is possible to analyze the selected translation on the basis of theories belonging to each of these figures. However, spatial and temporal limitations do not allow the researcher to apply more than one theory. One book may be translated into one language by different translators, and indeed, it is possible for one source text to have a number of target texts. This can be true for the selected novel. However, once again, spatial and temporal restriction does not allow the researcher to investigate all translations of the novel.

A translator might be affected by numerous factors and phenomena and they can influence on the quality of his or her work. Such factors as age, sex, social class, educational background, economical

status, etc., all may be influential in translator's performance. Investigation of all these factors and phenomena is beyond the scope of this study. Because of the factors mentioned above, this study has failed to address all linguistic aspects and mention all translational ways. Thus, some of the conclusions drawn from the findings may be rather subjective and the issues mentioned are still somewhat general.

2. Literature Review

2.1.Translation and Translation Studies

Generally, translation is a process of rendering meaning, ideas, or messages of a text from one language to other language (Nugroho, 2013, p. 1). Some considerations are involved in this process which mainly attributed to quality of translation (Larson, 1984), these are as follows:

- accuracy: representing the meaning of the source text as faithfully as possible;
- naturalness: using the receptor language in ways appropriate to the text being translated; and,
- clearness: expressing the meaning in an understandable way to the intended audience (p. 54).

According to Catford (1965, p. 20), "Translation is the replacement of textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent textual material in another language (TL)", and Nida (1969, p. 12**)** states that translation consists of reproducing in the receptor language the natural equivalent of the source language message, first in terms of meaning and second in terms of style.

The definition of translation is not only limited to Catford's and Nida's view points. A number of scholars in translation have stated different definitions for translation. Shuttleworth and Cowie (1997) define translation as:

An incredibly broad notion which can be understood in many different ways. For example, one may talk of translation as a process or a product, and identify each sub-type as literary translation, technical translation, subtitling and machine translation; moreover, while more typically it just refers to the transfer of written texts, the term sometimes also include interpreting. (p. 181)

Translation studies, on the other hand, is a newly-established discipline which involves a large number of names of figures and scholars suggesting a variety of theories and concepts in this area. These figures have suggested numerous dichotomies for the process and different types of translations including Julian House's 'overt' and 'covert' translation (1971), Peter Newmark's 'semantic' and 'communicative' translation (1988), Roman Jakobson's 'interlingual', 'intralingual' and 'intersemiotic' translation (1959), Eugene Nida's 'formal' and 'dynamic' equivalence (1964), and other distinctions. Such an (overabundance of terminology), as suggested by Munday (2001), might lead to the confusion of students studying in this field. However, it provides a good opportunity for researchers and students to select anyone of the scholars in this area and his or her concepts and theories, based on their interest and topic of study.

While Munday, (2001. p. 5) points out the crucial role of written and spoken translations in inter human communication and providing access to important texts for scholarship and religious purposes, he asserts that studying translation as an academic subject has only begun in the past fifty years which is now generally known as 'translation studies' thanks to Holmes. According to Baker (1998):

Translation studies is now understood to refer to the academic discipline concerned with the study of translation at large, including literary and non-literary translation, various forms of oral interpreting, as well as dubbing and subtitling. The terms 'translation' and 'translators' are used in this generic sense throughout this entry. 'Translation studies' is also understood to cover the whole spectrum of research and pedagogical activities, from developing theoretical frameworks to conducting individual case studies to engaging in practical matters such as training translators and developing criteria for translation assessment. (p. 227)

2.2. Culture

The way "culture" is defined in the Concise Oxford Dictionary is different from descriptions of the "Arts" to plant and bacteria cultivation and includes a wide range of intermediary aspects. Technically, regarding language and translation, Newmark defines culture as "the way of life and its manifestations that are peculiar to a community that uses a particular language as its means of expression" (Newmark, 1988, p. 94), so asserting that each language group has its own culturally specific features. Also, he obviously mentions that he does "not regard language as a component or feature of culture" (Newmark, 1988, p. 95) and opposes to the view taken by Vermeer who states that

"language is part of a culture" (1988, p .222). Newmark believes that Vermeer's viewpoint would imply the impossibility to translate whereas for the latter, translating the source language (SL) into a suitable form of TL is part of the translator's role in transcultural communication.
Translation is process of connection between two cultures. It could be said that without translation exchange of material or non-material factors of two cultures are impossible, because according to Ivir (1987) there is an inseparable relation between culture and language and entrance of a cultural factor from one culture to another is through language. Based on this idea, translation means translation of cultures not languages.
Hongwei (1999) believes in language as a portrait of culture. He says that "language mirrors other parts of culture, supports them, spreads them and helps to develop others" (p.121). This special feature of language distinguishes it from all other facets of culture and makes it crucially important for the transfer of culture. It is no exaggeration to say that, as Hongwei believes too, "language is the life-blood of culture and that culture is the track along which language forms and develops" (p. 121). The formation and development of all aspects of a culture are closely related to one another, and language is no exception. A careful study of the meanings of words and how these changes demonstrate how material culture, institutional culture and mental culture influence the formation and development of language (Hongwei, 1999, p. 123).

2.3. Ideology
The term ideology' has been always accompanied by its political connotation as it is evident in its dictionary definition as a system of ideas and ideals, especially one which forms the basis of economic or *political* theory and *policy*' (The New Oxford Dictionary of English). The ideology of translation could be traced in both process and product of translation which are, however, closely interdependent. The ideology of a translation, according to Tymoczko (2003), will be a combination of the content of the source text and the various speech acts represented in the source text relevant to the source context, layered together with the representation of the content, its relevance to the receptor audience, and the various speech acts of the translation itself addressing the target context, as well as resonance and discrepancies between these two _utterances'. However, she further explains that _the ideology of translation resides not simply in the text translated, but in the voicing and stance of the translator, and in its relevance to the receiving audience'(pp. 182–83). Schäffner (2003) explains:
Ideological aspect can […] be determined within a text itself, both at the lexical level (reflected, for example, in the deliberate choice or avoidance of a particular word […]) and the grammatical level (for example, use of passive structures to avoid an expression of agency). Ideological aspects can be more or less obvious in texts, depending on the topic of a text, its genre and communicative purposes (p. 23).
Most translation projects are initiated by an actor of the domestic culture such as state ideology, cultural climate, the expectations of the target audience, economic and social reasons, etc., and foreign texts are selected not by the translators themselves but by this actor, who manipulates the whole process. The very function of translation thus becomes the rewriting of the foreign text into the domestic culture, in compliance with the domestic cultural norms and resources that make up the overall system of the society. Lawrence Venuti argues that in instances where translations are governed by the state or a similar institution, the identity-forming process initiated by a translated text has the potential to affect social mores by providing a sense of what is true, good, and possible. Translations may create a corpus with the ideological qualification to assume a role of performing a function in an institution (Venuti, 1998, p. 67).

2.4. Norms
The term "norm" may refer both to a regularity in behavior and to the mechanism which accounts for this regularity. The mechanism has a socially regulatory function and comprises a psychological as well as a social dimension. It mediates between the individual and the collective, between the individual's intentions, choices, and expectations, and collectively held beliefs, values, and preferences. Norms bear on the interaction between people, more especially on the degree of coordination required for the continued, more or less harmonious coexistence with others in a group. Norms contribute to the stability of interpersonal relations by reducing uncertainty about how others will act.

By generalizing from past experience and allowing projections concerning similar types of situation in the future, norms help to make behavior more predictable. Translation in a social environment involves transactions between several parties who have an interest in these transactions taking place. The translator, as one of the decision making parties in the transaction, is an agent whose actions are neither wholly free nor predetermined, especially as the entire process is played out in the context of existing social structures. The more the parties can coordinate their actions, the greater the likelihood that they will consider their interaction successful. To appreciate the role of norms and conventions in solving interpersonal coordination problems, we may start from the definition of convention provided by the American philosopher David Lewis (1969).

Lewis describes conventions as regularities in behavior which emerge as contingent solutions to recurrent problems of interpersonal coordination. The solutions are contingent in that they are neither necessary nor impossible: they could have been different. If they prove effective, these solutions become the preferred course of action for individuals in a given type of situation. Conventions grow from precedent into social habit. They do not have to be explicitly agreed, but they presuppose a degree of common knowledge and acceptance. They imply reciprocal expectations and the expectation of expectations: the expectation of others that, in a given situation, I will adopt a certain course of action, and my expectation that others expect me to adopt that course of action.

Conventions are not norms, although the distinction is not always made and conventions are sometimes regarded as implicit norms or "quasi-norms" (Lewis, 1969, p. 97; Hjort, 1990, p. 43). They can, however, become norms by falling victim to their own success. If a convention has served its purpose sufficiently well for long enough, the mutually shared expectation about what course of action to adopt in certain types of situation may grow beyond a mere preference and acquire a binding character. At that point the modality of the expectation changes from cognitive to normative (Galtung, 1959).

Like conventions, norms derive their legitimacy from shared knowledge and mutual expectations; on the individual level, they are largely internalized. Unlike conventions, norms have a directive character: They tell individuals not just how others expect them to behave but how others prefer them to behave. Norms imply that there is a course of action which is more or less strongly preferred because it is accepted as proper or correct or appropriate.

2.5. Toury

The idea of translation being a norm-governed activity was first explored at length by Gideon Toury in his innovative book In Search of a Theory of Translation in 1980. Toury (1995, p. 55) defines norms as: "the translation of general values or ideas shared by a community – as to what is right or wrong, adequate or inadequate – into performance instructions appropriate for and applicable to particular situations". Toury further refined and updated the model in Descriptive Translation Studies and Beyond published in 1995.

Norms have played a significant role in descriptive translation studies, as (Toury, 1995, p. 61) *"it is norms that determine the (type and extent of) equivalence manifested by actual translations"*. Equivalence is the name given to the relationship, of whatever type and extent, between a translation and its original, and the existence of such a relationship is axiomatic in the theory. According to Toury, translations are not isolated utterances and a translator does not operate in a vacuum, but is rather "playing a social role", "fulfilling a function allotted by a community", which means that translation as cultural activity is governed by certain constraints, or norms (1995, p. 53).

According to Toury, norms occupy the middle-ground in a scale of sociocultural constraints ranging, in terms of their force, from more or less absolute rules to mere idiosyncracies (1995, p. 54). The borderline between these constraints is by no means absolute, quite the reverse. They can gain or lose their validity across time along with "changes of status within a society" (1995, p. 54). Norms could be described as the society's way of regulating behaviour by saying what is accepted or tolerated, on the one hand, and what is disapproved of or outright forbidden, on the other (1995, p. 55). Learning this code of conduct is part of an individual's socialisation process (1995, P. 55).

The community within which a translator operates sets certain expectations on the translator for his/her product to be acceptable as a translation within that community. Norms can be considered as general values that are shared by a community and have been converted into instructions governing and evaluating the acceptability of behaviour – for example the activity of translating – applicable to

particular situations (Toury, 1995, p. 55). Deviations from agreed norms can result in 'sanctions' or penalties or, in rare cases, positive changes to existing systems (Toury, 1995, p. 64).
These norms are sociocultural constraints specific to culture, society and time. Toury sees various kinds of norms operating at various stages of the translation process. These norms are as follows**:** *initial, preliminary* and *operational*. Basically Initial norm is the question of a translator deciding to conform to the norms of the source text and, by implication, of the source culture, or to those of the target culture. The two poles between which a translator then operates are, therefore, the translation's adequacy, or "adherence to source norms" (Toury, 1995, p .56), and its acceptability, or adherence to target norms. In practice, the choices made by a translator involve some sort of compromise or negotiation between the two extremes. Preliminary Norm is the choice of text-types or individual texts to be translated (Toury, 1995, pp. 56-59). Operational Norms, those norms governing the way "translations come into being", involving both source and target norms, though to a varying degree (Toury 1995, p .60). In Toury's general classification of norms, Initial norm is situated in the preliminary norms group (1995, p .61).
When discussing norms, Toury mentions two of their qualities that bear on every practicing translator as well as anyone wishing to study them methodically: the socio-cultural specificity of norms and their instability (1995, p. 62). As regards their specificity, norms do not necessarily apply across cultures nor even across the various sub-cultures of a society, whereas their fundamental instability means that they also change across time. Such changes may be prompted by translators themselves, translation criticism, translation ideology, and translation schools (1995, p. 62).
There are two different sources for studying translational norms: textual sources, i.e. actual translations showing the effects of norms, and extratextual sources, i.e. normative and critical formulations and comments from those involved, though they can sometimes be biased (1995, p. 65). By studying these sources a scholar could find out whether particular norms are, in terms of their force, basic or rule-like norms, secondary norms or tendencies, or tolerated behaviour (1995, p. 67).
The concept of norms has become of core importance within Translation Studies, particularly in DTS. Toury's attempt to be objective, descriptive and precise when analysing them has encouraged a new approach towards translation practice, tackling features which had been overlooked until then, such as the very existence of norms operating in the production of translated texts. Undoubtedly, his position towards translational behaviour has proved to have invaluable resonance on translation critics in the last decade. In fact, being acquainted with the current norms in a given literary system seems now to be a crucial initial step when taking into consideration the translation practices within a given culture.

3. Data Collection

There were lots of novels available but not all of them were appropriate to be selected as the data collection source for this study, because some of them were not written originally in English and they were translations from other languages. Therefore, the novel *"Of mice and men"* by John Steinbeck, the Nobel prize-winning American author, was selected because it has been written originally in English. Another reason and the most important one for this selection was that the novel is stuffed with different taboos, cultural norms, and also included many instances of acceptability and adequacy which were needed for data collection process. This study analyzes the translation of a literary book according to Toury's model to find omissions, distortions, alterations, euphemism, etc by the Iranian translator.
Parviz Daryoush was born in Mashad in 1922. He got his diploma in Tehran. Then he went to the United States to continue his studies. He studied English literature, psychology and Philosophy there. After a while, he quitted his studies and returned to Tehran in 1949. He was employed in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Custom Office as a translator. From then on, he began his literary work as a writer and translator. He wrote and translated numerous books. One of his famous translations is '*Of Mice and Men*' in 1961. Daryoush's translation is matchless and fraught with cultural norms which make it appropriate for this study.

3.1.Source Text

1. " . . . . If you . . . . guys would want a hand to work for nothing—just his keep, why I'd come an'lend a hand. I ain't so crippled I can't work like a *son-of-a-bitch* if I want to." (p. 38)

2. “Don’t you even take a look at that bitch. I don’t care what she says and what she does. I seen em poison before, but I never seen no piece of jail bait worse than her. You leave her be.” (p. 16)
3. “Well, we ain’t got any,” George exploded. “Whatever we ain’t got, that’s what you want. God a’mighty, if I was alone I could live so easy. I could go get a job an’ work, an’ no trouble e. No mess at all, and when the end of the month come I could take my fifty bucks and go into town and get whatever I want. Why, I could stay in a cat house all night. I could eat any place I want, hotel or any place, and order any damn thing I could think of. An’ I could do all that every damn month. Get a gallon of *whisky*, or set in a pool room and play cards or shoot pool.” (p. 6)
4. George looked carefully at the solitaire hand. He put an ace up on his scoring rack and piled a two, three and four of diamonds on it. (p. 27)
5. “I never seen a guy really do it,” he said. “I seen guys nearly crazy with loneliness for land, but ever’ time a whore house or a blackjack game took what it takes.” (p. 37)
6. She regarded them amusedly. “Funny thing,” she said. “If I catch anyone man, and he’s alone, I get along fine with him. But just let two of the guys get together an’ you won’t talk. Jus’ nothing but mad.” (p. 38)
7. George said, “I’ll work my month an’ I’ll take my fifty bucks an’ I’ll stay all night in some lousy *cat house*. Or I’ll set in some poolroom till *ever’ body* goes home. An’ then I’ll come back an’ work another month an’ I’ll have fifty bucks more.” (p. 47)
8. “He gonna leave you, ya crazy bastard. He gonna leave ya all alone. He gonna leave ya, crazy bastard.” (p. 92)
9. George looked up. “If that crazy bastard’s foolin’ around too much, jus’ kick him out, Slim.” (p. 24)
10. “Poor bastard,” He said softly. (p. 48)
11. “An’ when the enda the month come—”
“An’ when the end of the month came I could take my fifty bucks an’ go to a . . . . cat house—” (p. 52)
12. “Jus’ the usual thing. We go in to old Susy’s place. Hell of a nice place. Old Susy’s a laugh—always crackin’ jokes. Like she says when we come up on the front porch las’ Sat’day night. Susy opens the door and then she yells over her shoulder, ‘Get yor coats on, girls, here comes the sheriff.’ She never talks dirty, neither. Got five girls there.” (p. 26)
13. “Two an’ a half. You can get a shot for two bits. Susy got nice chairs to set in, too. If a guy don’t want a flop, why he can just set in the chairs and have a couple or three shots and pass the time of day and Susy don’t give a damn. Sheain’t rushin’guys through and kickin’ ‘em out if they don’t want a flop.” (p. 26)
14. “Well, you look her over, mister. You see if she ain’t a tart.” (p. 14)
15. George sighed. “You give me a good whore house every time,” he said. “A guy can go in an’ get drunk and get ever’ thing outa his system all at once, an’ no messes. And he knows how much it’s gonna set him back. These here jail baits is just set on the trigger of the hoosegow.” (p. 28)
16. George let himself be helped to his feet. “Yeah, a drink.” Slim said, “You hadda, George. I swear you hadda. Come on with me.” (p. 53)
17. Candy went on, “Either you guys got a slug of whisky? I gotta gut ache.” (p. 21)
18. “Yeah?” said Crooks. “An’ where’s George now? In town in a whorehouse. That’s where your money’s goin’” (p. 37)
19. “You God damn tramp”, he said viciously. “You done it, di’n’t you? I s’pose you’re glad. Ever’ body knowed you’d mess things up. You wasn’t no good. You ain’t no good now, you lousy tart.” (p. 47)
20. “Tend rabbits,” it said scornfully. “*You crazy bastard*. You ain’t fit to lick the boots of no rabbit. You’d forget ‘em and let ‘em go hungry. That’s what you’d do. An’ then what would George think?” (p. 50)

3.2. Target Text

1 ." اگه شماها.... یکی رو بخواین که مجانی واسه تون کارکنه، همین بخور و نمیر شو بدین، خب، منم باهاتون میام. اونقد ها هم چلاق نیس سم که اگه بخوام نتونم مث یه*ننه سگ* دیگه کار کنم." (p. 132)

2 ."حرومزاده بیشعور، گوش کن می بینی چی می گم. نیگاه به این ماده سگ نکن. به من چه که اون چی می گه و چی کار می کنه. من از این مارا بازم دیده ام. اما همچنین دامی تا حالا ندیده بودم. تو ولش کن." (p. 58)

3 ."و با خشم گفت: هرچی که نداریم تو اونو می خوای. به خدا که اگه تنها بودم، راحت و آسوده زندگی می کردم، میتونسم برم یه کار پیدا کنم مشغول شم، گرفتاریم نداشته باشم. هیچ زحمتی نداشتم. وقتی هم آخر ماه می رسید، پولمو می گرفتم می رفتم شهر هر چه می خواسم می خریدم.

می تونسم تموم شب و تو جنده خونه بخوابم. هر جا می خواسم چیز میخوردم، مهمونخونه بود، جای دیگه بود. هر چه می خواسم دستور می دادم. این کارو هرماه می تونسم بکنم. اگه دلم می خواس یک مشک *شراب* می خریدم، یا می رفتم *قمارخونه* بازی می کردم." (p. 23)

4 . ژرژ با دقت به بازی خود مشغول بود یک تک خال را به کنار نهاد و بعد دو لو و سه لو و چهار لوی پیک را روی آن گذارد. "من هیچ که رو ندیده م این کارو کرده باشه. خیلیا رو دیدم که دلشون واسه یک تیکه زمین لک زده بود اما هر دفعه یه جنده یا یه قمار هر چی داشتن ازشون گرفتن." (p. 98)

5. "از سر تفنن ایشان را می نگریست. "چه خوبه اگه یه مردو گیرم بیارم که تنها باشه، باهش خوش می گذرونم اما همین که دو تا شدن دیگه حرف نمی زنن. کثافتشون بگیرن." (p. 132)

6 . ژرژ گفت: " من این یه ماهو کار می کنم پنجاه دلارمو می گیرم و اونوقت هر شب *می رم جنده خونه*. یا میرم تو یه مهمون خونه ان قد می شینم تا همه برن خونه هاشون. اونوخ بازم میام یه ماه کار می کنم و باز پنجاه دلارمو می گیرم." (p. 163)

7 . "اون می خواد تو حرومزاده کله خرو ول کنه. می خواد ترو تک و تنها بذاره. می خواد تو حرومزاده کله خرو ول کنه." (p. 175-176)

8 . ژرژ بالا نگریست. "اگه اون حرومزاده کله خر زیادی سر به سرشون می ذاره، اردنگش بزن بیرونش کن." (p. 90)

9 . به نرمی گفت: "حرومزاده بدبخت." (p. 169)

10 . " وقتی آخر ماه می رسید، من پنجاه دلارمو می گرفتم می رفتم جنده خونه." (Daryoush, p. 178)

11 . "همون کار همیشگی. ما میریم تو خونه سوزی پیره. جای خوبیه. سوزی پیرزن بگو بخندیه و همه ش شوخی می کنه. مثل اوندفعه که شب یه شنبه رفتیم اونجا. سوزی پیر درو وا کرد، انوقت. از بالای شونه ش داد زد، دخترا لباستنو تنتون کنین، کدخدا آمده. حرفای بد هیچوخ نمی زنه پنجتا خانم اونجا داره". (p. 91)

12 . " دو دلار ونصفی. با یک تیر دو نشون میتونی بزنی. سوزی صندلیای راحتی هم داره. خوب اگه یکی خانوم نخواد، می تونه راحت بنشینه رو صندلی واسه خودش یه چیزی بخوره، سوزیم روزشو بگذرونه، سوزیم پدرشو نمی سوزونه. اگه کسی خانوم نخواد. سوزی اردنگی نمی زنه بیرونش کنه." (p. 91)

13 . " خب، آقا خوب نگاش کن. ببین جنده نیس." (p. 52)

14 . ژرژ آهی کشید و گفت: " یه جنده خونه به هزار تا اینجورش می ارزه. آدم می ره توش مست می کنه، کارشو تموم می کنه، هیچ سر و صداییم نداره. اینو هم میدونه که چقدر خرج داره اما اینجور دخترها هزار فند و ملعنت دارن مثل تله ای که از همه طرفش می کشه." (p. 131)

15 . ژرژ کمک اسلیم را برای برخاستن پذیرفت. " آره، یه گیلاس می زنیم." (p. 184)

16 . اسلیم گفت: " ژرژ، تو باس حتما بخوری. حتما باس بخوری بیا بریم... " (p. 77)

17 . کاندی ادامه داد، " هیچکدام از شماها یه جیکه ویسکی ندارین؟ من شکمم درد میکنه." (p. 131)

18 . کروکس گفت: "راسی؟ پس ژرژ حالا کجاس؟ رفته شهر تو جنده خونه. پولتون اینجوری خرج می شه."

19 . " لگوری مرده شور برده. تو این کارو کردی. نکردی؟ خیال می کنم خوشحالم باشی. همه می دونسن که تو گرفتاری درست می کنی. تو هیچ خوب نبودی. حالاشم خوب نیسی، جنده گندیده." (p. 164)

20 . با صدای لنی به شماتت گفت، " خرگوش داشته باشی؟ *تو حرومزاده تنبل؟* تو قابل این که پای یه خرگوش را هم بلیسی نیستی تو اونا رو فراموش می کنی تا از گشنگی بمیرن. کار تو اینه. اونوقت ژرژ چی خیال می کنه؟" (p. 174)

4. Data Analysis

In the first example, Daryoush translated as the original text. His translation is adequate or source text oriented. Daryoush is faithful to the author and transfer the message as the source text writer intended. He keeps the cultural norms of the source text in the translation. In the second example, Daryoush translated as the source text. He used "حرومزاده بیشعور"in the first sentence. In example 3, Daryoush translated 'a gallon of whisky' and 'pool room' as "یه مشک شراب" and "قمارخونه". He has used foreignization strategy to keep the cultural norms of the source text in translation; he is faithful to the original text. His translation is full of lexical items which are inappropriate to Islamic culture.

As seen in the forth example, Daryoush translates the sentences word for word to be faithful to the original text; that is, his translation is adequate. He conveys the message as intended by the author. Daryoush translates "whore house", in example 5, directly which is another example of adequate translation. His translation shows cultural norms of the source text. In example 6, Daryoush tries to convey the exact message of the source text and does not add or delete the words. He observes the norms of the source text. According to Toury's dichotomy, this is an example of adequate translation.

Daryoush's translation of example 7 is equal to the idea conveyed in the original text. So it can be said that the translation is adequate. On the other hand, he translated '*ever' body*' literally as " همه " according to the source text. In example 8, the translator translates exactly based on the author's wording. In this way, he follows the adequacy in translation. In example 9, Daryoush translates literally based on source text and also considers the norms of source language. The translator, in the tenth example, is faithful to the original text and his translation is adequate; that is, he kept the cultural norms of the source text.

Considering example 11, the translator's intervention is not seen in his rendering. He translates the text without any deletion. His translation is based on source language norms and according to Toury's dichotomy of 'Acceptability' and 'Adequacy'; he follows the adequacy of translation. The

translation of example 12 is adequate. The message in his translation is not differed from the source text. He uses appropriate equivalence for each sentence in the source text and also he is source text oriented. Compared with the source text (example 13), Daryoush's translation can be considered as the original one and follows the thoughts of the writer without any distortion. We can say that the author-centered approach is closely linked to the concept of adequacy. The translation conveys the information/expression contained in the original text.

Regarding example 14, Daryoush translates as the source text linguistics and norms. The translator again follows the adequacy in translation. His translation of example 15 is according to the source text norms and is a case of adequate translation. He translates the text (example 16) without any distortion as the original one. His translation is source text oriented, so it is an adequate translation.

Checking example 17, Daryoush translates word for word. He also uses the **foreignization** strategy and uses "whisky" in his translation. The translator moves toward source text norms but the whole meaning is conveyed without any deletion or omission. So, his translation is adequate. The translator translates example 18 word for word and pays no heed to Islamic ideology in his translation. He maintains the cultural norms of the source language in the translation and follows the adequacy in translation. Concerning example 19, Daryoush is faithful to the author and his translation is source text oriented, thus his translation can be considered as adequate. Daryoush translated the phrase *'You crazy bastard'* in the last example according to the source text and the message is conveyed directly. There is no omission or an equivalent. This kind of strategy which has been used by the translator is towards the source language norms. Daryoush translation is considered as an adequate one and the degree of his translation is over 95%.

5. Conclusion

The study demonstrated that to what extent Toury's dichotomy of "acceptability" and "adequacy" was seen in the Persian translation of the novel. Considering cultural norms and their effects on individuals' beliefs, thoughts, way of living, many translators take up a fortified position in transferring these norms based on those accepted in their communities and some are faithful to the original text and try to maintain the source language norms in translation; that is, they are not sensitive to their own cultural norms. So, the aim of the analysis rooted in the ideology of translators.

Translation of *'Of Mice and Men'* by Daryoush in 1961 was completely different. He was faithful to the source text. He translated all the inappropriate words and did not consider the target's culture. Daryoush did not distort the meaning of words and also did not omit or add words in the target text. He transferred lexical items from English into Persian without intervention. Thus, the translation of Daryoush is considered as an adequate one and its degree of adequacy could be 95%.

Daryoush also had the same ideology except in few cases that some words were changed. It is right to say his ideology was not wholly Islamic. He transferred all vulgar expressions from the source text to the target text except in a few cases. He did not avoid or delete obscene words which are inappropriate for Iranian culture in his translation. Therefore, his translation after the Islamic revolution of Iran did not differ much from before the revolution. Compared with the norms of the target language, the source language norms were much more important for him.

Daryoush did not distort the lexical items of the source text in the translation. There were no cases of rewording in his translation. He did not use euphemism to avoid the lexical items which had negative values. On the other hand, Daryoush transferred the whole offensive words from the source text into the target text. He did not add the words with religious connotations to the target text.

Daryoush, on the other hand, had least changes in his translation. He is source text oriented and his translation is considered adequate. Also, his translation after the Islamic revolution of Iran did not differ much from before that. The translator was not influenced by Islamic and Iranian culture.

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THE EFFECT OF PROMPT CARDS ON VOCABULARY LEARNING: COMPREHENSION AND PRODUCTION

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ABSTRACT
THIS STUDY INVESTIGATED THE EFFECT OF PROMPT CARDS ON COMPREHENSION AND PRODUCTION OF VOCABULARY OF PRESCHOOLERS. THE PARTICIPANTS IN THIS STUDY WERE 60 PRESCHOOLERS 4 TO 7 YEARS OLD, RANDOMLY SELECTED FROM BEGINNER ENGLISH LEARNERS IN A LANGUAGE INSTITUTE IN BORAZJAN, SW OF IRAN. IN THE COURSE OF 12 SESSIONS OF TEACHING PROMPT CARDS, THE MAIN RESEARCHER TESTED THE LEARNERS EVERY THREE WEEKS AND GAVE THEM THE FINAL TEST IN THE FOURTH WEEK. THE CONTROL GROUP LEARNERS WERE TAUGHT VOCABULARY THROUGH ORDINARY PICTURES. THIS STUDY WAS DONE THROUGH TRUE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP, PRETEST POSTTEST CONTROL GROUP. THE PRETEST WAS GIVEN TO ENSURE THE LEARNERS DID NOT HAVE BACKGROUND KNOWLEDGE ABOUT THE WORDS WHICH WERE ABOUT TO BE TAUGHT DURING THE COURSE. IN THIS STUDY, LEARNERS WERE TESTED THROUGH WORD LEARNING SCORE (WLS) AND AN OVERALL TEST IN WHICH PICTURES WERE USED FOR CHECKING THEIR COMPREHENSION AND PRODUCTION. THE COLLECTED DATA WERE ANALYZED BY IMPLEMENTING THE INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST AND MAN-WHITNEY TEST TO COMPARE THE TEST RESULTS OF BOTH GROUPS. THE POSTTEST AND DELAYED POSTTEST OF THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP INDICATED THAT PROMPT CARDS HAD POSITIVE EFFECT ON LEARNERS' PROFICIENCY. MOREOVER, AS THE ANALYSIS OF THE RESULTS SHOWED, THERE WAS A SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE BETWEEN PERFORMANCE OF BOTH GROUPS IN COMPREHENSION AND PRODUCTION.

KEYWORDS: VOCABULARY, PRESCHOOLERS, COMPREHENSION, PRODUCTION, PROMPT CARDS, PICTURES

1.Introduction

Working with EFL preschoolers, the researchers found that some of those learners had problem in comprehension and production of vocabulary. Having detected such problems, the researchers was encouraged to investigate in instructional strategies for preschoolers. The essence of instruction to foreign preschoolers is vocabulary; consequently, most of the instructional strategies are in the field of vocabulary.

This research assumes EFL preschoolers as SLCN children (i.e. children with Speech and Language Communicative Needs) and uses a model of vocabulary teaching for Iranian EFL preschoolers which was used for the preschoolers who were native-speakers of English. Investigation of instructional strategies shows a significant difference between teaching English vocabulary to preschoolers as a foreign language and as a native language. The main instructional strategies used in Iranian English institutes (EFL environment) are using ordinary pictures and repetition.

1.1. Statement of the problem

This study attempted to facilitate comprehension and production by teaching English vocabulary to EFL children of four to seven years old. Generally, most of the teachers use ordinary pictures and

repetition to teach vocabulary to EFL preschoolers in Iranian English institutes. Most of the learners have problem in comprehension and production. Nowadays, instructors, teachers, language therapists invent some vocabulary strategies to help the learners to teach vocabulary.
The necessity for new method encourages English therapists, when working on children with speech language and communication needs, to provide a model to help them to learn vocabulary before they start reading and writing.

1.2. Significance of the study

According to Blachowicz & Fisher (2010) you must use different strategies to teach vocabulary. Owing to that one of the therapists, St. John (2012) used different strategies together for teaching vocabulary. He (2012) introduces Pre-Teaching Vocabulary, which is designed for native learners with learning difficulties. His model invented to cope with the problems that native learners with language difficulty face when they enter the schools.
One of the activities in this model is prompt cards, for children and young use. This technique attempts to help preschoolers in learning vocabulary. This activity tries to teach vocabulary through symbols, pictures and coding questions about different aspect of a word.

1.3. Research questions

The following research questions were addressed in this study:

1. Is there any significant difference between teaching vocabulary through prompt cards and through ordinary pictures in enhancing the EFL preschoolers' comprehension?
2. Is there any significant difference between teaching vocabulary through prompt cards and ordinary pictures in enhancing the EFL preschoolers' production?

2.literature review

This part investigates the conducted studies and developed theories, aimed at finding out what have been done concerning the process of vocabulary teaching and learning in preschoolers and determines the importance of those theories and studies in creating the prompt cards. So, this section is divided into three parts: vocabulary development for native learners, vocabulary development for native disabled learners and vocabulary development for foreign learners.

2.1. Vocabulary development for native learners:

In this section, subjects as psychological and pronunciational learning process in vocabulary learning is examined. Piaget believes in vocabulary development through actions in the environment, but Vygosky believes in vocabulary through the assistance of other people. Both of them believe in mentalist, also exposure to the environment (Cameron, 2001). "Bruner believes in gradual cognitive development and mediation of language between environmental stimuli and the individual response" (McLeod, 2008, p. 1). So, we can mix behaviorism and mentalism for vocabulary learning. The prompt cards use both theories, by using WH-questions for mentalism and critical thinking and repetition of the process of vocabulary learning through three steps for behaviorism.
The instructional strategies for phonological and phonemic awareness are same. These strategies includes isolated sound recognition, word/syllable/phoneme counting, sound synthesis, sound to word matching, identification of sound position, sound segmentation, letter-sound association (Edelen-Smith,1997,pp,103-111) and multi-sensory mapping, picture card snap, sound sort, treasure chest (Antonacci & O'Callaghan, 2012, pp. 1-25). There is a chart developed by Sander, in 1972, which shows the phonemes produced in each age group. Some of questions which are used in the prompt cards are about beginning sounds and clap the syllables relating to the pronunciation which can help learners in learning speaking vocabulary.

2.2. Vocabulary development for native disabled learners:

2.2.1 Critical thinking:

Critical thinking comprises a number of different skills that help us learn to make judgment. According to Beyer (1995) critical thinking means making clear reasoned judgments. Critical thinking is about how to think, not what to think. He also asserts that "the purpose of critical thinking is to ascertain the degree to which some phenomenon meets some criterion." (Beyer, 1995, p. 8) Questioning is the most important part of critical thinking. "Because asking questions that have one right answer encourages children to respond creatively without being afraid of giving the wrong answer." (Scholastic, ND)

2.2.2. Using prompts

"Prompts are the actions taken to directly assist students with the completion of tasks. Prompting is stimulus to direct their attention to critical thinking to be creative. Prompting are extra cues. They use to help learners to be independent in learning." (lasater,2008,p,64-66) We can use both prompting and cueing for completion of what we want to teach, not just tasks, but also for vocabulary.

2.3. Vocabulary development for foreign learners:

A question will be drawn is that is there a critical age for vocabulary? No, there is no critical age for vocabulary. Singleton (1995) believes that there is no critical age for first and second language in vocabulary learning. It is because of brain maturation does not affect the vocabulary development. In second and foreign language, both younger and adult can learn language before and after the age of puberty. Prompt cards assume that learning vocabulary in younger is better than older, although this can also be used for older, the researches show that having a high performance in vocabulary causes better performance in reading and writing, so it is better to learn vocabulary before entering the school.

3.Methodology

The purpose of this study was to seek ways of improving comprehension and production of vocabulary in EFL preschoolers, with an emphasis on the role of prompt cards. This part investigates research methodology based on the aims of the study.

3.1.Design and variables:

In the present study, initially, a vocabulary test was given to ensure the preschoolers had not learned, in their previous exposure to English, the words they were supposed to learn during the treatment. This was followed by four weeks of vocabulary instruction sessions, using ordinary pictures for the control group of learners and prompt cards for the experimental group. In conclusion, this is an experimental study. The variables in this study are prompt cards as the independent variable, learners' scores in vocabulary comprehension and production as dependent variable. The group receiving prompt cards as treatment was considered as the experimental group; with the other group for which ordinary pictures were used as the control group.

3.2. Participants:

This study was conducted on 60 randomly-chosen students of an English language institute in Borazjan, SW of Iran. They were in the beginning level, ranging from 4 to 7 years old. All of them studied the same book "Pockets series" for their English learning. The participants were divided into two groups: experimental (4 classes) and control (4 classes). EGs (experimental group) received the treatment in the form of prompt cards (PTV) and the other received no treatment (through ordinary pictures, only). The experiment was carried out during 12sessions of one hour, three days per week, lasting for one month.

3.3. Materials:

The materials required in this study included different pictures of the same topic, like picture dictionary, websites and books that had pictures about the same topics, symbols that were available in PTV booklet and if needed using symwriter software online, tunes of nursery rhymes (also available in PTV booklet) and silent music of nursery rhymes, word learning score and word knowledge record keeping sheets available in PTV booklet.

3.4. Instruments:

The instruments required in this study are tests. in the present study, tests with high level of explicitness are used, in which predetermined test items were given to the participants. We should consider that all of the tests were administered orally, because all of the participants were illiterate.

3.4.1. test1(to ensure the learners do not already know the words that will be presented to them):

In the first session of each lesson, according to Beck and McKeown (2002) for word selection, a test was given to learners to make sure that they do not have any background knowledge about the words that were to be taught in that particular session.

3.4.2. Tests 2 and 3(The achievement and delayed achievement tests):

A word learning score checklist was provided to check the proficiency level of the entire participants in experimental group. This checklist consisted of name it, give it a meaning, clap syllables, beginning sound, and indicate word length, function + action, category, location, make a link, and synonym. In the present study, the achievement tests were given to learners of experimental group on a weekly basis, i.e. three times in a month. Moreover, a delayed achievement test was given after four weeks.

3.4.3.An overall achievement test for experimental and control groups:

The overall test consisted of two parts: comprehension and production. Each one covered ten words. The set of the words in these two parts overlapped, but were not necessarily the same. To test the learners on those sets of vocabulary, the main researcher used pictures that differed from those used during teaching process – to eliminate the probability of the learners' having memorized the pictures.
In comprehension section, the approach used in British Picture Vocabulary Scale Test (Dunn et al, 1997) was used with some modifications: In the original method, teacher says a word and the learner responds by selecting a picture from four options that best illustrates the word's meaning; in this research, ten pictures were shown to the learners, asking them to pick up the picture which the teacher named.
In production section, Expressive One Word Picture (Brownell, 2000) was used, which assesses the verbal expression by asking them to name objects, actions and concepts. So, a picture was shown to the learners, asking them to name it. This pair of tests revealed how many words out of ten were comprehended and produced, respectively, by the learners in prompt cards and ordinary pictures.

4.Results

In what follows, the test results are tabulated and analyzed:

4.1. Word Learning Score (WLS)

This section covers Word Learning Score test, which was used to check the progress in the experimental group. Also an overall test of comprehension and production of vocabulary for both experimental and control group is analyzed.
In Table 4.1, the frequency of scores in WLS test is shown. This test consisted of three achievement tests and three delayed achievement tests.

		posttest1	Delayed-posttest1	posttest2	Delayed-posttest2	posttest3	Delayed-posttest3
N	Valid	30	30	30	30	30	30
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		40.0667	55.7333	24.4667	33.8667	15.6000	23.6667
Median		39.0000	57.0000	24.0000	34.0000	15.0000	24.0000
Mode		38.00	58.00	24.00	34.00	11.00[a]	23.00[a]
Minimum		35.00	34.00	18.00	31.00	10.00	18.00
Maximum		51.00	63.00	30.00	37.00	27.00	27.00
Sum		1202.00	1672.00	734.00	1016.00	468.00	710.00

a. Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown

The table above (4.1) indicates that each section of test covered the same number of participants, i.e. 30. The achievement test 1 indicates an overall test, for both comprehension and production. The sum of the scores for achievement test 1 is 1202.00 and for delayed achievement test is 1672.00. The minimum and maximum scores are 35 and 51 for posttest and 34 and 63 for delayed achievement test. The achievement test 2 indicates production of vocabulary. The sum of the scores in this test for achievement test 2 is 734 and for delayed posttest is 1016. The minimum and maximum scores are 18 and 30 for achievement test 2, and 31 and 37 for delayed achievement test 2, respectively. The achievement test 3 indicates comprehension of vocabulary. The sum of the scores is 468 for achievement test 3and 710 for delayed achievement test3. The minimum and maximum of scores are 10 and 27 for achievement test 3 and 18 to 27 for delayed achievement test. As it can be seen, the scores in comprehension test are the lowest. The delayed achievement test 2 has the maximum score, which are 37. The maximum of scores in comprehension test in both achievement test and delayed achievement test are the same. (The details of scores in these tests are presented in List of tables No.1 to 6.)

4.2. Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

If a researcher intends to investigate existence of significant difference between two samples tested in a community, independent samples t-test or Mann-Whitney test is used, depending on the fact whether the distribution is parametric (normal) or non-parametric(abnormal), respectively. Kolmogorov-Smirnov testis used for checking normality of samples distribution:
Table 4.2. Results of Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

		Comp	Prod
N		60	60
Normal Parameters[a,b]	Mean	4.3333	4.8667
	Std. Deviation	1.14487	1.38352
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.236	.168
	Positive	.178	.168
	Negative	-.236	-.160
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		1.832	1.300
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.002	.068

a. Test distribution is Normal.
b. Calculated from data.

In this test, the null hypothesis indicated that the observations follow a normal distribution and the alternative hypothesis indicated abnormal observations. For the word production, because the Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed) in this table was greater than the 0.05, the null hypothesis was retained. On the other hand, for the word comprehension, since the Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed) was0.002, the null hypothesis was rejected. Therefore, it was concluded that comprehension of words follows abnormal distribution. Therefore, an independent t-test (parametric) was used for the production of words and Mann-Whitney test for comprehension of words.

H0: There is no significant difference between prompt card and ordinary pictures in production of words.

Here are the characteristics for both groups for production of words:

Table4.3. Descriptive Statistics for Word Production

group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Prod	1	30	6.0000	.78784	.14384
	2	30	3.7333	.78492	.14331

As it can be seen, the mean in prompt cards is higher than in ordinary pictures.

4.3.T-test

In this test, the null hypothesis showed no difference and H1 represents the difference between the two groups for the production of words. The following table displays the result of independent samples t-test, for the production of words between groups using prompt cards and using ordinary pictures:

Table4.4.Levene'sTest Results for word production t-test

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

	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig.(2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	.437	.511	11.164	58	.000	2.26667	.20304	1.86023	2.67310
Equal variances not assumed			11.164	57.999	.000	2.26667	.20304	1.86023	2.67310

As shown in the table above, the calculated significance level is less than 0.05. Therefore, from the results of independent t-test, significant difference can be concluded between production of words of the two methods: i.e. prompt cards and ordinary pictures. Levine also tests the significance level greater than 0.05, which indicates the equality of standard deviation of the two groups. On the other hand, there have been the result of that test was carried out at 95% of validity and critical values are +1.96 and -1.96; if the value of t obtained between these two numbers the null hypothesis is accepted and otherwise H1 is confirmed. Since the t value (11.164) is more than this amount, the researchers' hypothesis (H1), that shows a significant difference between the two groups in terms of words, is confirmed. The mean group using prompt cards (6) compared with groups of ordinary pictures (3.733) is much higher. So, using the prompt cards in comparison to the using ordinary pictures in production of words has a high significant difference.

H0: there is no significant difference between prompt cards and ordinary pictures in comprehension of words.

Here are the characteristics of two groups of comprehension:

Table4.5. Mean ranks for comprehension in prompt cards and ordinary pictures

group2	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
1	30	43.43	1303.00
2	30	17.57	527.00
Total	60		

As it can be seen, the mean rank in prompt cards is much higher than ordinary pictures.

4.6. Mann-Whitney test:

In this test, the null hypothesis showed no difference; hence, H1 represents the difference between the two groups for comprehension of words. The following table is the result of Mann-Whitney test, for the comprehension of words between groups using prompt cards and using ordinary pictures is displayed below:

Table4.6. Results of Mann-Whitney test for comprehension

Test Statistics[a]

	Comp
Mann-Whitney U	62.000
Wilcoxon W	527.000
Z	-5.990
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.000

a. Grouping Variable: group2

As shown in the table above, since the significance level is less than0.05, from the results of Mann-Whitney test, it can be concluded that there is a significant difference between the two groups of using prompt cards and ordinary pictures in comprehension of words. Moreover, the mean of group of using prompt cards (6) is much higher when compared with the group of using ordinary pictures (3.733). Therefore, the use of prompt cards compared to the use of ordinary pictures in the comprehension of words is more efficient.

5. Discussion

In this section, the researchers set forth interpretations and opinions, explains the similar researches, and makes suggestions for further studies.

5.1. Results of similar studies:

One of the studies done in Iran which is close to the present study is the use of graphic organizers for vocabulary teaching. The research was done by Shoari and Farokhi (2014) on the university students learning vocabulary through graphic organizers in form of clusters and pictures. While those learners were asked to draw the picture of new words in the same topic; in the present research, prompt cards were used to teach the new words relating to the same topic (since graphic organizers are in written form, they were not workable for preschoolers). The mentioned study shows that graphic organizer is effective in vocabulary learning than traditional instruction. In similar, the present study shows that using prompt cards for vocabulary learning is more effective than traditional instruction.

Another similar study was Mansourzadeh (2014) in which the teaching vocabulary through pictures and audio-visual aids were compared. Mansourzadeh (2014) showed that learners outperformed learning vocabulary in using picture than in visual aids method – a result that was contrary to the present study which shows that the still pictures are not enough for vocabulary learning.

Finally, a research by Tavakoli and Gerami (2013) showed that keyword method is more effective than pictorial method in vocabulary learning for elementary students. Similarly, the present study showed that keyword method worked as the cues for understanding and remembering words, but these cues were derived from the first language.

5.2.Limitation of the study and suggestions for further studies:

One of the problems in this study was low exposure of preschoolers to English, which required more time in order to obtain better results and learn more vocabulary. Although the highest score was only 63 out of 100, those learners with prompt pictures performed better in comprehension and production, when compared with those who used ordinary pictures.

The following are suggested for further studies:

The present study did not take into account learning vocabulary in higher quantity, more than 10 words. To that end, the experiment must be done in longer time spans, for example one year with higher quantity of vocabulary to increase the probability of high performance in vocabulary learning. To check the effect of prompt cards in greater scopes and with different levels of proficiency, considering these characteristics is necessary. This study considered putting each of the words in one simple sentence. To have a better effect on comprehension in different contexts, and using them in their particular contexts, using through different sentences must be tried. This study considered vocabulary in speaking and neglected other types of vocabulary in reading and writing. In order to reach this aim, the effect of prompt cards on reading and writing should be considered.

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TEXTUALITY ORIENTED OR GRAMMATICALITY ORIENTED FOCUS ON FORM TASKS?

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ABSTRACT
BASED ON SOCIO-CULTURAL THEORY OF LANGUAGE AND LEARNING, A NEW, TEXTUALITY-ORIENTED FOCUS ON FORM APPROACH TO TASK-BASED LANGUAGE TEACHING IN CONTRAST TO THE DOMINANT GRAMMATICALITY-ORIENTED FOCUS ON FORM APPROACH HAS BEEN PROPOSED AND ITS EFFECT ON TWO GROUPS OF IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS' GENERAL ENGLISH READING ABILITY AT THE UNIVERSITY LEVEL HAS BEEN MEASURED. OVERALL 62 FEMALE NURSING MAJOR STUDENTS, WITH AN AVERAGE OF 21 YEARS OLD, PARTICIPATED IN THIS STUDY. GROUP A CONSISTED OF 33, AND GROUP B, 29 STUDENTS. AFTER GIVING A PRE-TEST, A PERIOD OF THREE MONTHS OF INSTRUCTION (3 HOURS EACH WEEK) FOLLOWED. THE STUDENTS IN GROUP A TOOK A TEXTUALITY-ORIENTED FONF INSTRUCTION AND THE STUDENTS IN GROUP B TOOK A GRAMMATICALITY-ORIENTED FONF INSTRUCTION. AT THE END OF INSTRUCTION THE SAME IELTS MODEL TEST (READING SECTION OF A GENERAL MODULE), WHICH WAS GIVEN AS PRE TEST WAS REPEATED. AN INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T-TEST WAS CONDUCTED TO DETERMINE THE STATISTICAL SIGNIFICANCE OF THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE TWO GROUPS. THE RESULTS INDICATED THAT THE TEXTUALITY FONF APPROACH TO TASK-BASED LANGUAGE TEACHING CAN HAVE A PROFOUND EFFECT ON IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS' GENERAL READING ABILITY AT THE UNIVERSITY LEVEL AS MEASURED BY IELTS MODEL TEST. THE PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATION WAS DISCUSSED.

KEY WORDS: TASK-BASED INSTRUCTION, FOCUS-ON-FORM, TEXTUALITY, GRAMMATICALITY

1. Introduction

As an offshoot of communicative language teaching, task based language teaching was developed in reaction to the traditional dominant approach in language teaching and syllabus design which mainly emphasized a discrete approach in presenting the skills and components of language for instruction. Unlike the traditional grammar translation and audio-lingual approaches which were essentially a linguistic approach focusing on translation and surface representation of language in teaching, task-based language teaching and all other similar meaning-focused approaches following communicative language teaching principles, had the common goal of presenting meaningful language in the process of instruction. Tasks were defined as "activities which required learners to use language with emphasis on meaning to attain an objective"(Bygate, Skehan and Swain, 2001, cited in Skehan, 2003, p.3). Tasks were considered meaning-based activity units which had the major aim of engaging students in achieving certain real-world or pedagogical outcome. It was different from all sorts of traditional exercises which treated aspects of language as separate and devoid of any context

or meaning. Overall the essential idea in this strong version of CLT approach was that students will learn a foreign language naturally as their first language when their attention is focused on meaning. It was believed that language can develop by itself when their attention is focused on something else (for example the content). In fact this was also the idea underlying a content- based approach to teaching, emphasizing teaching a language through using the foreign language as a medium of presenting the content. Another similar meaning-based approach, Krashen and Terrel's Natural Approach also emphasized the importance of "comprehensible input' allowing the learner's competence to be developing by itself without any explicit instruction.

In general, in the literature of language teaching, CLT with its different varieties of meaning-based approaches to language teaching were in fact revolutionary in liberating us from the traditional, structural and habit-formation approaches to teaching where meaning and contextual factors had no place in language instruction.

2. Review of literature

Due to some problems with a purely meaning-based instruction (the strong version of TBLT included among them), scholars in the field of SLA later came to a consensus that a weak version of TBLT, namely, "focus on form" (FonF), may prove to be much more helpful. Among the problems cited for a purely meaning-based approach to instruction are:

- Students do not gain high levels of language proficiency; i.e. studies have shown that the rate of acquisition would be higher if formal language instruction were used.
- Fossilization will occur when incorrect form of language of students are not corrected
- It ignores the role of negative evidence in 2nd language learning.

These problems led the SLA researchers to search for terms to cover this neglected aspect of meaning-based approaches to teaching, namely the forms or the language aspect. The terminologies used in recent SLA researches and literature of language teaching will be a proof to the above claim; terms such as: "Consciousness-Raising" (Ellis, 2003), "Input Enhancement" (Sharwood Smith, 1993 in Ellis, 2003), and "Focus on Form" (Long, 1991; Fotos and Nassaji, 2007).

As a result, SLA researchers and practitioners in the field of language teaching all seem to agree on the idea of tasks as not only essentially a meaning-based activity, but also having a form-focused component, emphasizing on the linguistic aspect of the task. Terms such as " Interaction", "Output", "Negative Evidence", "Attention", " Consciousness- Raising" and " Focus on Form" (Long, 1996;Swain, 1985& 1995; Schmidt, 1990, 1994, 2001; and Carrol, 2001) all believe in some degree of attention to grammar and accuracy while, of course emphasizing the primacy of communication, focus on meaning and appropriacy.

What is meant by FonF component of course is not the traditional focus on formS This, of course, reminds us of the traditional tripartite phase of teaching, a ppp (presentation, practice, and production) or a product-oriented approach. FonF, as was originally defined by Long (1996), is any activity in which students could implicitly or incidentally attend to the form of language as opposed to its meaning. A distinction is usually made between this "incidental" or " implicit" attention to form where there is no pre-plan on the side of the teacher to bring to consciousness a specific linguistic form and " explicit" presentation of forms where there is always a planned decision made by the teacher to do so. Of course some scholars like Ellis (2004) use form-focused instruction including both types of activities (explicit and implicit). Long's original definition of FonF was also later redefined by Long and Robinson (cited in MinseuYu, 2013) to include not merely as something occurring incidentally but also "any proactive attempt to teach certain linguistic forms communicatively". Williams and Evans (1998, cited in Baleghizadeh, 2010) also emphasized on the proactive presentation of FonF activities.

Needless to say that quite a lot of recent studies in ELT have focused on task-based activities which included a form-focused component, quite rightly emphasizing not merely the communicative aspect, but also grammaticality aspect of tasks in TBI.

However, in none of these studies the concept of FonF goes beyond the traditional conceptualization of knowledge as transferring surface grammatical knowledge of rules from the teacher to the learner. Actually, after all those improvements made following the introduction of

communicative language teaching approach under the names of "learning-centered", " teaching how to learn", " no/less teacher role", and so on, we now came to an understanding that knowledge is "procedural" and " constructed" and not learned. All the recent studies on tasks claiming to focus on forms have been considering the traditional notion of form (like tense, number, gender, person, etc.) ignoring the fact that these discrete linguistic aspect of language by themselves do not carry any value. Rather, they take their value in relation to other contextual and co-textual factors.

Following a Vygotskyan and socio-cultural approach to language teaching and learning which underscores the importance of conceptualizing language learning as a developmental process mediated by semiotic resources (included among them "text" or printed material), we opt for a definition of text (any text, written or spoken) as a "mediator" (Widdowson, 1884) between the receiver and the producer. To comprehend a text, the receiver using his background knowledge and the integrity which he/she receives by the textuality of a text and his own specific goal or motivation can arrive at an interpretation. This interpretation may or may not be the same as what was originally intended by the speaker/writer. In the same way to be involved in a specific task necessitates a "receiver", a "producer" and a "mediator" (which may or may not be the language). And because of these other internal factors involved, the tasks cannot be generalized and the same task may result in different outcomes in different situations depending on the participants and their goals. So as also stated by Lantolf (2000), tasks are not externally defined on the basis of task procedures but internally defined on the basis of participant goals, desires, and motivations. Within this perspective, any "FonF" task should be redefined by referring to the textuality on the basis of which a text is constructed, i.e. the way linguistic and non-linguistic elements hang together at the textual level manifesting a discourse process. This connectedness or organization is discoursally motivated. The text as a mediator, rather than presenting the producer (writer or speaker) meaning in its ready-made shape to the receiver offers a set of indices to set the comprehension process in motion, through which the receiver may be able to negotiate a message by engaging her/his world or schematic knowledge(Lotfipour Saedi, 2009)

The aim of this experimental research is to study the effect of two approaches to task-based language teaching in reading comprehension on the general English Reading of students as assessed by standard reading comprehension tasks (IELTS model test). These two approaches are: (1) Grammaticality oriented FonF approach to teaching reading comprehension which is the dominant approach now in use and (2) Textuality oriented FonF approach employed by the author. Of course the principles and procedures of such an approach have already been defined in a textbook called "Towards the Textuality of a text" by Lotfipour Saedi (2006). The author explains based on his own long term experience in EFL teaching he believes in the experiential validity of the approach. However, as yet no experimental study has taken place to prove its validity.

Before describing the procedures and design of the research, several points need to be made clear. First, the textuality oriented FonF tasks are rather strategies to provide support and "scaffolding" (using Vygotsky's term) for further negotiation of meaning. They are not communicative activities in the real sense of the term. As a result, the tasks/strategies aim at gradual liberation of the students from being dependent on teacher or grammar book to deal with any type of unseen texts. They are in a sense "self-regulating". In this approach the core or the central point to get or deliver a message is " the process" expressed in traditional grammar as "verb", i.e. the main verbs across the sentences (or t-units) of a text. A sentence defined as a stretch of words beginning with a capital letter and ending in a full stop is a psycho-socio-linguistically important package (Lotfipour-Saedi, 2006) in the hierarchical organization of a text. It is a psycho-socio-linguistically important package because (1) it can take care of limitations in human short-term memory and (2) it reveals the options/choices available at each rank (word, phrase, clause, or other levels) to the discourse producer. The "process" or the "verb" of a main clause is the major element in receiving or delivering a message. "Processes" (a Hallidayan notion in Functional Grammar) or "verbs" determine the number of "participants" or "arguments". It is from this lexical rank (process), which the perception of textuality starts. The faster a reader is able to isolate the "satellite elements" (the main verbs) from their intervening defining words, the faster he will be able to manage the text. Thus, one of the effective strategies to help a reader to perceive the textuality of a text is to raise their consciousness

about the defining (modifying and qualifying) elements in noun groups and their variations (short-forms).

The second point which needs to be made clear is that in this study, as was mentioned before, we are focusing on comprehension and specifically written comprehension tasks or strategies.

The third point is that the program has been especially used for Iranian EFL learners at university level. In other words, it was used for those first year university students who have already obtained quite a lot of English knowledge before attending university, and even after passing general English and ESP courses still are not competent enough in processing English materials in their major field of study and so are getting disappointed as a result of their poor competencies. As teachers who had long term experience in teaching EFL courses, the observation in our classes support the fact that the major problem of non-English major students in understanding English texts is related to not having a correct and through understanding of the way different parts of a sentence are related to each other and to the central and dominant idea in the text through different sorts of textualization devices such as:

a) The thematic agency of the t-unit; i.e. the structural component which occurs at the initial position and forms the theme of the unit as opposed to its rheme. Halliday, 1994)
b) Cohesive agencies in the text which include references, Ellipses, substitutions, lexical collocations, lexical reiterations, and conjunctions (Halliday and Hassan,1976)
c) Macro-structures: paragraph and section arrangements, and paragraph topics.
d) Generic conventions
e) Inter-textual materials ,i.e. references to other texts(quotations), tables, diagrams, pictures, etc. which contribute to the message by directing the ' pulses" (see lotfipour-Saedi, 2009)

So apart from the propositional elements and their verbs in a text, which act like "impulse-generators" (Lotfipour-Saedi,2009), there are the above-mentioned textually-mediated indices in any text (apart from the reader-mediated ones) which provide "direction" and "orientation" to the discursive pulsation of the t-units. And these form the "supportive synapses" in a text. (see Lotfipour Saedi,2006)

In line with the above argument, we propose that what our students need to know in order to process the information in their general English courses should be presented in the form of a " textuality oriented focus on form" in order to raise their consciousness with regard to the above-mentioned factors. The focus, thus, should shift from the discrete linguistic elements (like tenses, prepositions, relative clauses, passives and so on) to the major underlying discoursal function for which these elements are used in a text and the way these textuality oriented indices can liberate students to use a range of language structures to achieve task-outcomes. The forms of language used in a task obviously cannot be specified in advance. They are unpredictable and it is the underlying motivation of the learners/users of language along with the other contextual and co-textual factors involved which can help the learners to construct a meaning "in" interaction. Teachers should not expect all students to achieve the same goal predicted for a task; they can just provide the necessary support to direct them toward understanding others (written or spoken) or expressing themselves. And this can only be provided if we present FonF tasks which while supporting them how to construct a meaning on the basis of the options available in the system of language(in the form of mediators) can at the same time gradually liberate them from this dependence on teacher's help, paving the way toward their independence.

However, as was stated above as yet no experimental study has been conducted to measure the effect of this type of textuality oriented "focus on form" instruction on the degree of students' learning. This research aims at investigating this effect on intermediate level students Reading comprehension ability of Iranian EFL learners. Reading comprehension is defined as an interactive process in which the reader constructs a meaning according to his own prior knowledge of the world and all the co-textual and contextual factors (including the writer or discourse producer) set in the text as indices to process the information contained. It is the most important skill for non-English major students. In

fact this is the skill they most need to prepare themselves for reading more technical materials related to their specific majors. A quick survey of university students' problems in dealing with reading English texts in Iran reveal the fact that not only the textbooks but also the procedures employed by university teachers in teaching this skill suffer major weaknesses. Both the methodology used and the textbooks designed for these students follow a traditional view of language as structure and teaching as translation and memorizing grammatical rules. Based on the above argument, our research question will be as follows:

Does the Textuality oriented FonF group perform better than Grammaticality oriented FonF group in Reading comprehension tasks?

Based on the theoretical discussion presented above and our observation and long term experience in teaching EFL through this approach the hypothesis is: FonF strategies/tasks will have profound positive effect on Reading comprehension of EFL learners.

3. Material and Method

3.1 Participants

Two groups of Nursing major students, Group A consisting of 33 and Group B consisting of 31 students were selected for this study. The decision for the division of the students in those groups had already been made by the education office. So there was no manipulation in selection of subjects in general, but a simple random sampling technique was used to select the groups as experimental or non-experimental. Both groups consisted of female students with an average age of 21, taking a general English course in their major and studying at Azad university of Lahijan, Iran. The criteria for selecting Nursing as against other majors were (1) the homogeneity of the groups (all females); and (2) the availability; i.e. enough number of students.

3.2 Material and Procedure

Before the start of the program, both groups were pretested on an IELTS model test to check their initial ability level. Test papers of Students with extreme scores were excluded from final analysis (3 students). So from a total number of 35 and 32 students in the two groups , after excluding the extreme scores, Group A consisted of 33, and Group B consisted of 31 students. Both classes were held on the afternoon of the same day. The same teacher taught both classes. The students in class B were taught using a grammaticality oriented FonF approach for their general reading course and students in class A were taught using a textuality oriented FonF approaches. The textbook used was "English for the students of medicine" prepared by specific governmental organization and delegated by ministry of science, and technology in Iran. Overall seven chapters were covered. There were two drop-outs in class A (making a total of 29 students); but no drop-outs in class B (33 students). After three months of instruction (three hours session each week, the same IELTS test used as pre-test was given as post-test. During the instruction it was made sure that none of the students in the two groups had received any extra- curricular instruction.

3.3 Instructional Sequence

On the basis of the model proposed by Willis(1996) , who believes that tasks consists of three phases; namely, **pre-task**, **task cycle** and **language focus (consisting of analysis and practice**) ,our instructional sequence in class B (Grammaticality oriented FonF) was as follows:

1) ***Pre-reading tasks or "warm-up"*** consisted of strategies to activate students' prior knowledge of the topic, to prepare the mind to interact with new information contained in the text (i.e. what Nunan, 2005 has referred to as schema building). These strategies included:

- Brainstorming
- Noticing glossaries
- Reading the first paragraph and the last paragraphs of the chapter

2) ***During reading tasks*** consisted of strategies used to help students to interact with the text and to monitor (keep track of) comprehension. These strategies included:

- Finding the main idea of the paragraphs
- Writing Margin notes
- Recording observations about a text that might help in interpreting a text
- Planning for reporting to the class

- Reporting their understanding or interpretation briefly to the whole class

3) ***Language focus***: consisted of two phases: analysis and practice.

According to Willis (1996), **"analysis"** means consciousness-raising or language awareness activities that focus explicitly on language form and use. These strategies varied depending on the major grammatical points considered for each chapter of the book. Examples include:

- Find all phrases referring to place
- Find five phrases referring to time
- Find words ending in "ed"
- Find clauses beginning with "who"
- Find all passive verbs
- Find words or phrases related to the title of the text
- And other sentence-based strategies

The other component of language focus phase is "**practice"** which provide confidence and a sense of security for the students. Examples include:

- Choral repetition of the clauses or phrases identified
- Having the students change all passive verbs to active and making necessary adjustments
- Sentence completion (set by one team for another)
- Comprehension check: this included answering to end of chapter questions or questions posed by the teacher
- Sentence completion exercises in each chapter of the book

In contrast, the instructional sequence in class A followed as:

1) **Pre-reading tasks** which consisted of exactly the same procedure as class A
2) **Reading tasks** which consisted of consciousness-raising tasks including Macro and Micro tasks. Each session began with macro strategies and moved toward micro strategies
   a) **Macro strategies**:

- Identifying the genre of a text (e.g. electronic message, business letter, drug brochure, medical report, ...)
- Identifying discoursal moves (e.g. first, secondly, anyway, …)
- Identifying discourse markers (e.g. yet, however, and still, eventually, …)
- Working on cohesive ties (references, substitution and ellipsis). For example Identifying the references for pronouns
- Locating the topic of the paragraphs

   b) **Micro strategies**

- Identifying the "process" elements or the main verbs of some t-units, especially complex sentences)
- Identifying the "verb frames" [3] of selected sentences
- Identifying the "participants" for each process type
- Underlying the modifiers
- Identifying the qualifiers
- Specifying the adverbials
- Identifying single-word and multi-word connectors
- Identifying verb-groups or different types of "verbal modulators"[4]
- Identifying different types of conjunctions (e.g. condition, reason, time, exemplification, paraphrasing, …)
- Identifying collocation
- Identifying the function of some phrases as determined by the teacher

3) Comprehension check

1. Every sentence consists of a verb and 1-3 satellite elements or arguments. Verb frame refers to this verb and verb-satellite complex. In contrast to traditional Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary which specifies 40 patterns, in the framework proposed here there are only 6 verb frames (for further information see Lotfipour Saedi,2006)

2. Verbal modulators represent the writer's or speaker's attitudes and viewpoints towards the topic. Examples are modals, passivization, fronting, first verb in double verbs, and many others (see Lotfipour Saedi, 2006 for further information)

- Discussing the main ideas of the paragraphs
- Discussing the purpose for which the text was written
- Discussing the audience for which the text was written
- Students reflection on the text and giving their attitudes or feelings about the text
- answering end of chapter questions or questions posed by the teacher and sometimes other students

As we progressed through the course, students in group B (FonF group) felt less need in micro strategies; the class instead focused more on the macro strategies.

3.4 Test Administration

To test the effect of two approaches on students General Reading Comprehension, an IELTS model test (General Module) was used. It included 26 items (actually sections 2 and 3, questions 15-40 from Cambridge IELTS 4, 2005), consisting of 20 closed and 6 completion type tests. (A copy of the test is provided in Appendix A). The post tests in both classes were administered in one of students' class sessions on the same day. The time allocated for answering the test was 45 minutes. Each correct answer was given 1 point. Wrong and non-response items were not given any points. In scoring open-ended items, "exact word method" was used

4. Results

An independent sample-t-test was conducted to compare the effect of type of instruction (Textuality oriented FonF vs. Grammaticality oriented FonF tasks) on students' general English reading ability. At the beginning of the program, as the result of pretest in the two groups in table 1 reveals, the average performance of the students were similar. The differences between the groups were not statistically significant.

Table 1 Group Statistics: Result of pretests in Text-oriented vs. Gram-oriented FonF groups

	Type of Instruction	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
IELTS General English Reading Scores	TextFonF	33	9.9697	1.92816	.33565
	GramFonF	31	9.2903	2.06871	.37155

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
IELTS General English Reading Scores	Equal variances assumed	.001	.970	1.360	62	.179	.67937	.49960	-.31930	1.67805
	Equal variances not assumed			1.357	60.913	.180	.67937	.50071	-.32189	1.68064

At the end of the program, as can be seen in table 2 below, there was a significant difference in scores for Textuality oriented FonF (M=14.90, SD=2.02) and Grammaticality oriented FonF, M=10.48, SD= 1.84; t (60) = 8.96, p<0.01(1-tailed). The magnitude of the difference in the means (mean difference=4.42, 95% CI: (3.43 - 5.41) was large (eta squared 0.57).

As a result, the findings support the hypothesis that Textuality oriented FonF group perform better than Grammaticality oriented FonF group in general English reading skill.

Table 2: Results of performance of Text.oriented vs. Gram.Oriented FonF after instruction

	Type of Instruction	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
IELTS General English Reading	FonF Instruction	33	14.9091	2.02119	.35184

Score	Grammaticality Oriented Instruction FonF	29	10.4828	1.84431	.34248

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
IELTS General English Reading Score	Equal variances assumed	.040	.843	8.961	60	.000	4.42633	.49396	3.43827	5.41439
	Equal variances not assumed			9.015	59.905	.000	4.42633	.49101	3.44414	5.40852

5. Discussion

In the light of new approaches developed in the field of language teaching and learning, especially socio-cultural theory of language, an irreversible fact now is that the job of language teacher is not teaching, but planning for the learner to learn. This planning can be done through the tasks the language teaching programs design, through which the learner "acquires" a language. What the statistical findings in this study support is the fact that the type of instruction, i.e. whether to focus on textuality oriented strategies and to plan for students' learning or Grammaticality oriented ones, i.e. to teach directly what the students may not actually need to know, can have a profound effect on EFL students general English reading abilities as measured by IELTS model test. However, before arriving at a safe conclusion regarding the positive influence of Textuality oriented FonF strategies on EFL students' general English reading ability, several factors need to be given a careful consideration. First, the difference in the performance of the students in the two groups might also indicate the degree to which "tests" as a measurement device and "tasks" as instructional activities meet the "naturalness" criteria. So one might argue that at least to some degree the better performance of our experimental group is because of this similarity between the "tasks" and "tests" which of course aim at one thing: "true communicative aspect of reading skill". Had the students been measured through a traditional type test, the non-experimental group might have performed much better than what is reported in this study. So the effect of the test cannot be ignored.

Another factor which is in fact a limitation of our study is the sampling procedure. As was also indicated in the introduction section, the study was conducted on just one non-English major group of students, nursing students, studying at one of the universities in Iran. Besides the group were pre selected by the registration office. The researcher only used a simple random sampling technique in allocating the groups to experimental (text.FonF) and non-experimental (gram.FonF) group. Another limitation in the study was lack of a control group. It would have been much more logical if we could include a control group receiving none of those two types of instruction. Accordingly, any generalization beyond the specific context in which the study was conducted should be done very cautiously.

However, this study on the effect of type of instruction on EFL learners' general English reading ability at least in the context in which it was carried out indicates the fact that both the EFL "textbooks" and "methodology of teaching languages" at university level need major modifications. As the result of tables 1 and 2 in the results section reveal there is no major improvements in general English reading abilities of students in grammaticality oriented group after 36 hours of instruction. The pedagogical implications for textbook writers and EFL teachers is to strive for a major change which could compensate for the inefficiencies in the ability level of students in at least one major language skill (Reading Skill) at university level.

6. Conclusion

This study on the effect of type of instruction on EFL learners' general English reading ability at least in the context in which it was carried out indicates the fact that both the EFL "textbooks" and "methodology of teaching languages" at university level need major modifications. As the result of tables 1 and 2 in section 3 above reveal there is no major improvements in general English reading abilities of students in grammaticality oriented group after 36 hours of instruction. The pedagogical

implications for textbook writers and EFL teachers is to strive for a major change which could compensate for the inefficiencies in the ability level of students in at least one major language skill (Reading Skill) at university level.

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Appendix A

Read the passage below and answer the questions which follow

Courses Available at North Coast College Campuses

Agriculture

Specialist agriculture centers of the North Coast College offer courses ranging from agricultural skills to beef production, horse studies and rural management. The Wollongbar Campus is renowned for its tropical Fruit Growing program and has introduced modules on macadamias, bushfoods and coffee production. Taree offers the Veterinary Assistant program and has introduced "Agristudy", which enables students to learn flexibly and by correspondence, using a mixture of student learning guides, telephone tutorials, information sessions and workshops, Mullumbimby has the popular Rural

Business Management program, which can also be studied by correspondence. Grafton, meanwhile, offers traineeships in agriculture including Beef and Dairy.

Health programs

The continued promotion of healthier living within the community has seen an increase in fitness awareness and a need for trained staff in the Fitness and Sport industries. Fitness instruction courses are offered at Tweed Heads and teach students how to put together and lead a safe fitness program.

Lismore offers the Aged Support program and Port Macquaire offers the Early Childhood Nursing program. These courses give you the theoretical skills, knowledge and practical experience needed to work in a variety of residential and community-based health care institutions. For students interested in working in the Remedial Health Care industry, Kingscliff is a specialist centre for the Natural Therapy Diploma and has a health clinic on campus.

Environmental studies

The environmental Studies courses offered by the North Coast College have been developed to help students increase their awareness and understanding of environmental issues and to enable them to determine their environmental impact. The environmental practice course, which includes Coastal Management, is offered through Ballina campus.

For people in working to restore degraded natural forests, the North Coast College offers the Forest Regeneration course at Casino. This course can provide a pathway for students into the Natural Resource Management Diploma at university. Marine Industry Management programs are offered at Coffs Harbour.

Questions 1-7

Look at the following list of campuses (1-7) and the fields of study below. Match each campus with the field of study available there. Write the correct letter **A-k** in the spaces provided.

1. Wollongbar ……..
2. Crafton ……..
3. Tweed Heads …….
4. Lismore …….
5. Port Macquarie ……
6. Ballina ……..
7. Coffs Harbour …….

Fields of Study

A. Forest restoration
B. Banana cultivation
C. horse breeding
D. Infant illness
E. Elderly care
F. Fish farming
G. Herbal therapy
H. Cattle farming
I. Beach protection
J. Animal health
K. Recreation programs

Read the passage below and answer questions 8-13

Information on Photocopying

Information services provide a Prepaid Services Card system for student and staff use of photocopies and associated equipment in the Library, and use of laser printers in B Block. The same system has recently been installed in the Student Representative Council (SRC) for use with photocopiers there.

The system uses a plastic card similar to a keycard. Each card, called a "prepaid Services", has a unique, six-digit account number that accesses the system. Initially, students and other users will have to purchase a Prepaid Services Card from a teller machine located in the Library or B Block

Computer Labs. The Prepaid Services Card costs $2.00. it is important that you keep a record of your card' account number and sign your name or write your student ID number on the card.
Uses prepay for Library, Computer Lab or SRC services by adding value to their prepaid Services Card. There are no refunds, so only add value for the amount of prepaid services you intend to use. The maximum amount of prepaid services or value that can be added to card is $50.00.
Two note and coin teller machines have been installed, one in the photocopy room on Level 2 of the Library and the other in the B block Computer Lab. These teller machines accept any denomination of coins or notes up to $50.00. The SRC has a smaller, coin only, teller machine.
When a new card is purchased, the Library and B Block Computer Labs teller machines automatically issue a receipt to the use. However, when adding credit to your existing card the printing of receipts is optional.
For added security, a card user may choose to allocate a PIN or personal Identification Number to their Prepaid Services Card. The PIN must then be entered each time the card is used.

Questions 8-13
Do the following statements agree with the information given in the passage?
In the spaces provided on your answer sheet write

TRUE	*if the statement agrees with the information*
FALSE	*if the statement contradicts the information*
NOT GIVEN	*IF THEE IS NO INFORMATION ON THIS*

8. Prepaid Services Card are in use in three locations…….
9. You can only buy a Prepaid Services Card at the Library……
10. The smallest amount that can be added to the Prepaid Services Card at the Library teller machine is $5……
11. The Prepaid Services Card can be used to pay library fines……
12. Notes and coins can be used in all teller machines……..
13. AOIN is allocated when you purchase your Prepaid Services Card. …….

Questions 14-20
The following passage has seven sections. Choose the correct heading for each section from the list of headings below.

List of Headings

i. Be behavior is a mystery
ii. Communicating direction when outside a hive
iii. How bees carry food on their bodies
iv. Von Frisch discovers that bees communicate
v. How bees communicate direction when inside a hive
vi. The special position of bee language
vii. Expressing distance by means of dance
viii. The purpose of the two simple dances
ix. The discovery that bees have a special scent
x. Von Frisch discovers three types of dance

*Write the correct number **i-x** in the spaces provided on your answer sheet*

14. Section A
15. Section B
16. Section C
17. Section D
18. Section E
19. Section F
20. Section G

Understanding Bee Behavior

A

A bee's brain is the size of a grass seed, yet this tiny brain are encoded some of the most complex and amazing behavioral patterns witnessed outside humankind. For bees are arguably the only animals apart from humans which have their own language. Earlier the century Karl von Frisch, a professor of Zoology at Munich University, spent decades of the "purest joy of discovery" unraveling the mysteries of bee behavior. For his astonishing achievements he was awarded the Nobel Prize and it is from his work that most of today's knowledge of what bees say to each other derives.

B

It started simply enough. Von Frisch knew from experiments by an earlier researcher that if he put out a bowl of sweet sugar syrup, bees might at first take some time to find it but, once they had done so, within the hour, hundreds of other bees would be eagerly taking the syrup. Von Frisch realized that, in some way, messages were being passed on back at the hive[5], messages which said, 'out there, at this spot, you're going to find food.

C

But how was it happening? To watch the bees, Von Frisch constructed a glass-sided hive. He found that, once the scout bees arrived back at the hive, they would perform one of three dance types. In the first type, a returning scout scampered in circles, alternating to right and left, stopping occasionally to regurgitate food samples to the excited bees chasing after her. In the second dance, clearly an extended version of this round dance, she performed a sickle—shaped figure-of-eight pattern instead. In the third distinctly different dance, she started by running a short distance in a straight line, waggling her body from side to side, and returning in a semi-circle to the starting point before repeating the process. She also stopped from time to time to give little bits of food to begging bees. Soon the others would excitedly leave the hive in search of food. Minutes later, many of them marked by Von Frisch, could be seen eating at the bowls of sugar syrup.

D

Experimenting further, Von Frisch unraveled the mystery of the first two related types, the round and the sickle dances. These dances, he concluded, told the bees simply that, within quite short distances of the hive there was a food source worth chasing. The longer and more excitedly the scout danced, the richer the promise of the food source. The scent she carried in her samples and on her body was a message to the other bees that this particular food was the one they were looking for. The others would the troop out of the hive and fly in spiraling circles 'sniffing' in the wind for the promised food.

F

At first, Von Frisch thought the bees were responding only to the scent of the food. But what did the third dance mean? And if bees were responding only to the scent, how could they also 'sniff down' food hundreds of meters away from the hive, food which was sometimes downwind? On a hunch, he started gradually moving the feeding dish further and further away and noticed as he did so, that the dances of the returning scout bees also started changing. If he placed the feeding dish over nine meters away, the second type of dance, the sickle version, came into play. But once he moved it past 36 meters, the scouts would then start dancing the third, quite different, waggle dance.

The measurement of the actual distance too, he concluded was precise. For example, a feeding dish 300 meters away was indicated by 15 complete runs through the pattern in 30 seconds. When the dish was moved to 60 meters away, the number dropped to 11.

F

Von Frisch noted something further. When the scout bees came home to tell their sisters about the food source, sometimes they would dance outside on the horizontal entrance platform of the hive, and sometimes on the vertical wall inside. And depending on where they danced, the straight portion of the waggle dance would point in different directions. The outside dance was fairly easy to decode: the straight portion of the dance pointed directly to the food source, so the bees would merely have to decode the distance message and fly off in that direction to find their food.

G

[5] Hive – a 'house' for bees; the place where they build a nest and live

But by studying the dance on the inner wall of the hive, Von Frisch discovered a remarkable method which the dancer used to tell her sisters the direction of the food in relation to the sun. When inside the hive, the dancer cannot use the sun, so she uses gravity instead. The direction of the sun is represented by the top of the hive wall. If she runs straight up, this means that the feeding place is in the same direction as the sun. However, if, for example, the feeding place is 40 degrees to the left of the sun, then the dancer would run 40 degrees to the left of the vertical line. This was to be the forest of Von Frisch's remarkable discoveries. Soon he would also discover a number of other remarkable facts about how bees communicate and, in doing so, revolutionize the study of animal behavior generally.

Questions 21-23

*The writer mentions **THREE** kinds of bee dance identified by Von Frisch.*
List the name the writer gives to each dance.
*Use **ONE WORD ONLY** for each answer.*
Write your answers in the spaces provided on your answer sheet.

21. …….
22. …….
23. …….

Questions 24-26

Look at the passage about bee behavior on the previous pages.
Complete the sentences below with words taken from the passage.
*Write **NO MORE THAN THREE WORDS** for each answer.*
Write your answers in the spaces provided on your answer sheet.

24. Von Frisch discovered the difference between dance types by changing the position of ……
25. The dance outside the hive points in the direction of ……
26. The angle of the dance from the vertical shows the angle of the food from …….

MJLTM

THE IMPACT OF USING GRAPHIC ORGANIZERS ON LEARNING THE ORGANIZATION OF WRITING SKILL AMONG IRANIAN PRE-INTERMEDIATE EFL LEARNERS

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ABSRTRACT
THIS STUDY INVESTIGATED THE EFFECTIVENESS OF GRAPHIC ORGANIZERS ON PRE-INTERMEDIATE STUDENTS' WRITING ABILITY OF COMPARE/CONTRAST AND CAUSE/EFFECT ESSAYS. THIS STUDY AIMED TO DETERMINE WHETHER STUDENTS WHO WERE TAUGHT THROUGH GRAPHIC ORGANIZERS WOULD PERFORM BETTER ON THE WRITING OF CAUSE/EFFECT AND COMPARE/CONTRAST ESSAYS COMPARED TO THOSE WHO WERE INVOLVED IN CONVENTIONAL METHOD OF TEACHING WRITING. THIS STUDY EXPLORED THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN USING GRAPHIC ORGANIZERS AND THE CONVENTIONAL METHOD IN DEVELOPING EFL LEARNERS' WRITING ABILITY. TWO EFL CLASSES WERE NON-RANDOMLY (I.E., CONVENIENT) SELECTED AT ABADAN AZAD UNIVERSITY AND AFTER TAKING PART IN HOMOGENEITY TEST, THE STUDENTS AT PRE-INTERMEDIATE LEVEL WERE RANDOMLY ASSIGNED TO EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS. DATA WERE COLLECTED THROUGH THE ADMINISTRATION OF A PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST OF WRITING COMPARE/CONTRAST AND CAUSE/EFFECT ESSAYS. THE RELIABILITY COEFFICIENTS OF THE TESTS WERE CALCULATED THROUGH KR-21 FORMULA. THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP INSTRUCTED THROUGH GRAPHIC ORGANIZERS WHILE THE CONTROL GROUP RECEIVED CONVENTIONAL METHOD OF WRITING. THE STATISTICAL ANALYSIS INCLUDED PAIRED AND INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T-TESTS. RESULTS REVEALED THAT COMPARED TO PRE-TEST, BOTH GROUPS PERFORMED BETTER IN COMPARE/CONTRAST POST-TEST AND GRAPHIC ORGANIZER GROUP SIGNIFICANTLY OUTPERFORMED THE CONTROL GROUP. THE IMPLICATIONS OF THIS STUDY COULD BE USED IN WRITING COMPARE/CONTRAST ESSAYS TO FAMILIAR THE LEARNERS WITH GRAPHIC ORGANIZERS.

KEY WORDS: GRAPHIC ORGANIZERS, WRITING SKILL, COMPARE/CONTRAST, CAUSE/EFFECT, ESSAYS

1. Introduction

Writing is a tool for language learning because in writing the learners have enough opportunity to carefully examine and re-examine the ideas and language prior to its presentation to audience (Raimes, 2002). He also added what is more important in an EFL writing courses is language learning. Therefore, instead of focus attention to the forms of particular written discourse, students require topics about which to generate ideas, find forms to represent the ideas in a new language. According to Bell and Burnaby (cited in Nunan, 1989), what makes writing an extremely complex cognitive activity is the writer' necessity to demonstrate simultaneous mastery over different variables at the sentence and beyond the sentence level. In writing, students struggle with what to put down next and

how to put it down and try to find a new way of expressing ideas. A close relationship between writing and thinking makes writing a valuable part of any language course (Nunan, 1991).

The ability to write effectively is becoming increasingly important in our global Community. It is regarded as important skill for educational, business and personal reason. Expertise in writing is an indication that student mastered the cognitive skills required for university (Cushing-Weigle, 2002). Early literature focused on retrospective interviews and think aloud protocols (e.g. Flower & Hayes, 1981) proposed a model of writing to discover mental activity and decision making processes of the writer when writing. Base on the model, writing process include task environment, knowledge of topic, knowledge of audience, stored writing plans and cognitive processes including planning, translating and revising. Base on the model, writing is a nonlinear process which requires instruction rather than models of particular rhetorical forms. That is, during writing process, the writer does not move from one stage to another in a linear way, but he continuously move over stages.

Rao (2007) attributed students' difficulty in writing process to their suspect in the effectiveness of cognitive and linguistic strategy required for language learning and their difficulty in idea generation. Raimes (2002) stated L2 writing is difficult because all the stages of writing from generating and organizing ideas to representing the ideas in to written text require cognitive efforts of learners which is more difficult for less proficient learners. When learners complain about their difficulty in writing English, their problem exist not only in finding accurate words or structure but also how to find and express their ideas in new language. Students' difficulty exists not only in writing but also in communicating ideas in new language (Raimes, 1983). It also suggested students are not equipped with appropriate strategies to overcome difficulties that present in content generation, crating and organizing structure for composition, formulation of goals at higher level plans, quick and efficient execution of mechanical aspect of writing and revising text and reformulating goals (Reid & Lienemann, 2006).

Writing in L1 is difficult because of its cognitively demanded nature. This difficulty is even worse for EFL learners who have to do it in a new language. Understanding a text depend on an individuals' awareness of particular text structure and his/her ability to recognize those lexical clues that reflect organizational patterns in the text and exist beyond the sentence level such as cause-effect, comparison-contrast, and problem-solution (Grabe, 2009).It is suggested awareness of organizational patterns of a text plays a vital role in understanding and writing a text. For example, in writing a story, one should represent and analyze the story based on narrative schema. Therefore writers can produce a coherent text. In Hammann and Steven (2003) study, compare- contrast patterns considered difficult because such patterns require simultaneous awareness of both content and organization. Students could subdivide content after being aware of organizational patterns of particular genre.

Studies (e.g, Jiang & Grabe, 2007) also confirmed that explicit teaching of top-level organization of text through using the adjunct tools that representing the structures, facilitate EFL learners' understanding of text and help students remember supporting details of a text as well as major topics and subtopics. The purpose of the present study is whether drawing students' attention on top-level structures and organizational patterns of particular text structure through prompts of graphic organizers help develop students' writing ability in EFL context. Among known expository text types, two types were chosen for the purpose of this study, compare/contrast, cause /effect. Because according to Englert and Stewart (1988), for the most part students do not use the structure of these expository text and have little experience with these structures, but are expected to provide textual information that require their familiarity with these types of organizations. Also specific types of text structures vary in their importance to students and that the '' facilitative effects for different text structures cannot be assumed for different tasks, presentation mode or response mode'' (p. 144) more studies is required to help develop students' writing quality.

Producing coherent and organized essays entails applying various factors in writing process. Graphic organizers can be one of the most crucial elements of essay writing. Graphic organizers are used to understand relationships between complex ideas to facilitate retention and recall (Fountas & Pinnell, 2001). They are considered as communication tools that represent the organization and structure of information and concepts and connections between concepts in a spatial format which result in less demand of cognitive effort on the part of learner. That is, it provides the spatial clues that remove the necessity of semantic processing of information for learners to understand the information. Compare to common ways of representing information in text and outlines, the spatial

structure of graphic organizer are better representation to connect disjointed information which makes understanding easier (Kiewara, 2012).

The organizers help individuals determine the missing data or ambiguous relations in their strategic thinking. The organizers are considered as schematic tools consisted of both verbal information and visual images. The existence of lines, arrows and spatial arrangement is a major feature that distinguishes graphic organizers from simple outlines. Also, the structural pattern of graphic organizers reflect the inter-relations between main ideas and sub-ideas lead to a coherent and complete depiction of verbal information (Jiang & Grabe, 2007). According to the study of Jiang and Grabe, the overall understanding of materials became possible through the organizers that acted as a prompt and scaffold for students' thought process rather than linear representation of words. They are sometimes referred to as knowledge maps, concept maps, story maps, cognitive organizer, and advance organizers. Whatever named, they are considered as visual representation of the complex thinking process of concrete to abstract thought.

The EFL learners do not know how to provide division among parts even in simple essay. Insufficiency of writing strategies knowledge intensifies the writers' difficulties to organize a well-formed essay. Graphic organizers as the probable solutions may be decrease the problematic issues of writing. This study will try to investigate if teaching writing through graphic organizers is an effective factor on developing writing ability of these groups of learners. Considering the inefficiency of pre-intermediate EFL learners' knowledge and experience in writing skill, this research aims to investigate whether using different strategies such as graphic organizers develop students writing ability or not. This research may be significant because through this research the possible effects of graphic organizers on writing ability of the Iranian EFL students will be investigated and determined and the research can compare what extent applying different graphic organizers such as compare-contrast and cause- effect strategies can be effective to lead the language learners to write an organized essay.

In order to consider the objectives of the present study, the following research questions were postulated:

RQ1: Do graphic organizers affect learning essay writing among Iranian pre-intermediate English as Foreign Language (EFL) learners in writing cause and effect essays?

RQ2: Do graphic organizers affect essay writing among Iranian pre-intermediate EFL learners in writing comparing and contrasting essays?

2. Background

In spite of the importance of writing, teaching EFL writing for teachers is difficult. One reason is that writing is time-consuming and difficult to teach. The other reason is that many ESL teachers may not feel qualified to teach writing because they have not received enough specific training in the teaching of writing (Shin, 2003). As Advance organizers has been used in written prose form, and high level of vocabulary and knowledge, early literature (e.g., Earle, 1969) criticized it, using what was named as *structured overview* in an outline format. Others (e.g., Robinson, 1998) stated advance organizers bring students in difficulty that lacks the ability to make inferences from even short paragraph. They stated structured overview because of its spatial format and hierarchical representation of information is an alternative to advance organizer. Herber and Sanders (cited in Robinson, 1998) defined structure overview as "diagram representation of the basis vocabulary of a unit so as to show relation among the concepts represented by those words" (p. 89). The structure overview provides the key words of to be learned new material in hierarchical format. When these structures adapted to be used before, during and after material presentation, they changed to graphic organizer which was good representation of key parts of material and their relations. The organizer through labeled links provides an understanding of discourse structures of a text that is not revealed by words alone (Merkley & Jefferies, 2000). The organizers are used in any instructional position with the purpose of enhancing comprehension and learning.

To introduce graphic organizers, providing a background is required. Two types of knowledge is identified in psycholinguistics; declarative and procedural knowledge. Declarative knowledge represents awareness of objects, events or ideas which is regarded as schemas. Procedural knowledge; on the other hand, describes how learners use their declarative knowledge. It entails the interrelating of schemas in to patterns (Jonassen, Beissner & Yacci, 1993). Structural knowledge is an intermediate type of knowledge that mediates the transition of declarative in to procedural knowledge and

facilitates the application of procedural knowledge (Diekhoff, 1983). Structural knowledge is knowledge of relationships between concepts in a content area which is essential for comprehension and problem solving lead to learning. There exist different learning strategies to assist learners acquire structural knowledge. One way is through graphic techniques which are "spatial representation of structural knowledge in content area". The graphic techniques including networks, pattern notes, semantic maps and graphic organizers which are differ in appearance, types of relationships, and the use and types of labels used to name concept relationships (Beissner, Jonassen & Grabowski, 1993, p. 5).

2.1. Types of Graphic Organizers

After a meta-analysis investigation, Jiang and Grabe (2007) claimed that those graphic organizers that just provide a general frame for listing of information and represent a hierarchical relationships of main ideas and key information of a text without paying attention to specific discourse structures are less effective and the literature considering the effect of such organizers are inconclusive in developing comprehension than the organizers that reflect the discourse structure of text and provide a visual organization of information in a text. Because such organizers represent the top-level structure of a text, therefore the literature confirmed its effect on comprehension. According to Jiang and Grabe (2007), Different types of graphic organizers exist, each one is used to represent the structural organization of particular text structure and represent different types of thinking. They also differ in terms of the amount of details they represent. The form of graphic organizers effects on students' writing performance (Delrose, 2011). That is, students should be comfortable with the form of graphic organizers, if not instead of focus attention on higher order thinking, students focus on the form of the organizers. According to *Strangeman, Hall and Meyer* (2003, p. 1), the organizers including: *Descriptive or Thematic map* which is used for mapping generic information; specifically used for mapping hierarchical relations. When the organizer represents hierarchical information, and the teacher purpose is to focus students' attention to superordinate and subordinate elements in text, Network Tree is used. When the information related to main idea is not represented in a hierarchical way, *Spider map* is used. *Problem and solution map, Problem- Solution outline,* and *Sequential Episodic Map* are used to help students identify information that organized in cause and effect relations. *Compare and contrast map* or *Compare- Contrast Matrix* is used to help students compare and Fishbone Map is used to represent cause-effect relationship

Kiewara (2012) defines four types of graphic organizers were identified that differed in organization and relationship including: *Hierarchy graphic organizer* which contains top to bottom organization, and Hierarchical relationships (superordinate- subordinate relations). *Sequence graphic organizer* which contains left- to- right organization, and sequential relationship (stages of development). *Matrix graphic organizer* includes columns, rows organization and comparative relationship. *Illustration graphic organizer* includes locations of parts organization and positional relationships.

2. 2. Rationale for Graphic Organizers Use

In educational setting, students have problems in understanding the content and materials with in textbooks. This difficulty is related to either a student or a text structure. Student's inability in comprehension may be due to inability to draw inferences from set of sentences or lack of adequate background knowledge which prevent him from more attempt. Difficulty with in the text is related to poor organization or structure. One approach to overcome poor text structure is the use of adjunct aids represented the most important information with in a text. There are different types of these aids among which is graphic organizers that represent a hierarchical organization of important concepts spatially (Robinson, 1998).

A great deal of literature (e. g. Ausubel, 1960, 1963, 1968; Hall & Strangeman, 2002) supports the use of graphic organizer as effective tool for learning. However, to be effective tools of instruction, graphic organizers must be used coherently, consistently, and creatively. When graphic organizers used consistently, it means that students become so familiar with the layout of the organizer that remove the necessity of processing format, therefore it is more likely that students internalize, or generalize the skills associated with given graphic organizers which help increase in organizational skills and content retention. These are regarded effective tools when makes relationship coherent. That is; when ideas or concepts are clearly labeled to prevent misunderstanding resulted from poorly constructed graphic organizers. The clear labels and visual displays reduce the cognitive load. The organizers can be implemented creatively in cooperative groups when each person responsible for

creating information for one aspect of the graphic organizer. Creativity refer to the way the organizers used by teacher (Baxendell, 2003).

3. Methodology

3.1. Participants

In the present study, the sample was 60 students (male and female) in Abadan Azad University. Non- random sampling (convenient) method was used for the selection of these participants. Oxford Quick Placement Test (QPT 2001) was used to homogenize the participants regarding their English proficiency. The test results were analyzed by the researcher via SPSS software and its reliability was 0.90. Oxford Quick Placement Test (2001) consisted of two parts: Part one (1-40) deals with simple grammar and vocabulary items. Part two (41-60) was concerned with a bit more difficult multiple choice items and cloze test. The students' scores were ranked from high to low and homogenizing the participants were selected based on the QPT (2001). Then 40 students whose scores were included in pre-intermediate level were selected as homogeneous sample to conduct the study. They were divided in two groups, one experimental and one control group. Each group included 20 participants. All the participants were studying English and had passed two English writing courses consisting of sentence patterns and paragraph developments. The experimental group received graphic organizer strategy as writing instruction while the control group received traditional method of instruction. The participants ranged 18 to 22.

.

3.2. Instrumentation

In order to accomplish the objective of the present study, the following instruments were used:

Homogeneity Test: Oxford Quick Placement Test (OQPT) (2001) was used to determine the homogeneity of the participants and assign them in two groups. The test consisted of 60 multiple-choice items. The allotted time for the test was 60 Minutes.

Pre-test: in order to determine the participants' initial writing ability, before receiving any instruction on graphic organizer strategy, a pre-test was administered. The test for both experimental and control groups consisted of two essays for each participant, each one comprising 150 words length, with compare and contrast, cause and effect topics. The assigned time for the test was forty minutes. The teacher proposed six topics (three topics for Cause & Effect, three topics for Compare & Contrast) to both groups, and asked each subject choose two topics (one topic for writing Cause & Effect essay and one topic for writing Compare & Contrast essay). Inter- rater reliability was used to meet the reliability of scoring. The pre-test reliability was calculated through Pearson correlation as (r= 0. 611).

Post-test: following the treatment sessions, after six weeks instruction sessions on graphic organizers for experimental group, the researcher assigned a post-test. All characteristics of the post-test in terms of topic and time were the same as those of the pre-test. The same topics with different forms were given in the post-test for the experimental and control groups. Both the pre-test and post-test were performed under the supervision of the instructor. Inter-rater reliability of the post-test scoring was estimated through Pearson correlation analysis as (r=0. 701). Finally, the Jacobs et al. (1981, as cited in Weigle, 2002) checklist was used to score the essays.

3.3. Materials

One material used in this study consisted of handouts. The handout including the definition of graphic organizer, benefits of graphic organizers and forms of different types of graphic organizers distributed among participants. The other material was the topics (Cause & Effects, Compare & Contrast).The researcher chose topics from *Get Writing Paragraph & Essay* (Connelly, 2012) and proposed to both groups and asked students choose among the proposed topics and write their essays during instruction sessions.

3.4 Procedure

To accomplish the purpose of the study, first 60 male and female learners from two intact classes (convenient sampling) was selected from Abadan Azad University. Then, the homogeneity test (OQPT, 2001) was administered to the all participants under the study to determine their homogeneity and to divide the sample in to two groups. 40 participants at pre-intermediate level were chosen to participate in one experimental and one control group equally. Each group included 20 participants. They met for half an hour session once a week .

During the second session, before the participants in the experimental group receive any instruction on graphic organizers, all the students in the two groups were asked to write two essays about given topics (one about Compare & Contrast, one about Cause & Effect topic). The allotted time for writing one paragraph essay on each topic was twenty minutes. That is, the allotted time for writing two essays simultaneously for each participant was forty minutes. Then, the papers of the participants in both groups were collected.

The strategy instruction sessions started one session after the students participated in the pretest. The instruction sessions lasted over six weeks. The participants in the experimental group received the instructions for graphic organizer strategy. The strategy instruction was taught to the experimental group following (Danoff, Harris & Graham, 1993) stages of instructional model:

1. Describing the strategy: As an introduction to the first lesson, students were told that they were going to learn about the strategy of graphic organizers. It was defined that graphic organizers or graphically representing information are displays in a visual or graphic forms that uses lines, arrows and spatial arrangement which reflect the organizational structure and the inter-relations between ideas of a text. It was also mentioned that the organizers have different names referred to as knowledge maps, concept maps, cognitive organizers, advance organizers, and come in many different forms, each one is suitable for organizing a particular type of information. A handout includes the different types of organizers distributed among participants.

2. Discussion of the goals and purpose: the teacher discussed the students about the importance and benefits of using the organizers in writing. The Students were asked two questions: (1) how do you think the strategy might help you write? And (2) how could the strategies help you write?

During the second session of instruction, students were taught different types of graphic organizers for comparing and contrasting that asks the writer to compare two different topics by finding what they have in common and what differences they possess. One type of compare and contrast organizer (Comparative & Contrastive Map) based on Strangeman, Hall and Meyer (2003) modeled by the teacher. Different compare/ contrast topics chosen from *Get writing Paragraph & Essays* (Connelly, 2012) proposed to students and they choose one for class activity. Once Participants agreed on one topic, it was considered as "topic" of the Compare/Contrast organizer. Comparative and contrastive concepts were written on the organizer. The researcher asked students to produce their ideas about how two concepts are similar and how they are different. Ideas related to similar features were written on similarity parts, ideas related to different features were written on the contrast parts. After the completion of the organizer with ideas, the researcher modeled how he would write the information and ideas from the organizer in the written paragraph. Then the researcher reviewed the information in the organizer. Also, with the help of students, the concluding sentence was produced. When writing, the researcher verbalized to model to transfer ideas from the Comparative and Contrastive Map in to written form of one paragraph essay.

During the third session of instruction, students were provided with Cause/ Effect organizer (Fishbone Map) and its different parts were introduced to participants. Different cause and effect topics chosen from *Get writing paragraph & Essays* (Connelly, 2012) Proposed to the students, and they choose one for class activity. The selected topic considered as " topic" of the Fishbone diagram. Then, the subtopic of the topic were generated and included in the organizer. After the completion of the Fishbone diagram, students instructed how to produce Cause/ Effect paragraph from sub-ideas in to the written paragraph. The teacher modeled how he would write cause/effect written paragraph from the ideas in the Fishbone diagram.

4. Memorization of the organizers: the teacher provided opportunity to students to practice using the organizers until they can use it automatically.

5. Guided practice and Feedback: over subsequent stages, students provided with the opportunity to use the organizers and fill in their own organizer. The researcher provided feedback on the students' provided organizers. The researcher also asked the students to practice transferring ideas from the organizer in to the written paragraph.

The first two sessions were devoted to instructing the use of the two graphic organizers for writing one paragraph essays. During the four subsequent sessions, students practiced the use of the organizers to write to acquire mastery over the organizers. All the instruction sessions done by the teacher who had experience of teaching writing for several years. The same teacher taught the participants in the control group using the same hours of instruction and topics but without using any instruction on graphic organizer strategy for the control group. That is, in control group,

participants only instructed how to produce topic sentence of essay and how they can support this topic sentence through supporting sentences. One session after instructional sessions on graphic organizer instruction, both experimental and control groups took the post-test.

3.5. Data Analysis

The inter-rater reliability in the pre-test and post-test was calculated through Pearson correlation analysis. To measure the students' essay writing ability in the pre-test and post-test, the essays scored based on Jacob et al's (as cited in Weigle, 2002) checklist in which five aspects of content (6 points), language use (5 points), organization (4 points), vocabulary (4 points) and mechanics (1 points) considered. The score of each participant on each essay calculated out of 20. This score was the average of scores provided by the two teachers. Then, a Pearson Product Moment Correlation analysis is run between the two sets of scores and their average is considered as the score for each essay in both the pre and post-tests. Independent Paired- samples t-test is used as a statistical method to depict any difference between the groups.

4. Results

Descriptive statistics was calculated on the role of using graphic organizer strategies on writing skill, the results are presented in Table 1.

Table 1 shows the means of the experimental and control groups in pre-test. As it appears, the mean of experimental group is 11.5 and the mean of control group is 10.45 for Cause and Effect essay. The mean of experimental group is 10.8 and the mean of control group is 9.7 for Compare and Contrast essay which show no much difference between groups in both Compare and Contrast, Cause and Effect essays. In order to find out whether the difference among the performances of two groups in pre-test was statistically significant, Independent Samples t -test was performed between both groups. The results presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Independent Samples t-Test (Pre-tests)

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
Groups		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Experimental vs. Control (Pre-test) Cause & Effect	Equal variances assumed	.062	.805	.647	38	.52	1.050	1.622	-2.233	4.333
	Equal variances not assumed			.647	37.9	.52	1.050	1.622	-2.233	4.333
Experimental vs. Control (Pre-test) Compare & Contrast	Equal variances assumed	.092	.763	.860	38	.39	1.150	1.336	-1.555	3.855
	Equal variances not assumed			.860	37.7	.39	1.150	1.338	-1.556	3.856

Table 2 Shows the observed t (.646) is less than the critical t (2.021) with df =38, therefore the difference between the experimental and control groups' Cause and Effect Essays in pre-test is not significant at ($p<0.05$). The second t-test shows that the observed t (.860) is less than the critical t (2.021) with df =38, therefore the difference between the experimental and control groups' pre-test of Compare and Contrast Essays is also not significant at ($p<0.05$). This shows that the groups were homogenous before the treatment. In order to analyze the post-test, the researcher presented descriptive statistics in Table 3.

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics (Post-tests)

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Experimental (Post-test) Cause & Effect	20	13.85	7.292	1.630
Control (Post-test) Cause & Effect	20	12.95	7.472	1.670
Experimental (Post-test) Compare & Contrast	20	15.75	4.744	1.060
Control (Post-test) Compare & Contrast	20	12.550	4.82837	1.07966

Table 3 shows that the mean of experimental and control groups' post-test of Cause and Effect Essays is 13.8 and 12.9 respectively. The Table also shows the mean of both groups' post-tests of Compare and Contrast Essays shows that the mean of experimental group (M=15.7) is higher than the mean of control group which is 12.5. As the data analysis in this Table indicates both experimental and control groups performed better in post-tests and the experimental group outperformed the control group; but the superiority of experimental over control group is more significant in Compare and Contrast post-test. In order to find out if the difference among performances of two groups in post-test was statistically significant, Independent Samples t-test was applied. The results are presented in Table 4.

Table 4. Independent Samples t- Test (Post-tests)

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
Post-tests Experimental vs. Control		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Cause & Effect	Equal variances assumed	.027	.870	.385	38	.702	.900	2.33	-3.82	5.62
Compare & Contrast	Equal variances assumed	.145	.706	2.114	38	.041	3.20	1.51	.13	6.26

Table 4 shows the observed t (.385) is less than the critical t (2.021) with df =38, therefore the difference between the experimental and control groups' post-tests of Cause and Effect Essays is not significant at ($p<0.05$). The second t-test shows that the observed t (2.114) is greater than the critical t (2.021) with df =38, the difference between the experimental and control groups' post-tests of Compare and Contrast Essays is significant at ($p<0.05$). Table 5 shows the performance of each group from pre-test to post-test.

Table 5. Descriptive Statistics (Pre-tests vs. Post-tests of Experimental groups)

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Experimental (Pre-test) Cause & Effect	11.50	20	5.11	1.14
	Experimental (Post-test) Cause & Effect	13.85	20	7.29	1.63
Pair 2	Experimental (Pre-test) Compare & Contrast	10.85	20	4.38	.97
	Experimental (Post-test) Compare & Contrast	15.75	20	4.74	1.06

Table 5 indicated, Pair 1 shows the difference between means of pre-post-tests of experimental group for Cause and Effect essays which is equal (2.3). Pair 2 shows the difference between means of pre-post-tests of this group for Compare and Contrast essays which is (4.9). According to Table, Pair 1 is lower than Pair 2. In order to identify whether such differences from pre-test to post-test is statistically significant, the Paired Samples t-test was applied and the results of t-tests are presented in Table 6.

Table 6. Paired Samples t-Test(Pre-tests vs. Post-tests of Experimental groups)

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
	Groups	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Experimental (Pre vs. post-test) Cause & Effect	-2.35	8.70	1.94	-6.42	1.72	-1.207	19	.242
Pair 2	Experimental (Pre vs. Post-test) Compare & Contrast	-4.90	6.51	1.45	-7.94	-1.85	-3.365	19	.003

Table 6 indicates the statistical analysis of Paired Samples t-test of experimental group for both Cause and Effect essays and Compare and Contrast essays. According to Pair 1, since the observed t (1.207) is less than the critical t (2.093) with df =19, the difference between the experimental groups' pre and post-tests of Cause and Effect Essays is not significant at ($p<0.05$). The second-Paired t- test shows that the observed t (3.396) is greater than the critical t (2.021) with df =19, the difference between the experimental pre and post-tests of Compare and Contrast Essays is significant at ($p<0.05$). The table shows the experimental group significantly outperformed in writing compare-contrast post-test. Table 7 shows the performance of control group from pre-test to post-test.

Table 7. Descriptive Statistics (Pre-tests vs. Post-tests of Control groups)

	Groups	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Control (Pre-test) Cause & Effect	10.45	20	5.140	1.150
	Control (Post-test) Cause & Effect	12.95	20	7.472	1.670
Pair 2	Control (Pre-test) Compare & Contrast	9.70	20	4.066	.909

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Control (Post-test) Compare & Contrast	12.55	20	4.828	1.079	

Table 7 shows that Pair 1 shows the difference between means of pre-post-tests of Control group for Cause and Effect essays which was 2.5. Pair 2 shows the difference between means of pre-post-tests of this group for Compare and Contrast essays which was equal 2.8. It shows that Pair2 is a little more than Pair1 for control group in favor of Compare and Contrast essay.

Table 8. Paired Samples t-Test(Pre-tests vs. Post-tests of Control groups)

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Control (Pre vs. Post-test) Cause & Effect	-2.50	8.67	1.94	-6.56	1.56	-1.288	19	.213
Pair 2	Control (Pre vs. Post-test) Compare & Contrast	-2.85	5.41	1.21	-5.38	-.317	-2.355	19	.029

Table 8 shows the observed t (1.288) is less than the critical t (2.093) with df =19, therefore the difference between the control groups' pre and post-tests of Cause and Effect essays is not significant at ($p<0.05$). The Second-Paired t- test shows that the observed t (2.355) is greater than the critical t (2.093) with df =19, the difference between the control groups' pre and post-tests of Compare and Contrast essays is significant at ($p<0.05$). According to Tables, the differences between Pairs for Experimental group are higher than the differences between pairs for Control group in favor of Compare and Contrast essays. It shows that both groups performed significantly better in Compare and Contrast post-test and the experimental group outperformed the control group.

5. Discussion

The results of the students' performance on the pre and post-tests of both compare/contrast and cause/effect essays answered the two research questions as follows:

Question One: Do graphic organizers affect learning essay writing among Iranian pre-intermediate English as Foreign Language (EFL) learners in writing cause and effect essay.

The results of pre-test and post-test of both the experimental and control groups for both the graphic organizer and traditional method of teaching writing were computed and compared with each other to see the effects of the graphic organizer treatment (Fishbone Map) on cause and effect type of essay writing. The results of paired sample t-test did not showed statistically significant difference in the performance of both experimental and control groups from pre-test to post-test in writing cause and effect essays. The results of independent post-test showed that students' performance in the experimental group did not changed on the post-test essay writing in comparison to those instructed with traditional method of essay writing. That is, using the strategy of cause/effect did not demonstrate any significant difference in cause/effect essay writing and even the application of the organizer (Fishbone Map) did not provide any significant difference in the performance of the experimental group.

There exist several probable reasons for such results. First, writing is a cognitively complex process especially for less proficient EFL writers who have to focus on both the organization and linguistic factors simultaneously. Writing a cause and effect essay is a difficult task for students because the process of writing cause and effect require well-developed critical thinking skills and ability to analyze things in details. The results of the present study agree with Weis (2011) who noted

that students' higher order thinking skills represent in their ability to analyze, synthesis and evaluate. In spite of the literature in support of graphic organizers in developing higher order thinking skills and organizing structures. It seems that the organizer in the present study (Fishbone Map) did not provide such results. Secondly, it is probable that students' performance in writing a cause and effect essay have a cultural reason. That is, students think more about the effects of a phenomenon as it is significant rather than thinking about the causes of what occurred. It seems that such viewpoints can effect on students' writing performance. The results of this study are against the results acquired by Lee (2007). In his study the organizers with perceptual properties such as tree diagram, fishbone and matrix because of their ability in categorizing of ideas in to main ideas and sub-ideas reduces the cognitive effort on the part of writers. Therefore, results in better performance of writer compare to organizers without such properties such as spider map and Venn diagram.

Question Two: Do graphic organizers affect learning essay writing among Iranian pre-intermediate English as Foreign Language (EFL) learners in writing compare and contrast essay.

The quantitative results of compare and contrast essay writing provided new perspectives toward the use of graphic organizers on writing this type of essay. The results of paired t-test showed that compare to pre-test both groups statistically outperformed in compare and contrast post-test. The results of the independent post-test of both the experimental and control groups for both the graphic organizer and traditional method of teaching writing were computed and compared with each other to see the effects of the graphic organizer treatment on this type of essay writing. The results showed statistically significant difference in the post-test between both groups in favor of experimental group.

The results of the present study is supported by the study conducted by Weis (2011) who investigated the effects of specific type of graphic organizers which was called *thinking map* on students' higher-order thinking skills and problem solving. In his study, students' thinking ability increased and it was demonstrated in their writing ability to compare and contrast essay. That is, instead of lists or class discussions, the maps helped students to organize their comparisons and showed the relationships between ideas. The maps are visual organizational tools that help students to use higher-order thinking skills. Results of the present study showed that the EFL students should be comfortable with the form of graphic organizer to help them develop their higher order thinking skills, rather than involve in creating the physical map. It seems that students were more comfortable with the form of comparative and contrastive Map rather than Fishbone Map. The results of the study are also supported by the study of Hammann and Steven (2003). In their study, explicit instruction on students' awareness of text structures resulted in students' ability to subdivide the content with organizational patterns of compare and contrast essay. Therefore, students outperformed in their compare/contrast essay writing. The results of pre-test indicated that both groups without receiving any instruction had the potential knowledge to use the two graphic organizers. The results of the post-test indicated the effects of compare/contrast instruction were significantly more than cause and effect instruction because the control group partially showed such superiority and the experimental group instructed with the compare-contrast Matrix completely showed such superiority.

6. Conclusion

The present study revealed the effectiveness of graphic organizers in developing students' writing ability. Considering the use of graphic organizers, a number of implications for writing instruction and development of material are presented. Based on the results of the present study, using graphic organizers can significantly improve students' writing ability if teachers pay considerable attentions to some factors. First, the teacher should select the type of graphic organizer accordance with the organizational patterns of expository text (compare/contrast, cause/effect) which is intended for teaching. The other factor is that because of the existence of different types of graphic organizers for each type of text, the type should be selected with caution in the matter of principles of consistency, creativity and coherency. Also, intervention of the graphic organizer should follow particular instructional stages and principles. If such principles observed, the graphic organizer provide significant results. If not, one reason for students' underperformance can be assigned to limitation of design of the study.

In the present study, the teacher actively involved in the instructional stages of graphic organizers to help students' generation of ideas and transferring the ideas into the written texts. Such techniques actively work with compare/contrast Matrix, resulted in enhancing students' higher order thinking skills, and students could organize their thoughts. As transferring the ideas from the organizer in to

written essay require that students evaluate the relationships between the ideas and grammatical structures to represent them in a coherent manner, it is also regarded as assessment tool.

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ORIGINALITY AND PLAGIARISM IN SCIENTIFIC DOCUMENTATION AND ACADEMIC WRITING

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ABSTRACT
SOURCE CITATION IS A NECESSARY SKILL IN SCIENTIFIC DOCUMENTATION AND ACADEMIC WRITING, AND GUARANTEES THE ORIGINALITY OF THE COMPOSITION. INAPPROPRIATE CITATION BEHAVIORS CAN LEAD READERS TO FEEL THAT THE WORK INVOLVES PLAGIARISM, AND CONSEQUENTLY, BRING THE WORK INTO DISREPUTE. THIS RESEARCH IS AN INTERVIEW-BASED INVESTIGATION OF HOW IRANIAN GRADUATE STUDENTS OF SCIENCE AND ENGINEERING CITE THE SOURCES THEY USE WHILE WRITING IN ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE, AND HOW THEY VIEW ACADEMIC WRITING AND PLAGIARISM. TO ACHIEVE THESE GOALS, THIS STUDY EMPLOYED QUALITATIVE PROCEDURES TO ADDRESS THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS: 1) HOW DO STUDENTS VIEW WRITING FROM OTHER SOURCES, AND 2) HOW DO STUDENTS VIEW TEXTUAL BORROWING AND PLAGIARISM? THIS RESEARCH AIMED TO SHOW HOW IRANIAN GRADUATE STUDENTS WITH A BLEND OF CULTURAL HERITAGE OF THE EAST AND ACADEMIC HERITAGE OF THE WEST FORM AND TREAT WRITING FROM SOURCES, TEXTUAL BORROWING, AND PLAGIARISM. THE PARTICIPANTS OF THIS STUDY WERE EIGHT IRANIAN GRADUATE STUDENTS OF SCIENCE AND ENGINEERING A UNIVERSITY IN MALAYSIA. THE STUDY SHOWED THAT THE PARTICIPANTS HAD NO IDEA OF WHAT WRITING FROM SOURCES IS AND FOR THEM IT WAS EQUAL TO COPYING SOME MATERIALS AND PASTING THEM INTO THEIR OWN WORK. THEY DID NOT EVEN DISTINGUISH BETWEEN SUMMARY AND PARAPHRASE.
REGARDING PLAGIARISM, THIS STUDY SHOWED THREE GROUPS OF STUDENTS: THOSE WHO HAD NO IDEA OF PLAGIARISM, THOSE WHO HAD A WRONG VIEW OF PLAGIARISM, AND THOSE WITH A FAVORABLE VIEW THAT WAS APPROVED, BUT WAS DIFFERENT FROM WESTERN NOTION OF PLAGIARISM.

1. Introduction

1.1. Background

Plagiarism is a contextually contingent concept. Different academic cultures around the world, especially as different as that of Asian countries in the east and that of Europe and North America in the west, show different attitude and understanding of writing from others' sources. It also differs from discipline to discipline (Bloch, 2012; Hyland, 1999). Plagiarism covers a range of inferences from western rules of ownership and authorship to memory work and textual borrowing in the academia of the east (Chandrasoma, Thompson, & Pennycook, 2004). In an attempt to deal with some complexities of the concepts of text, ownership, and plagiarism, Pennycook (1996, p. 201) argues that "the way ownership and creativity are understood within European and U.S. contexts needs to be seen as a very particular cultural and historical development". He reviews the history of authorship and challenges of this notion in the west from Plato to the present era to ask how we consider the notion of textual borrowing or plagiarism when 'meanings are in a sense in circulation", and "when

language is constantly cycled and recycled" (Pennycook, 1996, p. 211). In other words, while academics in the east, especially in China, borrow texts to construct personal academic identity (Abasi, Akbari, & Graves, 2006) through relying heavily on memory work and textual borrowing (Bloch, 2012; Chandrasoma et al., 2004), or copying, memorization and reproduction (Howard, 1995), western academia emphasize rules of ownership and authorship (Chandrasoma et al., 2004), and encourage using multiple sources of information (Lillis & Turner, 2001) in academic writing.

1.2. Review of Literature

A phenomenon like plagiarism has so far been studied and interpreted through the eyes of lecturers, supervisors and other education officials to introduce students as "key offenders" of originality in expression (Li, 2013 b; Zafarghandi, Khoshroo, & Barkat, 2012), regardless of students' attitude towards textual borrowing. This top to bottom method of treating plagiarism has neither been enough nor effective so far due to the contingent nature of plagiarism. The results of these studies have just been many regulations and laws of deterrence and punishment with no impact on the issue. This paper is an attempt to discover the patterns of the academic writing culture among Iranian ESL graduate students of science and engineering in Malaysia.

A survey of students' comments and a review of the literature related to plagiarism show that the root of most textual borrowing in thesis writing among ESL students is to improve the writing quality (Howard, 1992; Leary, 2010). These students borrow from other resources to facilitate the writing process or improve their writing skill as well as the quality of their product, but through this practice, a disapproving image of the author as plagiarizer is conveyed. This condition, which can be true for experienced ESL writers in the field, is a result of ambiguity in definitions of plagiarism and originality. Despite years of debate about plagiarism and fair use, there is still no clear-cut definition for the concept (Maurer, Kappe, & Zaka, 2006; Sharkey, 1992), and this has resulted in a plurality in understanding and using the rules.

The borderline between plagiarism and originality is yet murkier in other disciplines like science and engineering. ESL researchers in these fields find the real value of a contribution in the product developed through the research, and seek originality in the reported science rather than language used to report it (Maurer et al., 2006; Yilmaz, 2007). They also think that in science and medicine the writer "might insert phrases and even sentences from a previously published article simply because he or she is disinclined to sacrifice quality and accuracy for want of linguistic Expertise" (Vessal & Habibzadeh, 2007, p. 641).

As Flowerdew and Li (2007) report, ESL students copy useful expressions and passages from the sources they read, and paste them into their draft in order to make up for their shortcomings in fluency in English, especially in academic writing. Students, however, do not agree with this claim, and say that "We can obtain a feel for 'scientific English' through literature reading in the research-preparation stage, to fulfill a transition from 'not familiar' to 'a bit familiar" (p. 451). What Flowerdew and Li (2007) suggest is based on extensive interviews with doctoral students in science disciplines, and analyzing their writings. These researchers wanted to find out how these students have used the literature in their writings. They asked the students to comment on the similarities between their own text and the source text they had written from, and explain how much of copying they thought as acceptable. This research showed that students of science make a distinction between work/content and language/form. This suggests that "the primary concern of the scientific community in evaluating an article is the 'originality' of its 'science', rather than its language", that cases of plagiarism "involved the stealing of other's 'work' (science)" (p. 461), and that borrowing texts which contain only background information does not affect the originality of the work. This study went on with interviewing a number of professors of science at the same university, and investigating their beliefs regarding textual borrowing and plagiarism (Li, 2013 a). This study suggests that science professors have a mitigating attitude towards textual borrowing in experimental descriptions. One professor interviewed in this study (P8) believed that:

when it's something everyone can say, I think it cannot be called plagiarism… and there is no need to add references to such a sentence, even if it's more or less copied from somewhere" (p. 575). Another professor (P14) also claimed that:

A student may be carrying on my previous work, some of his text in the methods section is copied from my previous paper, I think this doesn't matter too much, because within one group, something they do is the same, and the corresponding part of the writing should be the same (p. 575).

Li (2013 a), though, considers the scenario described by P18 controversial, and claims that on the extent to which the work has borrowed from others'. However, other scientists have an opposite view to such a "laisse-faire approach" to textual borrowing. (Li, 2013 b) translates a quotation from a Chinese scientist's blog:

If you cannot work out a new narration when writing a paper, your paper is perhaps limited in its academic value and contribution. A paper of real innovation is necessarily a result of someone's word-for-word contemplation (p. 7).

Regarding this quotation, however, Li (2013 b) does not explain how the writer accounts for the cases of teamwork where the researcher and the person who writes the report or the paper are two different persons, or cases where the name of the supervisor is included in the report or the paper as the author while he has had no role in writing, and consequently no relationship with the language. She does not, also, explain how the writer accounts for the limitations of language use in a disciplinary discourse.

In other words, as (Deckert, 1993; Pecorari, 2010; Rinnert & Kobayashi, 2005; Shi, 2006) conclude, for ESL writers, whether novice or experienced, textual borrowing is a technique to improve failure to write well rather than refusal to engage legitimately in the writing process at all.

What remains unanswered in the debate, due to a lack of empirical research, was how Iranian scholars and students, with a blend of cultural heritage of the east and academic heritage of the west form and treat the concepts of textual borrowing, plagiarism and writing from sources. This paper, therefore, intends to investigate this issue.

1.3. Objectives of the Study

This study is based on the premise that plagiarism among ESL graduate students who study at English medium universities abroad is not intentional, to obtain illegal benefit or to cheat their supervisors; rather, plagiarism has its roots in students' cultural and educational background. In fact, Iranian graduate students follow the western model of academic writing while writing in their first language (Jalilifar, 2012); however, since Iranian academic system follows a text based teaching approach in which the assessment is mostly based on exams rather than on project papers, these students do not gain experience in writing academic texts (Zafarghandi et al., 2012). Therefore, the problem is unintentional plagiarism resulting from lack of experience and knowledge of conventions of academic writing (Zafarghandi et al., 2012) rather than "cheating in order to respond to their desires for success, winning, and feeling good about themselves" as Zafarghandi et al. (2012) strongly claim.

This study investigates, through multiple discussions, how ESL graduate students understand academic plagiarism policy, as well as how they write from other sources, and how they cite the sources that they use. To achieve these goals, a qualitative research methodology is used to address the following questions:

1. How do students conceptualize writing from other sources?
2. How do students conceptualize textual borrowing and plagiarism?

3. Methodology

3.1.Population and Sampling

The sample for this research was purposefully selected from among Iranian graduate students of sciences and engineering at a Malaysian university. These students had received no training in writing for academic purposes in general and specifically in ESL academic writing before they enter graduate programs. Influenced by their past learning environments, these students identify what is considered in Malaysia as plagiarism, a positive technique that helps them improve many writing problems. One very common example of this claim among students is what Pecorari (2002), following (Howard, 1995) labels patchwriting. That is to say, this group has either a mistaken or a different perception of plagiarism.

Since the target population was not centrally located, the network or chain sampling method (Ary, Jacobs, & Sorensen, 2010) was employed and eight students accepted to participate in the study. The students who were all first-year graduate students included five female students (here after called P1, P2, P3, P4 and P5) and three male student (here after called P6, P7, and P8). The first language (L1) of all participants was Persian and they had received no training in their L1 or L2 writing for academic

purposes. From among the participants, P1, P5, and P6 were studying Computer Science, P2 and P3 were studying Civil engineering, and P4 and P7 were studying Food Science, and P8 was student of Information Technology (IT).

An invitation email was sent to the first student (P1) with whom the researcher was acquainted at the library, and seemed to meet the requirements of the study. The email contained information about the researcher (personal and contact), and a brief description of the project. The recipient of the email was then asked to reply the email either to accept or reject the invitation. She was asked also to leave her contact information for required communications. When she accepted to take part in the study, she received another email containing a number of questions related to interview topic and an appointment was made via phone call. The second participant (P2)) was introduced by (P1), and through the same process, she was invited to an interview. Other participants joined the study also through the same process.

Regarding the participants L2 proficiency, all participants had valid IELTS reports. With the band score above six in the academic module designed for candidates who want to study at undergraduate or postgraduate level. According to IELTS band score scales, the participants of this study were competent users in academic English. The participants' training in academic writing was limited to their IELTS preparation program. They had received no other training in academic writing, nor did they have any experience in writing research papers.

3.2. Data Collection Procedure

The data required for this study were collected through in-depth interviews. Questions required for interviews were adopted from previous qualitative studies in the field (Dong, 1996; Shi, 2010, 2012), and adapted for the present research context through informal discussions with students in and around the campus. Through these discussions, nine questions were prepared which formed the building blocks of the interview although the interview covered a wider scope. Questions were as follows:

1. Do you normally use others' works in writing your thesis?
2. What is your idea about borrowing from others' works?
3. What do you normally borrow?
4. What is plagiarism?
5. How can you avoid plagiarism?
6. What are the principles of borrowing from others' sources?
7. Why should we include citations?
8. Describe in detail the process you use to write an academic text.
9. If you need to borrow language from other sources to express your own idea, would you cite what you have borrowed?

Each participant was interviewed twice and each interview session lasted 60 minutes. All interviews were recorded and transcribed to ensure accuracy, and the themes were generated and categorized.

4. Results and Discussion

4.1. Conceptualizing Writing from Sources

All participants strongly believed that using others' works is inevitable in academic writing because if we want to contribute to the existing knowledge, we should have enough information regarding where we are in the field now to be able to help improving it. P1, one of the participants who were studying Computer Science, believed that borrowing is inevitable in research as long as the aim of research is expanding human knowledge based on previous works. She also thought that writing from others' works means borrowing what we lack in terms of language, idea and content from those sources. Here are the ideas shared by some of the participants:

P1: "since I am new in my field and also in research, mostly I borrow ideas in order to generate my own but for representing the ideas because they are not stuck to my mind yet I am forced to borrow the writer's language as well, but when something is my own idea and consequently completely comprehensive for me I will find a way to represent it but in order to use a better or more academic language I may borrow other's language as well."

P3: "In my opinion, the more reading and borrowing others work, the more successful writing, so no problem. I normally borrow from books which are more sufficient to subject."

P4: "In my point of view I think borrowing from others works is not fault albeit it needs some changes. I normally borrow some sentences that related to my work and collect them."
P7: "if I am not mistaken, of borrowing you meaning using others results and achievements, even if I wanna use them , I ask permission or if it is not necessary for permission, I just cite them in my thesis or proposal."
In all these quotations, what is clear is that except for Sina who believed that he should cite what he borrows from other sources, other participants did not refer to this important point. These participants showed that they had no idea of what writing from sources is and for them it was equal to copying some materials and pasting them into their own work. They did not even distinguish between summarizing and paraphrasing.

4.2. Conceptualizing Textual Borrowing and Plagiarism
The second question in this paper aimed to find out Iranian graduate students' perceptions of textual borrowing and plagiarism. The interesting point about plagiarism was that two of the participants had no idea of plagiarism at all. One participant related it to copy right matters (P1); the other made it equal to borrowing from others' works (P3). Other participants however, were to some extent familiar with the topic. P7 for instance said: "plagiarism is using the others definition or result in way that shows that they belong to us". P5, the other participant, however, seemed different. She said:
"I think plagiarism is copy or mimic some sentences without any changes and I know if my dissertation has more than 30% match with other article it is plagiarism."
P4 was, in a sense, an outlier in the sample because her husband was a professional journal editor, and she was familiar with the type of work her husband did. However, even P4 showed that she was not that familiar with plagiarism when she was asked about how to avoid plagiarism. She answered:
"As I said before I try to modify the word and paraphrase them to avoid plagiarism."
She claims paraphrase as a way to avoid plagiarism while it is a source of plagiarism itself. Other participants were also in the same boat. P3 thought the same as P4 and said that we can avoid plagiarism "by converting our sources word and mix it with our words". Still she does not show any tendency to cite what she "converted" and used from other sources. In this case, P1 had no idea and said that because she had no idea of what plagiarism is, she could not talk about how she could avoid it. Generally, these participants thought that providing a reference list at the end of the work is sufficient for acknowledging the works used and avoiding plagiarism. P7, however, was a different case. He said:
"I use reference management software, and whenever I need to use other's work I exactly mention the reference which I am using for, I highly recommend using reference manager's application".
It is noteworthy about P7 that he studied Computer Science and he was familiar with software for reference management. This was a very important priority of P7 over other participants. With such a view of source using, source citing, and plagiarism, the participants considered writing from sources necessary for writing their thesis proposals although they had no idea of the related principles. Although P1 and P4 explicitly stated that they had no idea of the principles of writing from sources, P4 explained:
"because in my field of study especially in material and method I should utilize exact amount of some chemical substance, in this situation I must to refer without changing, although in other cases I attempt to alter word and paraphrase of some sentences." … but "I do not have any information about this issue."
and P3 who thought that she had to use other sources explained the principles as the following:
"Sources help us to wide our knowledge about special topic and let us to know others opinion and also previous research."
There is no need to explain that what P3 said was quite out of topic. P7 also believed that he would use others' works in writing his thesis proposal because:
P7: "using previous experimental, methodologies and their result which they have achieved; meanwhile, other's works demonstrate that what have been done up to now. Hence, I can find the gaps and solve the problems still exists."
In this case, P7 was again an outlier who showed that he had some idea of the principles:
"sometimes we need to write exactly as they wrote, or some time we can paraphrase and reform the sentences, by the way it requires citing them."

5. Conclusion and Implications

This interview based study revealed different weaknesses in the participants' academic skills. The most important of these weaknesses was lack of knowledge in writing from sources as lack of or weakness in this knowledge paves the ground for threatening the integrity and originality of the whole work.

All participants believed that referring to other sources for every detail disturbs the reading and comprehension process, and turns away the writer's focus from the subject. They believe that only introducing the sources used in the study in a reference list is sufficient to both acknowledge the authors and provide the learners with a list of related resources for further reading; therefore, the participants thought that any resource that could help the readers should be cited in the reference list although not used in the study.

These findings, although need further investigation and support, should ring the bell for Malaysian academia. As there are many Iranian students in Malaysian universities, to ensure the quality, courses should be planned to teach Iranian students and improve their academic skills before they are involved in doing their academic research. This research, also, emphasizes the need to make a change in researchers' attitude towards textual borrowing and plagiarism among ESL students. They need to shift their focus from form and process to rhetoric and culture, and hence, consider the issue as unintentional threat to originality rather than as deliberate act of plagiarism.

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THE EFFECT OF RECAST VS. SELF_CORRECTION ON THE IMPROVEMENT OF WRITING ABILITIES OF IRANIAN HIGH SCHOOL EFL STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT
THE PRESENT STUDY AIMS TO INVESTIGATE THE EFFECT OF RECAST VS. SELF-CORRECTION ON THE IMPROVEMENT OF WRITING ABILITIES OF IRANIAN HIGH SCHOOL EFL STUDENTS. THE MAIN QUESTION THAT THE RESEARCH TRIED TO ANSWER WAS WHETHER RECAST (IMPLICIT FEEDBACK) VS. SELF- CORRECTION OF STUDENTS' LANGUAGE ERRORS HAS ANY INFLUENCE ON STUDENTS' WRITING ERRORS. TO THIS END, THREE INTACT CLASSES AT INTERMEDIATE LEVEL INCLUDING 60 STUDENTS AT A PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOL IN LASHTENESH PARTICIPATED IN THIS STUDY. BEING HOMOGENIZED BY OXFORD QUICK PLACEMENT TEST (QPT), 45 STUDENTS WERE SELECTED, AND THEY WERE RANDOMLY DIVIDED INTO TWO EXPERIMENTAL AND ONE CONTROL GROUPS. AFTER THAT A PRE-TEST OF WRITING WAS ADMINISTERED TO THREE GROUPS. AFTERWARDS, THE PARTICIPANTS IN TWO EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS RECEIVED A 10- SESSION TREATMENT WHILE THE PARTICIPANTS IN THE CONTROL GROUP RECEIVED A 10- SESSION PLACEBO. AT THE END OF THESE 10 SESSIONS, A POST-TEST OF WRITING WAS ADMINISTERED. THE DATA WERE ANALYZED USING SPSS SOFTWARE, AND AN ONE-WAY ANOVA WAS CONDUCTED TO COMPARE THE MEANS OF TWO EXPERIMENTAL AND ONE CONTROL GROUPS IN THE POST-TEST WITH THE ALPHA LEVEL SET AT .05. IT SHOULD BE MENTIONED THAT THE SCORES OF PARTICIPANTS IN THE PRE-TEST PHASE WERE CONSIDERED AS A VARIATION IN THIS STUDY. BASED ON THE RESULT OF THE ANOVA, THE NULL HYPOTHESIS OF THIS STUDY WAS REJECTED. THE RESULT INDICATED THAT IRANIAN HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS IN TWO EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS RECEIVED HIGH SCORES IN WRITING TEST AFTER BEING TREATED WITH 10 SESSIONS OF TREATMENT. IT ALSO SHOWED THAT ALTHOUGH BOTH CORRECTIVE FEEDBACKS, I.E. RECAST AND SELF-CORRECTION ARE EFFECTIVE TO HELP THE STUDENTS OVERCOME THEIR LANGUAGE PROBLEMATIC AREA AND DECREASE THEIR ERRORS, RECAST PLAYS A SIGNIFICANT ROLE TO ASSIST STUDENTS IN ORDER TO FACILITATE EFL LEARNING AND ENHANCE THEIR WRITING ABILITY .

KEY TERM: FEEDBACK, RECAST, SELF-CORRECTION , WRITING, REFORMULATION

1. Introduction

Literature indicates that providing feedback to students' writings has always been a controversial and even inconclusive issue. The term corrective feedback refers to any feedback provided to learner, from any source that contains evidence of learner' s error of language form. It may be spoken or written, implicit or explicit. Ferris (2002) sees error correction as an important factor for improving learners' writing ability. Some other studies (Cohen, 1987; Ferris & Robert, 2001) also highlight the importance of accuracy and hence error correction in students' writings and the students' willingness to receive feedback on their errors.

Obviously, writing to communicate can be possible just when students have sufficient control of the writing system and grammar to make themselves understood. Students should learn to communicate in writing and focus on linguistic accuracy at the same time. Therefore, grammatical correctness is an inseparable and necessary component of writing to communicate, especially in educational context (Chastain, 1988).

In spite of the importance of writing skills, some language teachers neglect it in their teaching process. Unfortunately, in public schools of Iran, English teachers pay a little attention to writing skills. There is no opportunity for students to write composition, essay or even summary about their lessons. Most of the time the students use a lot of incorrect structures in their written or spoken language that are very important and essential. Therefore, they are unable to convey their intended meanings and real messages in their written productions and most of them have insufficient ability in writing English texts. The majority of students are willing to have the suitable ability to use the learned materials to communicate a messag that a native speaker can understand. So, they are willing to perceive recast as a feedback on the form of their writings.

Since writing is one of the productive skills, it can act as one of the most fundamental abilities for learners in order to internalize their knowledge of linguistic components. And due to lack of a clear strategy for teachers dealing with students' writing errors, it will be useful to focus on them through recast (implicit feedback).

According to Lyster and Ranata (1997), recast involves the teacher's implicit supplying of a correct reformulation of a student's ill-formed utterance. In other words, it paraphrases a learner's incorrect utterances and replaces one or more incorrect components with a correct form while maintaining the meaning. It is an implicit corrective feedback .Krashen and Selinger (1975) observed that discrete point presentation and feedback on error are two characteristics common to all L2 teaching methods. Long and Robinson (1998) stated that one of the effective way that provides learners with information about how their current interlanguage differs from the target is recast. Recasts are corrective strategies that teachers use to deal with errors of language learners and to reformulate all or part of their erroneous utterances without changing its central meaning (Inagaki, Long & Ortega, 1998).

The present study will carry important implication of recast vs. self- correction in EFL classrooms with pedagogical advice in order to maximize Iranian teachers' attention towards implicit provision of learners' error correction on writing as well as tackling their writing problem. Likewise, The current study will contribute to show how English language instructors use correction feedback in students' writing English texts to enhance their students' writing ability and competency. It will be worthwhile for EFL learners, EFL teachers and curriculum developers, course book designers/writers and language institutes. This study tries to investigate whether Iranian high school students can overcome their writing linguistic errors such as lexico-semantic and morpho-syntactic errors by using corrective feedback such as recast vs. self-correction and develop their writing abilities efficiently.

Among the whole studies in support of the facilitative role of correction, recast has proved the most frequent types of error correction in classroom. Another way of correction is self-correction. Self-correction is an indirect feedback where the teacher provides students with the choices so that they themselves discern the correct form. (Bitchener, Cameron, & Young 2005). According to Lyster (1998), self-correction or " self-repair ", in either form of self or peer, happens when the teacher makes the erroneous point salient through repetition (in speaking), underlining the erroneous sentence (in writing) or writing both the correct and erroneous form on the board so that students can choose from.

According to Lyster and Ranata (1997); Mackay (2006), elicitation is an explicit correction where the teacher provides the students with the wrong form, along with the correct form, sometimes, two forms of correct and the original sentence are provided, and students should find the correct form. According to Han (2002), Self-correction and recast are different from each other in terms of the type

of evidence each provides student with. Error correction can provide the learners with both negative and positive evidence; positive evidence is usually referred to the natural input the learners are exposed to; negative evidence is usually referred to as correction and reactive instruction, whereas positive evidence entails both natural and reactive instructional setting. With whatever role they might play either as positive or negative evidence or either as an explicit focus on form or implicit focus on form, error corrections vary in their degree of effectiveness.

The main focus of this study is on the learners' linguistic errors, which are subject to regular treatment by means of focusing on recasting vs. self-correcting and whether such treatment can lead to improve literacy during a period of time. While there was a dearth of research on the effectiveness of error correction in general and recast in particular on the Iranian intermediate students' writing abilities, the present study has been made an endeavor to fill the gap between literature and practice in educational system by providing more insight into the effect of recast versus self-correction on Iranian high school students writing performance. To fulfill the aims of this study the following question was proposed:

Q: Does recast (implicit feedback) vs. self-correction of student's language errors have any statistically significant effect on Iranian high school students 'writing errors?

2. Literature Review

Corrective feedback in SLA for years has been one of the most confusing problems both for students and teachers due to opposite attitude to error correction. The ideas stay divided into two main flows: against correction (Krashen, 1982; Truscott, 1996) vs. towards considerable appropriate correction (Bitchener & Knoch, 2008; Chandler, 2003; Sheen, 2007).Within the second group the research on various types of feedback is increasing to discover what considerable appropriate corrections in fact are.

There are three explanations regarding the beneficial role that recast plays in SLA. Each is drived from a major theoretical framework in SLA. The first and the most often cited explanations of benefit of recast are based on what is called the "noticing hypothesis". As Schmidt's (1990) "noticing hypothesis" states, in order to learn anything that is new, noticing is fundamental. According to this hypothesis, language learners need first to be aware of the new linguistic features in the input in order to be able to acquire them (Schmidt, 1990, cited in Lightbown, Nicholas, & Spada, 2001).

The second theoretical framework is concerned with Universal Grammar Model of language acquisition . In this model Schwartz (1993, cited in Lightbown, Nicholas, & Spada, 2001) indicates that the effectiveness of the recast does not due to its role as 'negative evidence'. (i.e., information about what is not acceptable in the target language) instead it simply provides 'positive evidence' (i.e., examples of acceptable target language sentences).

The third theoretical framework stems from Sociocultural Theory of Mind (SCT) developed by Vygotsky (1988). According to his theory, learners' engagement in independent problem-solving revealed those functions that had already been internalized but nothing about their abilities. Individuals' abilities can only be revealed when various forms of support are offered.Vygotskys' theory emphasizes the importance of communication with others as a major factor in the child's language development which stimulate the development of thought. Vygotsky's theory is based on ZPD model, Zone of Proximal Development which presents in the interactions of children with their adults.

Vygotsky (1988) argued that language learning should be supported because learner's language developments occur through interaction with others and participants in activities. He believed that there is a difference between what a learner can do alone and what he/she can do in collaboration with more experienced or knowledgeable peer or teacher. He/She helps the learners or students in selecting, changing, interpreting through mediations (scaffolding). Scaffolding is a teaching -learning strategy where teacher and learner engage it in a collaborative problem-solving activity, (i.e., teacher's supporting way, error correction and guidance).

Recast as a corrective feedback is based on interaction between teacher and students in the educational settings or classroom,the teacher as a monitor and facilitator attempts to prompt learners' language performance, and focuses on learners' future development through recast as a scaffolding tool on the students' erroneous writing or speaking skills. Hence, teacher and learners engage in a collaborating problem-solving activity in which teacher support learners' language performance through mediation (scaffolding), and consequently recast may play the role of mediation. In this case

the process of learning will be dynamic or ongoing. Recast tries to explore learning obstacles and design interventions to overcome them and end in promoting learners development through appropriate forms of mediation. The purpose of recast is to eliminate the erroneous sentences from the students' future writing; therefore, it can act based on ZPD model and Socicultural Theory of Vygotsky (1988).

3. Method

To do the research, one dependent variable and one independent variable with two levels were selected.The current research employed convenience sampling in three intact classes. Convenience sampling is a non-probability sampling technique that simply uses conveniently available subjects (Dornyei,2007). However the participants were randomly divided into three groups including experimental group A, experimental group B, and control group C to receive three different treatments.

The present study was implemented on the basis of quasi- experimental design. The design allowed them to seek Iranian high school students' writing ability, and to investigate the effectiveness of recast vs. self-correction on their writing ability. There is a pre-test in this design, which is administered to the subjects before the treatment. There are three groups, two groups receive two different treatments, and the third one receive placebo. At the end of the treatments, a post-test is given to realize whether the treatments were efficient or not. So, the participants of the three groups participated in a pre-test and post-test before and after treatment respectively.

3.1. Participants

The initial participants of the current research were from three intact classes at a public high school in Iran. These three classes were consisted of 60 female students ranging 17-18 years old. They had various degrees of exposure to language instructions. They were customarily placed in grade three. They were all native speakers of Persian and their major was natural science.

The participants had experienced an Oxford Quick Placement Test (version 1) for the purpose of homogenizing and making sure that the study enjoys homogeneous participants with respect to their English language proficiency to be able to take part in writing class. The participants took four parts that included items related to structure, vocabulary, reading comprehension, and writing with a maximum possible score of (70) points

Of the whole participants, 15 were excluded due to their inadequate English proficiency for the purpose of the study. Being homogenized by QPT, 45 participants whose score fell within the range of 31+ in grammar and vocabulary, 8+ in reading section, and 8+ in writing section were selected as the main sample that randomly divided into three groups, one control group to receive placebo and two experimental groups to receive two different treatments. Each group comprising of 15 female participants, and hence fulfilling the objects of balanced design in current research.

The experimental group A included 15 participants received a 10-session self-correction as the correction strategy in the way that the teacher provided the correct form for erroneous sentence of students production, and the students needed to decide which sentence was grammatically correct. The experimental group B included 15 participants received recast with single move reformulation. Correction of either types of self-correction or recast can vary in term of different constituents or" moves" it takes. Control group C included 15 participants received placebo, i.e. the erroneous sentences of the participants of control group C just were underlined without any feedback.

3.2. Materials

To answer the research question of the current study, the following materials were used:

3.2.1. Instructional materials

The materials of this study for the training program of recast and self-correction consisted of three phases: a) writing summary b) retelling story c) answering questions. Each session was held for 45 minutes once a week, and teaching program was taught by the same teacher during three months.

After summarizing each lesson of the text book, the participants' writings were collected and corrected by the teacher and were returned to them. Whenever the participants of groups A and B produced grammatically incorrect sentence, feedback was provided on the spot (in one group in the

form of recast, in another group in form of self-correction). The erroneous sentences of the participants of control group C just were underlined without any feedback.
Besides summarizing each lesson and retelling the short story, some participants were called to answer the questions relating to their textbook in class. The members of group (A) were provided with self-correction, feedback following the occurrence of the erroneous statements. The self-correction feedback was vocalic or verbal; the teacher repeated the students' erroneous sentences, along with the correct form, and the students were asked to choose the correct form. The members of group (B) were provided with recast in the form of feedback on participants' erroneous sentences. Recast was written. The members of group (C) did not receive any feedback. Instructional instruments were based on lesson plans corresponded to the students' course book materials and utilized during treatment period between pre-test and post-test.

3.2.2. Testing materials
An QPT was used for the purpose of homogenizing the proficiency level of the learners. Since the aim of the current study was to investigate the statistically significant effect of two types of feedback, recast vs. self-correction on improving the high school EFL students' writing ability in term of using Lexico-semantic and morpho-syntactic errors, students' writing samples about the course book's topics were utilized as instruments to measure the writing abilities of three groups of students for both pre-test and post-test. The first writing sample was considered as pre-test at the first session before treatment, the last writing sample was considered as the post-test and was done in the last session after treatment.

3.3. Procedures for Data Collection and Analysis
Three intact classes included 45 students out of 60 at a public high school which were taught by the same teacher as researcher, were selected as participants for the purpose of this quasi-experimental study through Oxford Quick Placement Test (based on SD above and below the mean). These three classes met once a week, each session 45 minutes of language instruction. Then, they were randomly divided into three groups: experiment group A (self-correction), experiment group B (recast) and control group C (15 students in each group) and the scores of other students were excluded from analysis in the remaining phases of this study (i.e. pre-test and post-test). The experimental group A and B received treatment programs but the control group received no treatment or placebo in an equal period of time. All students of three groups participated in pre-test and post-test.
A pre-test including paragraph writing, was then administered at the first session to examine the participants' global writing abilities. Then, two experimental groups received a 10- session treatment through the training program of two kinds of corrective feedback, i.e. recast and self-correction, while the third group received placebo. At the end of 10 treatment sessions, a post-test of writing was administered. Then the pre-test and post-test analyses were compared with each other. The purpose was to examine the degree which these participants could benefit from recast vs. self-correction strategy, the extent to which these strategies had recovered linguistic errors observed in the first writings as well as the degree of improvement in participants' writing ability.
After collecting the data, the researcher investigated the hypothesis in order to answer the research question. The data available for the analysis consisted of writing scores (pre-test and post-test). After investigating and scoring the tests, the results were statistically analyzed to provide answers for the research question. One-Way ANOVA was used to analyze the data of the study.

4.Result
To carry out the statistical analyses, the results attained from the tests were summarized, and the procedures of descriptive statistics (comprising means and standard deviations) followed by inferential statistics namely One-Way ANOVA and paired samples T-test were run. Prior to running the main statistical analyses, normality that was the main assumption of parametric tests which was established for all of the distributions through running Leven test, error bars, and mean plots.
To show that the subjects were nearly at similar level in terms of their writing ability at the beginning of the study, a pre-test was directed to the three groups. For examining the uniformity of variance assumption for the pre-test, One-Way ANOVA was run to the results of the pre-test. Before accomplishing the analysis, the main supposition of One-Way ANOVA namely, normality of the distributions was examined through running Leven statistics (See Table 1.).

Table 1.
Descriptive statistics of experimental and control groups for pre-test scores

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Exp. A	15	16.06	2.15	4.62
Exp. B	15	16.13	2.58	6.65
Con.	15	14.60	2.69	7.23
Total	45	15.60	2.62	6.86

Table 2.
Descriptive analysis of one way ANOVA for pre-test scores

One way ANOVA results							
95% Confidence Interval of the Difference							
Groups	N	df.	SED	F	sig.(two-tailed)	Lower	Upper
Exp. A & Exp. B & Con.	45	42	0.391	1.688	0.197	14.81	16.38

As it is demonstrated in the above table, the values of standard deviation and standard error statistics supported that variation in pre-test performance for the three groups was somehow small and identical (see Table 2.). The results of the pre-test showed that the Mean of the control group ($M_{\text{control group}}$ = 14.60), Mean of the experimental group A($M_{\text{experimental group (A)}}$ =16.06), and Mean of the *experimental group (B)* ($M_{\text{experimental group (B)}}$ =16.13), did not differ statistically. In other words, the mean difference was not statistically significant for the pre-test scores of writing before initiating the specific treatments for the experimental groups. Table 4.3 displays the results of One-Way ANOVA for the pre-test scores of writing. Results of One-Way ANOVA indicated that there was no statistically significant difference in learners' writing ability on the pre-test scores across the groups (F2, 42=1.688, $p_{\text{writing test}}$ (.197) ≥ .05).
The significance value of the F test in the ANOVA table was higher than alpha (.05) for the pre-test scores of writing. As a result, the non-significant F test revealed that the population means on test of writing were similar at the beginning of the study. It implies that the average assessment scores of writing ability were equal across the three groups at the beginning of the study.
The statistic of ANOVA was run to the results of the post-test of writing. The descriptive statistics for the posttest data is presented in the following table:

Table 3.
Descriptive statistics of experimental and control groups for post-test scores

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Exp. A	15	17.13	2.03	4.12
Exp. B	15	18.53	1.30	1.69
Con.	15	14.86	2.35	5.52
Total	45	16.84	2.43	5.90

The results of the descriptive statistics for the post-test showed that the Mean of the control group ($M_{\text{control group}}$ = 14.86), Mean of the experimental group A($M_{\text{experimental group (A)}}$ =17.13), and Mean of the *experimental group (B)* ($M_{\text{experimental group (B)}}$ =18.53), differed significantly. The significance value of the *F* test in the ANOVA table was less than (.05).

Table 4.
Analysis of one way ANOVA for post-test scores

One way ANOVA results
95% Confidence

Interval of the Difference							
Groups	**N**	**df.**	**SED**	**F**	**sig.(two-tailed)**	**Lower**	**Upper**
Exp. A & Exp. B & Con.	45	42	0.39	13.549	.000	16.11	17.57

Thus, the hypothesis that average assessment scores of the writing ability (post-test) were equal across the three groups was rejected (F = 13.549, Sig. = .000≤.05).The following figure illustrates mean plot for the results of the posttest of writing.

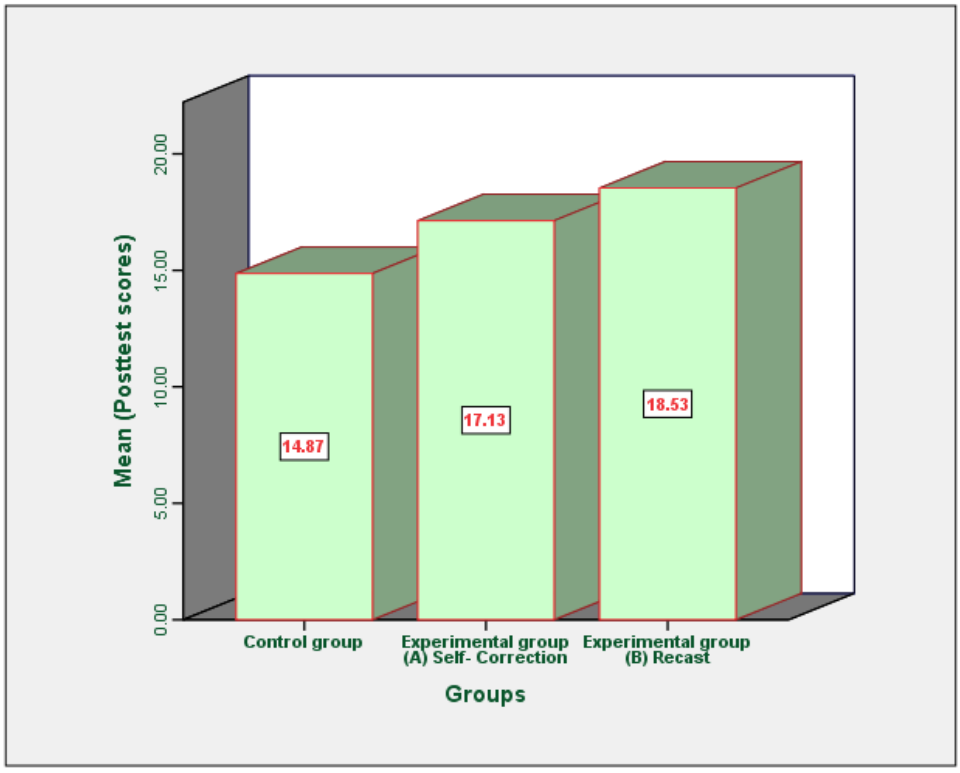

Figure 1. The three groups' performances on test of writing (Post-Test)

In order to investigate the extent of the students' progression within groups, three Paired Samples T-Tests were also run, which showed the subjects' progress in pre-test and post-test (See Tables 5.).

Table 5.
Statistics for the pre and post-test scores of writing ability

Paired Samples Statistics						
Groups			**Mean**	**N**	**Std. Deviation**	**Std. Error Mean**
Control group	Pair 1	Pretest scores	14.6000	15	2.69391	.69556
		Posttest scores	14.8667	15	2.35635	.60841
Experimental group (A) Self- Correction	Pair 1	Pretest scores	16.0667	15	2.15362	.55606
		Posttest scores	17.1333	15	2.03072	.52433
Experimental group (B) Recast	Pair 1	Pretest scores	16.1333	15	2.85023	.73593
		Posttest scores	18.5333	15	1.30201	.33618

As it was shown in Table 5., the mean scores of the control group improved from (14.60) in pre- test to (14.86) in post-test. With respect to the performance of the participants in the experimental group (A), the mean score increased from (16.06) in pre- test to (17.13) in post-test, and finally, the mean of the experimental group (B) group improved from (16.13) in pre- test to (18.53) in post- test. To provide answer for the research question, One-Way ANOVA procedure produced a one-way analysis of

variance for the quantitative dependent variable namely post-test of writing by the single independent variable (types of corrective feedback). Analysis of variance was used to test the hypothesis that the means of the three groups were equal on post-test of writing. The analysis of variance is sensitive to divergence from normality. Therefore, the uniformity of the variances for the three groups was evaluated for the results of the posttest, too. The assumption was that each group was an independent random sample from a normal population.

5. General Discussion

The L1 studies are generally restricted, however to morphological features, and there is little conscious about which qualities benefit from corrective feedback (Farrar, 1992; Bonamo, Morgan, & Travis, 1995). In L2 research, a wider range of linguistic features have been studied, with some researchers seeking for differences in interlocutors, a leaning towards use different kinds of feedback following phonological, lexical, and morpho-syntactic errors (Chaudron, 1977; Havranek, 1999; Lyster, 1998; Mackey, 2000).

For sure, a classroom without any error correction is far from reality; all teachers attempt to facilitate their students' learning future development. When there is less chance for exposure to positive evidence, especially in foreign language setting, utilizing various methods of error correction is the best way to stop fossilization. As Guenette (2007) describes this is a " decisive factor in the attainment of language fluency and accuracy" (p. 41) Truscott (1998) describes that " studies that look at the actual speech/ writing of learners who have undergone correction have consistently failed to find any benefits" (p. 123). Contrary to Truscott's (1998) opinion, corrective feedback in the form of recast assists to develop accuracy. This study attempted to investigate the influence of recast vs. self-correction on the high school students' writing ability. The obtained result indicated improvement in accuracy of participants in recast group which contradicts Truscott claim about harmful or even useless influence of corrective feedback..

There is some discussion in the corrective feedback literature that students may respond differently to corrective feedback depending on whether the teacher provides it or not. That is, some of L2 learners may perceive corrective feedback from their teachers more efficient because they are near-native speakers of the target language and thus possess more knowledge about the L2 (Morris, 2002).

5.1. Pedagogical Implications of the Study.

Being aware of errors committed by EFL learners, is necessary for both teachers and learners. Making learners conscious of their problematic areas can encourage them to focus on these errors and promote their writing (Tahririan, 1986). Besides, teachers require to be aware of the most problematic areas in order to provide the learners with efficient assistance to facilitate learning. Being aware of current theoretical and practical problems related to error correction can be useful for language teachers and language educational system.

The result of this study can also be fruitful for language teacher training courses. Language teacher trainers should be aware of current theories and knowledge about language teaching in order not to direct their trainees to outdated teaching techniques in their foreign language teaching. The result of this research and the assistance of correction feedback can make aware language teacher trainers about the effectiveness of such corrective feedback types.

Additionally, using recast and self-corrective as two kinds of corrective feedback help syllabus designers and material developers prepare systematic syllabuses and provide remedial materials for learners. Researchers can apply the result and finding of this research in other fields of language studies.

5.2. Limitations and Delimitations of the Study

The present study suffered from a number of limitation which will pose inevitable restrictions as follow: first, since this research was limited to the information from only a small group of 45 participants, its findings can not be generalized to larger population. Second, because of the result of this study was limited to the errors existing in participants' writing papers, it is doubtful whether the collected writing papers can be accepted as the real output of the learners. That is because they had to limit their writings to the specific topic, so their writings may not show their exact ability in language written production.Third, this research was limited to the students' writing ability, it can be investigated on oral or spoken ability.

5.3. Suggestions for Further Research

The participants of this study were merely females 17 to 18 years old. A similar research can be replicated regarding mixed genders and age distribution. The participants of the present study were at intermediate level. A similar research can be carried on other levels such as elementary, pre-intermediate or advanced levels. The participants of this research were high school EFL students. Other research can be conducted on English language learners in an institute or at university levels in different courses .

Additionally, this study concentrated on students' written texts based on their course book material. Other investigation may focus on more natural mode of writing, as writing letters or e-mails, or writing in forums because they are more natural. In other hand, this research was bounded to small group of a public high school students. Therefore, in order to control the internal validity of the research, repetition of the same study include more participants with different proficiency level is suggested.

5.4. Conclusion

Regarding the effectiveness of both different kinds of corrective feedback self-correction and recast on Iranian high school students' writing ability, the result of data analysis revealed that using recast in this study improved the participants' performance on writing test better than self-correction, supporting the finding discussed earlier in the general discussion section of this chapter. That is, recast is more beneficial than self-correction to enhance the learners' awareness and attention on their erroneous productive skills.

In addition to, the finding of this research revealed that although both of corrective feedback i.e. recast and self-correction are effective to help the students overcome their language problematic areas and decrease their writing errors, recast plays more important part to assist students in order to facilitate EFL learning, reduce their writing linguistic errors such as lexico-semantic and morpho-syntactic errors, and enhance their writing ability and competency. Because of the teacher's role as a facilitator and monitor of language development, the majority of students are willing to receive recast, i.e., teacher's correction on their erroneous performance (i.e., writing and spoking) to move towards writing fluency and accuracy and increase their linguistic knowledge.

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MJLTM

SENTENCE-INITIAL CONJUNCTIVE ADVERBIALS IN ACADEMIC ARTICLES WRITTEN BY NATIVE ENGLISH SPEAKERS AND IRANIAN EFL WRITERS

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ABSTRACT
THE PRESENT STUDY SOUGHT TO INVESTIGATE THE USE OF CONJUNCTIVE ADVERBIALS (CAS) IN SENTENCE-INITIAL POSITION OF RESEARCH ARTICLES WRITTEN BY IRANIAN ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE (EFL) WRITERS AND ENGLISH NATIVE SPEAKERS. TWO CORPORA WERE COMPILED FOR THE SAKE OF DATA ELICITATION AND ANALYSIS. THE CORPORA CONSISTED OF 30 RESEARCH ARTICLES WRITTEN BY EFL LEARNERS IN THE FIELD OF APPLIED LINGUISTICS AND 30 RESEARCH ARTICLES BY NATIVE WRITERS. THE TWO BODIES OF DATA WERE ANALYSED BOTH QUANTITATIVELY AND QUALITATIVELY. THE RESULTS SHOWED THAT BOTH GROUPS HAD SIMILAR TENDENCY TO USE A SET OF CAS. THE WORD-LEVEL ANALYSIS REVEALED THAT THE EFL WRITERS USED MORE CAS THAN THE NATIVE GROUP. HOWEVER, THE SENTENCE-LEVEL ANALYSIS SHOWED THAT THE NATIVE SPEAKERS USED MORE CAS THAN THE EFL GROUP. THE QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS SHOWED THAT THE EFL GROUP SHOWED STYLISTIC DIFFICULTIES WITH SOME OF THE CAS SUCH AS BESIDES AND THEREFORE.THE RESULTS OF THIS STUDY MAY HAVE THEORETICAL AND PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS FOR SECOND LANGUAGE WRITING INSTRUCTORS AND LEARNERS. THE RESULTS OF THIS STUDY MAY HAVE SOME IMPACT ON ACADEMIC ENGLISH INSTRUCTION AND MAY ALSO ASSISST EFL LEARNERS AND WRITERS TO EMPLOY CAS CORRECTLY IN ACADEMIC WRITING. THE PAPER ENDS WITH SOME SUGGESTIONS ON HOW TO HELP STUDENT WRITERS ON THE PROPER USE OF CAS IN SENTENCE-INITIAL POSITION.

KEY WORDS: CONJUCTIVE ADVERBIALS, ACADEMIC WRITING, CORPUS-BASED STUDY

1. INTRODUCTION

This study is based on an analysis of sentence-initial conjunctive adverbials in the writing of Iranian researcher writers and native speaker researchers. This is a corpus-based investigation which offers qualitative and quantitative insights into the use of CAs in published articles in the field of applied linguistics. The objective is to probe into the use of CAs by the Iranian researchers in order to see how they stack up against their native writers to illustrate some possibleinappropriate, overuse or underuse of these constituents by both groups.

1.1 Definition Of Adverbials

Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad and Finegan (1999, p. 762) define adverbials as clause elements with three functions: first, "to add circumstantial information about the proposition in the clause", second, "to express speaker/writer stance towards the clause" and third, "to link the clause (or some part of

it) to some other unit of discourse" so he classifies them into three classes: circumstance adverbials, stance adverbials and linking adverbials.

Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999) define adverbials as "lexical expressions that may add little or no propositional content by themselves but they serve to specify the relationship among sentences in in oral and written discourse, thereby leading the reader to the feeling that the sentences hang together or make sense. These logical connectors, if placed appropriately, function as signposts, guiding the reader through the discourse. According to Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999), cohesive devices are categorized into three types: (1) coordinating conjunctions (i.e., and, or, but, yet), (2) adverbial sub-coordinators (e.g., because, even though, since), and CAs (e.g., moreover, thus, however, similarly). This paper is an attempt to tap into the third type of logical connectors-conjunctive adverbials.

The CAs chosen for analysis in this study are based on Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman's version of Halliday and Hassan's classification which divides conjunctions into four types: additive, adversative, causal and temporal.

1. Additive

Emphatic: in addition, moreover, further, furthermore, besides, also, in fact, additionally, at the same time

Appositional: that is, that is to say, in other words, for instance, for example

Comparative: likewise, similarly

1. Adversative: however, nevetheless, nonetheless, despite this, in contrast

Contrastive: conversely, on the other hand, at the same time, meanwhile, otherwise

Correction: instead, rather, at least

Dismissal: in any case, in any event, anyhow, at any rate

2. Causal: therefore, consequently, for that rason, thus, hence, thereby, accordingly, in consequence
3. Temporal: then, in turn, next, first, second, third, fourth, first of all, firstly, last, finally, later, initially

Summarizing: in short, in summary, in brief, in sum, in conclusion, to sum up, to conclude, overall, all in all, to conclude

1.2 CORPUS-BASED STUDIES ON CAs

Crismore (1980) conducted an experiment on the use CAs. He tried to investigate students' mastery of meaning and use in reading and composing of five formal CAs in English (moreover, accordingly, hence, even so, and still) across school level and class type, and intended to find out whether there are differences in using CAs between remedial readers and nonremedial and between secondary students, technical college students and regular collage students. The subjects of the study were 100 students from remedial and non-remedial reading and composition class selected from a rural high school, a vocational technical college and a university, all located in the mid-west. The material in this study was five inter-sentential connectors have been given to students to provide a synonym for each connector and to generate a compound sentence using the connector appropriately between two main clauses in the compound sentences to link the ideas. The results indicated that the proportion of synonym and sentence errors according to connector type and student class level was not significant However, the proportion of total errors made by all class levels and the proportion of (un)attempted items by connector type and class level were significant. The order of difficulty of the five connector types – from the least to most difficult – was 1) still and hence, 2) even so, 3) accordingly and moreover (Crismore, 1980). Accordingly , he came to this conclusion that "although the development of trend was indicated for acquiring control, the students, in general, had not mastered the connectors needed for literacy by the time they were in college" (Crismore, 1980, p. 1).

Milton and Tsang (1993) compared Hong Kong student's use of logical connectors in a 4-million-word learner corpus with that of the Brown and LOB Corpora. They identified an overuse pattern of an entire range of logical connectors in students' writing samples; the top ten overused connectors were lastly, besides, moreover, secondly, firstly, consequently, furthermore, regarding, therefore and namely (1993). In addition to this quantification, a qualitative analysis of two specific connectors, moreover and therefore, suggested that students had two kinds of difficulty regarding the use of connectors-redundant use and misuse. In order to correct what they called the "discourse-marker overkill" phenomenon, the researchers contended that teachers of writing need to work on raising

learners' sensitivity of the use connectors in compositions. More specifically, students need to learn that these connectors should not merely play an ornamental role in their writing; instead, when selecting which connectors should be used, students need to go through a careful thought process to ensure the logic of the arguments is enhanced, not hampered, by the use of these linking devices.
In another study, Granger and Tyson (1996) studied connector usage by comparing the 89918-word French sub-corpus of the ICLE with a comparable 77723-word native corpus called the Louvain Corpus of Native Essay Writing (LOCNESS). The author's hypothesis was that the French learners overuse connectors in their essays. The quantitative analysis did not support the initial hypothesis, as the total number of connectors per 100000 words was 1085 for the learner corpus and 1178 for the native one. However, a more detailed qualitative investigation portrayed a rather different picture. Based on such analysis, Granger and Tsang were able to identify the connectors which were underused by the French learners, e.g. however, therefore, and thus. At the same time, some connectors were overused by the learners, e.g. moreover, for instance, and on the contrary. As for misuse, the researchers stated that learners are often insensitive to the "stylistic restrictions" of certain connectors. It is suggested that more emphasis should be put on matters of style in writing classes.
Bolton, Nelson, and Hung (2002) believed that the identification of connectors should not be regarded as uncontroversial and given and that a more realistic list of connectors would improve the accuracy of the analysis. The second methodological issue, raised by Bolton, Nelson, and Hung, is the calculation of ratio of frequency. Accordingly, most of the previous corpus-based connector studies adopted a word –based calculation. For example, Milton and Tsang (1993) calculated the ratio of occurrence by dividing the total number of words in a pool of data with the number of identified connectors. Another widely-used word-based calculation method is that of presenting the ratio of frequency in terms of the number of connectors per 10,000 or 100,000 words; this method was employed in Granger and Tyson (1996) and Altenberg and Tapper (1998). Bolton, Nelson, and Hung, (2002) criticized these word-based methods as "fundamentally flawed" (p.172) because connectors function as cohesive ties at the sentential level and beyond. Therefore, they suggested that sentence, not word, should be the basic unit for analysis.

2. Reaserch Question?

This study addressed the following research question:
To what extent do Iranian EFL researcher writers differ from native English researcher writers in their use of sentence-initial conjunctive adverbials?

3. Methodology

3.1 The Current Study

This study is an attempt to investigate the use of CAs in research articles written by native English speakers and Iranian researcher writers in the field of applied linguistics. To this end, a corpus of research papers written by these two groups was established. The corpus consists of articles written in applied linguistics journals by native English speakers and Iranian researchers. It was hypothesized that Iranian writers overuse CAs in initial sentence positions. Since how a writer begins a sentence has much to do with information organization and presentation, sentence-initial position carries particular importance in writing. Marked word order in sentence-initial position appears more in writing than in spoken discourse (Yang, 1989). In spoken language, phonology often serves as a means to indicate emphasis and focus. Written texts lack this prosodic aspect of language and are, therefore, confined to morphological, lexical, and syntactic devices to attain effective information organization. Sentence-initial adverbials (e.g., circumstance adverbials, logical connectors, stance adverbials) are some of the syntactic features that writers use in creating meaningful organization of information (e.g.,Celce-Muricia& Larsen-Freeman, 1999; Jacobs; kolln,1990).

3.2 The Corpus

The research sample that is used in this study comprises research articles (30 written by NRs of English and 30 written by Iranian researchers as NNRs of English) published in prestigious international journals in the field of applied linguistics.The total word count for the learner corpus is 53,946 and 71179 for the native corpus. As far as sentence count is concerned it is 3125 and 3973 for the learner and native group respectively.

3.3 Data Analysis And Procedure

The researcher intends to determine sentence length and complexity on the one and sentence-initial use of CAs by both groups of researchers. There will be quantitative analysis of these constituents in

order to determine their frequencies in both corpus and a qualitative analysis to delve deep into the reasons for possible discrepancies in the use of CAs in the two corpuses. Since this study is concerned with sentence-initial CAs, sentence-medial and sentence-final constituents were not considered here. All the CAs used in all the articles were calculated. All the tables, figures, charts, footnotes, references and appendices were excluded in word and sentence counts. As a result, the total word count performed by Microsoft word office for the non-native corpus was about 53,946 and 71,179 for the native corpus. With regard to sentence count, it is about 3125 and 3973 respectively. The frequency of occurrence and percentage of CAs were presented. The percentage of each conjunctive adverbial in native and non- native articles was computed through the total number of CAs in the whole corpus.

4. Results And Discussion

All in all 539 and 787 conjunctive adverbials were identified in the Iranian and native English researcher writers respectively. The percentage of each type of CA which were identified in the corpora are shown in table 1.

Table 1. Percentage use of CAs by category

CAs	Learner Corpus	Native Corpus
Temporal	19.3%	11.5 %
Causal	23.3%	17.4 %
Adversative	22.6%	34.8 %
Additive	36.8%	33.3 %

As it is clear from table 1, the Iranian researcher writers used additive CAs (36.8%) more than their native researcher writers (33.3%). On the other hand, native researcher writers used adversative CAs (34.8%) most frequently than the Iranian writers (22.6%).

Table 2 shows the top most used CAs in the two corpora with their raw frequencies and their frequencies per sentence.A total of ten CAs most frequently used in both corpora are depicted in table 2.

Table 2. The top ten most frequently used CAs

Learner Corpus				Native Corpus			
Rank	**CA**	**F.P.S**	**R.F.**	**Rank**	**CA**	**F.P.S**	**R.F.**
1	*However*	22.7	(71)	1	*however*	40.7	(162)
2	*therefore*	25.2	(79)	2	*for instance/ example*	17.8	(71)
3	*for instance/ example*	15.0	(47)	3	*thus*	16.6	(66)
4	*In conclusion*	16.96	(53)	4	*therefore*	11.8	(47)
5	*moreover*	7.3	(23)	5	*In other words*	12.8	(51)
6	*Besides*	8.3	(26)	6	*furthermore*	10.5	(42)
7	*further*	6.7	(21)	7	*then*	9.8	(39)
8	*First*	9.2	(29)	8	*In addition*	6.7	(27)
9	*thus*	7.6	(24)	9	*As a result*	7.8	(31)
10	*additionally*	6.4	(20)	10	*conversely*	5.0	(20)
			(393)				**(556)**

FPS= Frequency per 1000 sentences
RF= Raw frequency

The adversative CA however is the most frequently used CA in the two corpora. The native writers are more prominent in their use of however where it occurs 40.7 times per 1000 sentences. The ranking for the top five frequently used CAs from both groups was quite similar. This is specially noticeable in the native corpus where however occurs 40.7 times per 1000 sentences.

In order to test if EFL learners overuse conjunctive adverbs, the overall frequency of CAs at word level and sentence level were calculated in terms of 10000 words and 1000 sentences. Teble 3 and 4 show the result of word level and sentence level analysis of CAs.

Table 3. Overall word level frequency of CAs

	Learner Corpus	Native Corpus
Corpus size words	53,946	71,179
Number of CAs	539	787
CAs/10,000 words	71	65

Table 4. Overall sentence level frequency of CAs

	Learner Corpus	Native Corpus
Corpus size sentences	3,125	3973
Number of CAs	539	787
CAs/10,000 words	159	183

Results from table 3 reveals that learners use more CAs than native speaker writers do at word level (71 vs. 65). Conversely, results from table 4 shows that the native group use more CAs than the native group at sentence level (159 vs. 183).

The results from the analysis revealed that different approaches to calculate CAs produce variable outcomes. Word based analysis supports the overuse of CAs by Iranian EFL learners while sentence based analysis does not follow this trend. This could be attributable to the fact that learners wrote shorter sentences than professional group. Therefore, they had to use less CAs and less coordination and subordination. One CA which requires attention in our results is the additive CA *besides* which is present in the learner's data but not in the native corpus. This is in line with the findings of Chen (2006) and Li (2014). These researchers found that in their corpus none of the control group writers used the CA *besides* whereas the learners overused this CA. Milton and Tsang (1992) also found that *besides* is used excessively by university students in their study. Field and Yip (1992) hold that besides is an informal connector which is used more often in speech. Therefore, in written form, it should be avoided. The use of *besides* gives an unintended colloquial tone to the academic paper.Shen and Chen (2005) found that advanced Taiwanese EFL learners used *besides* in their writing which adds a colloquial tone to the academic genre. Field and Yip (1992) also found that besides is sometimes misused to weld together points which do not fit together coherently, which is another reason to avoid using *besides* in formal writing. The results of the current study point to the fact that Iranian EFL learners are not aware that the use of *besides* in academic genre is not register-appropriate.

Another problem pin pointed in the current study is the use of *therefore*, which according to Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999) is a frequently misused connector in the writing of EFL/ESL students. It is the second CA favored by Iranian writers at 25.2 CA per 1000 words. Some students in this corpus do not use *therefore* properly and use it to signal causal relationships where no logical link exists. Crews (1990) research on Hong Kong students revealed that the writers seem to be trying to impose surface logicality on a piece of writing where no deep logicality exists. Garton (1996) mentioned that when second language learners attempt to employ CAs to draw conclusions, they tend to over-generalize and overuse the cause-effect relationship inappropriately in situations where there may be no logical conclusion being drawn at all.

5. Conclusion And Implications

In this study, the student writers tended to overuse logical connectors at word level. In addition, a few problem areas were identified based on qualitative analysis of the data in the student corpus. One problem area relates to the use of besides; as this connector is used mainly in spoken language, its use in written academic genre should be warned against. Second language writing instructors need to engage in awareness-raising activities on register-sensitivity and differences in the use of some of the connectors. In EFL academic writing classes teachers need to bring to their students' attention how inappropriate use of sentence-initial conjunctive adverbials could affect their academic essays in a negative way. It is important for the teachers to bring to light those delicate nuances of connotations

and use that could lead to a better grasp of how these elements are used in sentence-initial position. To this end, teachers are advised to encourage the use of dictionaries in language classes.

Another problem is the use of connectors to connect a series of sentences together without establishing any logicality. As Crew holds, this overuse clutters up the text unnecessarily, and causes the thread of the argument to zigzag about, as each connective points it in a different direction. As a matter of fact EFL students need more instruction and training on the use of connectors. One area which could help students to write more appropriately is the use of corpora in language teaching contexts. Teachers may employ such corpora and concordancing tools in order to clarify how to use such sentence connectors.

This study is limited by the size of the two corpora. Although it is not clear how big of a corpus is large enough for such comparisons, future researchers may aim at collecting as many writing samples as possible for their analysis. Future researchers are advised to make use of bigger corpora in their studies in order to shed a wider light on the use pattern of connectors. Maybe bigger corpus sizes would yield different results. Also, future researchers are recommended to search for possible L1 transfer causes. Some of these use patterns could be traced back to the learners and writers L1 background. Another consideration is the definition of "overuse, underuse, and misuse". While this paper follows the previous literature by comparing frequency figures to determine the overall pattern of CAs usage, it does not define precisely what is meant by these terms. How should these terms be defined is a problem worthy of more future investigations.

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THE EFFECT OF SHADOW-READING ON RECALL OF LEXICAL ITEMS

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ABSTRACT
SWAIN'S OUTPUT THEORY HAS BEEN UNDER CLOSE SCRUTINY TO SEE IF IT CAN BE IMPLEMENTED TO FIND BETTER WAYS OF HELPING EFL LEARNERS LEARN AND WRITE BETTER. ALTHOUGH OUTPUT THEORY COMES TO BE EFFECTIVE, IT COULD NOT CAPTURE ALL THE FACTORS AFFECTING LEARNING LIKE CULTURAL AND SOCIAL INTERACTIONS. THE CURRENT STUDY AIMED TO IMPLEMENT SHADOW-READING AS A MEANS OF INTERNALIZATION OF MEANING WITHIN VYGOTSKYAN SOCIOCULTURAL THEORY. TO THIS END, 52 EFL LEARNERS FROM ISLAMIC AZAD UNIVERSITIES, ISFAHAN AND FALAVARJAN BRANCHES TOOK PART IN THE STUDY. THEY WERE CATEGORIZED INTO TWO GROUPS OF EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL. A STANDARD ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY TEST WAS ADMINISTERED TO THE LEARNERS. THEN, IN 10 SESSIONS, LEARNERS WERE PROVIDED WITH SHADOW READING STRATEGY IN WHICH THEY WERE TO REPEAT, REPRODUCE AND WRITE WHATEVER THEY COULD REMEMBER FROM THE ORIGINAL TEXT. THE RESULTS OF ONE-WAY MANCOVA REVEALED THAT THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP COULD OUTPERFORM THE CONTROL GROUP IN TERMS OF THE WORDS AND PROPOSITIONS PRODUCED PER MINUTE. THE RESULTS LENT SUPPORT TO THE IDEA THAT AN INTERACTIVE AND COOPERATIVE ENVIRONMENT COMING OUT OF SHADOWING COULD FACILITATE LEARNING. THE RESULTS CAN BE IMPLEMENTED BY TEACHERS AND CURRICULUM DESIGNERS.

KEY WORDS: OUTPUT THEORY, SHADOW-READING, VYGOTSKYAN SOCIOCULTURAL THEORY

1. Introduction

We learn language by producing it and this is a standing based on Swain's output theory. Considering Swain's output theory, many researchers have focused on the role that production can play in second/foreign language acquisition (e.g. Adams, 2003; Izumi, 2002; Hanaoka & Izumi, 2012; Storch, 2008). Furthermore, in many studies, scholars tried to find appropriate ways with which learners could take control over their own learning. However, many of the studies remain ineffective as teachers encounter wide range of learners around the world with their own unique social, psychological and cultural characteristics. This enforces teachers to find new ways of teaching and elaborate more on the mechanism of learning. For instance, Thwaites (2014) conducted a research and based on the results achieved, he proposed an iterative approach to promote learners' learning. He

asserts that many techniques might fall under the umbrella of "learning to write", a strategy firstly used by Manchon (2011) in which writing is considered to be playing a major role in language learning in general. Thwaites (2014) however asserts that "learning to write" is just the point of departure. He maintains that learning just starts when learners finish their writing tasks and try to compare their own writing with the original text. According to Thwaites (2014, p. 143), model texts (which are used when learners are provided with jigsaw tasks or some information from a story, and they are required to write a story and at last they compare their own writing with that original text or the reformulated text by an expert) and reformulations set in motion a process of analysis and reflection upon language. Thwaites makes use of "affordance" adopted from ecological approach to learning to refer to the process of analysis and reflection upon language, helping learners to deepen their awareness of the state of their L2 productive capacity. According to Thwaites, "affordance" offers new and unique possibilities for growth and development (2014, p. 134).

Considering Thwaites's view towards using process oriented writing to promote language learning, there seems to be some deficiencies at work. While Thwaites's (2014) concluding point in his approach towards leaning enhancement, is the matter of ecological affordances, he ignores the environmental factors which affect leaning including peers, experts and language classroom. One of these critical elements is the peer with his/her help in the tough process of learning becomes facilitated. Peers and experts can provide aid to learners' achievement as soil and light provide necessary conditions for the plant to grow. However, the mechanism through which this cooperation among learners can be actualized is an open area to research.

Due to paucity of empirical evidence in this regard, the current study examined the effect of shadow-reading strategy within the frame of Vygotskyan sociocultural theory. Vygotskyan approach to learning states that any knowledge and capacity in regulated activity appear always at first social level and only later it can be understood as psychological and intrapersonal level. According to Ortega (2009, p. 217):

Socioculturalism goes beyond social constructivism by positing that reality is not only a matter of interpretive construction but that is also radically collective and social, appropriated and transformed through relational knowledge. In other words, the individual mind finds the source of learning in social communities, learning is available in historical and social processes and emerges among agents in a given context. Only processes, events and activities are real, whereas structures and patterns are epiphenomenal to those processes. Thus reality is always processual and social and emerges anew each time and again out of specific interactions with the world, the word and others, always in situated contexts.

Shadow-reading is a classroom activity in which learners assist each other in reading an L2 text through interactive reading, repeating and summarizing (Guerrero & Commander, 2013). According to Murphey (2001, p. 4), repetition is the heart of shadow-reading which promotes "language learning and goes beyond the mere echoing of input material. Murphey believes that shadowing is a step between being other-regulated and self-regulated, at first it seems that we are under the control of others' language (other-regulated), but as we repeat their speech, we repeat their language and become able to control our output, as we fail to repeat accurately, we exert some control over the speaker.

Murphey (2001) mentions that conducting shadow reading studies helps better understanding of four areas of: task interpretation, promoting negotiation, psycholinguistic processing, and Vygotskyan socio-cultural theory. Regarding the fourth line of research, Murphey (1999) states that shadowing is not only a superficial imitation, but also it can have deep-level impact on motivation and identity, leading to the enriching of *Output hypothesis* as pointed out by Swain (1995). It seems that Vygotskyan Sociocultural theory came out as a complement to Swains' output theory. Then, shadow reading can be studied as a means of promoting production. As Murphey (2001, p. 20) contends, shadowing is related to Vygotskyan sociocultural theory in several ways:

1. the social, interactive nature of language acquisition and concept formation;
2. the idea of regulation or control as the learner passes from other- to self-regulation;
3. the zone of proximal development and scaffolding; and
4. private speech.

As stated above, the purpose of this study was to examine the effect of shadow-reading on recall of lexical items. To this end, the following research question was developed:

1) Does shadow-reading as a means of internalization of meaning affect the recall of lexical items among Iranian EFL learners?
2) Does shadow-reading as a means of internalization of meaning affect the recall of propositions among Iranian EFL learners?

Moreover, based on the above stated research questions, two null hypotheses have been formulated:
1) Shadowing has no effect on the words produced by Iranian EFL learners.
2) Shadowing has no effect on the propositions produced by Iranian EFL learners.

2. Literature review

In this part, firstly, you will read about Output theory proposed by Swain and its view towards learning. Then, shadow-reading will be introduced and discussed within Vygotskyan Sociocultural theory. Ultimately, this literature review deals with the main concern of writing classes, i.e. fluency in writing.

2. 1. Output Hypothesis

Output hypothesis, initially proposed by Swain (1998), asserts that for language learning to take place, output is a necessary condition. However, discussion over the role of output in learning has been controversial since enough experimental evidences are not at hand. Shehadeh, (2002) claims that there is not enough evidence in the output experiments while Izumi (2002), Adams (2003) and Hanaoka and Izumi (2012) provide evidence for the role that methods extracted from the output hypothesis plays in long term language acquisition. According to Thwaites, (2014), "Noticing measures" are those techniques used by researchers to monitor the effects of output-hypothesis-technique including note-taking and stimulated recall on learning. Thwaites maintains that output hypothesis role in language acquisition is self-evident. Swain (1998) summarises the three ways through which output hypothesis can influence language development:
1) *Forming and testing hypotheses*: producing output can help learners to try out theories about language and weigh them against evidence from the resulting feedback, such as whether or not they have been understood;
2) *Meta-talk*: Storch (2008, p. 68) claims that through output, learners can create new knowledge by communicating directly about their theories and beliefs regarding the language they are learning. They 'use language to reflect on language use' and their learning is consolidated as a result; and
3) *Noticing*: the production of output somehow primes learners to notice features of language (Thwaites, 2014, p. 136).
Schmidt and Frota (1986) present two ways in which *noticing* can take effect:
1) *Noticing 'holes'* in the learners' own output: in other words, the learner spontaneously finds out that s/he cannot express an idea, regardless of any feedback s/he might receive. This occurs when learners, in the act of producing an L2 utterance, notice that they do not know a particular L2 form; and
2) *Noticing gaps* between the learners' own production and that of an expert during situations in which a comparison is possible.
Output theoretically can promote learners' noticing in both senses. According to *Thwaites* (2014, p. 136) output plays two important roles: learners' awareness towards the limitations of their own productive capacity deepens and learners' sensitivity to the way others choose to express an idea will increase, so that they are primed to notice features of the input that follows. The main point in this regard is lack of empirical studies to support output effect, although it seems logical (Swain & Lapkin 1995, Hanaoka 2007, and Hanaoka & Izumi).
A study by Swain and Lapkin (1998) lends support to the idea that if learners are asked to recall and write what they have worked on; their progress in output will be significant. However, Adams (2003) discusses a problem with this experiment: it is not possible to clearly specify that learners' outperformance is the result of their attempts to make an output or the task repetition. Another criticism suggested by Hanaoka (2007) and Hanaoka and Izumi (2012) was whether learning acquired through this technique could be maintained over longer periods of time. According to *Thwaites (2014, 138),* Hanaoka and Izumi *applied some changes to their future studies in this way:*
Firstly, learners were asked to individually write a text using picture prompts (in this case, a 'before and after' picture story), rather than deriving content from a jigsaw task. Secondly, instead of using

stimulated recall to measure noticing, they were told to make notes on any problems that occurred to them as they were writing, such as uncertainty over a grammatical form or not knowing a particular word. Finally, some of the learners used pre-written model texts in place of reformulations during the comparison stage. These changes are important because they add to the stock of empirically tested techniques that teachers can draw on.

The results of Hanaoka and Izumi's study show that even after a two-month period, some learning can persist. They also claim that this task has targeted two types of problems: overt and covert:

An overt problem is one which the learner has attempted to solve, overtly attempting a solution in their text. For example, they use an item of vocabulary despite uncertainty over its usage. This means that a 'reformulator' could be expected to discover the problem and offer solutions. A 'covert' problem, in contrast, occurs when a learner decides to avoid expressing an idea because they are not sure how to put it across in the target language *(Thwaites, 2014, 138)*.

These results further have some practical and semi-theoretical implications:

1) It provides a task sequence for learning

2) Task sequence might include a set of sequenced activities—task repetition, comparison activities, strategizing attention to form in output and subsequent input, and the use of stimulated recall activities.

3) Long term learning is supported using this task.

4) This activity has helped learners in two ways: they can recognize the holes in their own production; they also become able to find the gaps between their own production and an expert's.

5) The results of Hanaoka and Izumi's and *Thwaites's* studies also support the existence of overt and covert problems and helps teachers to provide appropriate feedback to learners.

6) Learners could benefit from receiving feedback on their writing from their teachers

The model provided above has got some special traits, according to Hanaoka and Izumi (): it is cost effective in that it is not time and energy consuming, therefore, it can be used in many classes; it is also workable for learners with different levels of proficiency as they are to work individually (but this technique cannot be conducted in large classrooms). This task also exerts limits or constraints on learners so that they can restate the story they have just read and it does not require them to tell a story from their own memory. *Thwaites (2014, p.140) maintains that*

Generally, model texts may work well with groups who tend to avoid complex ideas or complain that they do not know what to write. On the other hand, learners who seem more inclined to try to express themselves without worrying too much about the mistakes they make might benefit more from reformulations.

From the above discussion, *Thwaites* (2014) concludes that for a writing task to be successful the following steps should be taken: 1) *a pre-task phase* like a jigsaw task or a whole-class discussion to make homogeneity among learners, 2) an *output phase* in which learners try to produce a piece of writing, 3) *a comparison phase* in which they compare their own writing with that of teachers or the model text, and 4) *a repetition phase* in which learners try to rewrite their texts without having the original in hand.

Shadowing and Sociocultural theory

From the output theory perspective, repetition phase can be exploited as a means of promoting writing ability among students, but the effect of social interactions and cooperative learning was not considered in conducting output-theory-based studies. Taking this gap into consideration, this study has focused on the effect of shadow reading on the recall of lexical items. Since shadowing is defined within the realm of cooperative learning and with support and assistance of a partner, we will take a look at it from the sociocultural theory window.

2. 2. Shadow-reading

Shadow-reading is a new instructional strategy in the field of second language acquisition. It is defined as the willingness to repeat silently or aloud what interlocutors or speakers themselves say. According to Murphey (2001, p. 4), repetition is the heart of shadow-reading which promotes "language learning and goes beyond the mere echoing of input material". In this view, shadow-reading is an interactive and meaningful type of imitation. When viewed from the perspective of sociocultural theory, it seems that imitation goes hand in hand with developing language learning. As Vygotsky asserts 'In the child's development… imitation and instruction play a major role' (Vygotsky, 1986, p. 188). SCT conceives of imitation as transformative activity involving a learner's

intelligent, intentional, and creative reproduction of someone else's mental operations (Vygotsky, 1986, 1998). As Murphey states (2001, p. 4):

In Vygotskyan theory, imitation constitutes the chief mechanism of internalization and a major component of developmental activity in the Zone of Proximal Development (hereafter ZPD). It is through interaction with an expert that the learner is capable of reproducing the expert's action by utilizing those functions that are in the process of maturing. Ultimately, imitation in joint activity with others is the basis for independent creative performance. Through imitative behavior, a learner not only appropriates model affordances but also transforms them and extends them to new contexts.

Vygotsky (1998) considers this transformative capacity for imitation which characterizes the ZPD as the 'zone of intellectual imitation' (p. 202), a zone which is not limitless but is bound by the learner's actual developmental level at any point in time: 'A person can imitate only that which is within her developmental level' (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 88).

ZPD is defined as 'the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with peers' (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86). Murphey (2001) relates the ZPD to shadowing in this way: "In conversational shadowing, the NS has a heightened awareness of the NNS's level because of more ample feedback and can potentially fine-tune the input while at the same time stretch the learner's limits." (p. 21). Murphey opens another episode on the way teaching shadowing could enhance and generate private speech. He claims that while some researchers including Lantolf assume that private speech in a foreign language has to spring forth naturally, "the exercise of silent and out loud shadowing might 'push' this internal private speech to realization much more quickly and nudge this foreign language internal dialogue into existence." (p. 22).

The last chain of Vygotskyan sociocultural theory according to Murphey is Bakhtin's idea of *ventriloquation*. Murphey maintains that:

Bakhtin proposed that in speaking we are assuming the voices of others, what he called ventriloquation. When many of these voices are combined with one's own creative way of using them he referred to it as heteroglossia. The shadowing of a speaker's speech would appear to be close-ventriloquation. To do it, one has to pay attention and reconstruct at least the audio input. Through progressive stages, personal meaning would be added to this reconstruction in many contexts and the items more fully appropriated. Then attention could pass to other, more novel items in the auditory environment in a process of selective shadowing. (p. 22).

He (ibid) continues:

When one shadows, one is identifying sounds and meaning. Through actually producing these sounds, one is also *identifying with* them and making them one's own. So while on the one hand we are assuming the voices of others, we are also adding to our own identities and *identifying with* the use of these new ways of communicating. Just listening can leave us relatively uninvolved with what we hear. Repeating what we hear brings it within us more deeply and reconstructing it in our own voice involves a deeper level of processing in the act of appropriation.

As stated by Murphey (2001, p. 21), as one shadows, one is modelling the language from another mind and trying to make sense out of it. When this shadowing is done out loud, the processing of the mind of the shadower is shown and the speaker can realize what is needed to help out the model-making and make adjustments that lead to more 'sense' making. Murphey (2001) believes that shadowing is a step between being other-regulated and self-regulated, at first it seems that we are under the control of others' language (other-regulated), but as we repeat their speech, we repeat their language and become able to control out output, as we fail to repeat accurately, we exert some control over the speaker.

Lantolf and Thorne (2006) claim that Vygotsky's concept of imitation is harmonious with the notion of persistent imitation proposed by Baldwin (1906, p. 126). For Baldwin, there exist two types of imitation: simple and persistent imitation. Simple imitation is an involuntary, sensori-motor reaction resulting in a more or less close copy of the original and not involving further attempts to approximate the model, and on the other hand persistent imitation entails a circular process of imitative attempts where each copy, immediately present in the environment or available from memory (mental copy), serves as model or stimulus for successive imitative reactions. In persistent imitation, the child tries 'by repetition, to improve his imitations. As Murphey (2001) states:

Persistent imitation reflects intentional, goal-directed cognitive activity and consists of repeated attempts to reproduce the model, each time in an effort to improve the reproduction on the basis of an image of the original model and the imitator's previous attempts. Persistent imitation is thus cyclical, deliberate, and potentially transformative (p. 4).

From sociocultural perspective, imitation is not equal to mindless copying and repetition, instead imitation involves understanding the goal (end, purpose, or result) of the activity and recognizing the means to attain this goal, these two aspects are absent in mimicry (Murphey, 2001, p. 5). In this regard, Tomasello (1999) believes that another person's action is 'imitated', rather than mimicked, when there is understanding of the intention or goal of the other and it is clear what the means is to obtain that goal. Then, imitation has the possibility of being transformed and used in new situations. Lantolf and Thorne (2006) point out that imitation can occur as immediate and rote repetition of a model or it can take place in deferred and expanded format (p. 170). Based on these conceptions, imitation can cover a broad range from a close copy of the original to a creative, transformative and transcendent means of production.

Tomasello (2002) maintains that in child language acquisition, linguistic imitation does not simply consist of 'repeating or mimicking the surface form of adult utterances. Rather, it is the attempt by children to reproduce the language adults produce and for the same communicative function' (p. 179). Linguistic imitation is constrained by two important principles: entrenchment and pre-emption (Tomasello, 2003). Entrenchment is achieved by constant exposure to linguistic models and successful use, using entrenchment learners become habituated to produce language only in ways that are similar to those produced by experts around them. In pre-emption, learners are motivated to understand why speakers use language in certain ways and not others, thus this avoids future (unacceptable, unconventional) overgeneralizations. Some researchers including Centeno-Cortés (2003), Lantolf (2003), Lantolf and Centeno-Cortés (2007), Lantolf and Yáñez (2003), Lantolf and Thorne (2006), and McCafferty (2008) have investigated the role of imitation in L2 learning from Vygotskyan sociocultural perspective. Sasaki and Takeuchi (2010) also find the imitation as a useful strategy to retain new words. Haught and McCafferty (2008) further have found that the second language learners are able to imitate and internalize not only verbal aspects of the drama leader's interpretation of the script – such as prosody, intonation, or particular lexical items – but also non-verbal features as well, such as gestures, proxemics, and gaze.

Moreover, Macqueen (2009) reports that imitation helps promote native-like lexogrammatical patterns. He investigated the process of imitation that takes place in the development of native-like such as collocations and colligations, in the written production of advanced EFL students. On the basis of Baldwin's, Vygotsky's and Arbib' theories of imitation, Macqueen (ibid) concluded that the process of learning L2 patterns is one of 'adaptive imitation', involving perception, deconstruction, experimentation, adaptation, and transformation (p. 235).

According to Leontiev (2003), in general terms, the text is considered understood if one can explain the idea of the text using his/her own words, i.e. using a paraphrase, a translation from one language to another, and a semantic compression of the essential content of the original text (e.g. summary, key-words, etc.). Appel and Lantolf's (1994) gained results support Vygotsky's idea on the importance of inner speech in the reading process and Leontiev's idea on paraphrasing in the comprehension process. Using Vygotskyan framework, Appel and Lantolf (1994) investigated the effects of verbalization on text comprehension. The learners were required to complete L1 and L2 text recall tasks to mediate understanding of written texts through speaking. As they encountered problems comprehending the text, they relied on private speech to help them make sense of the text. As Appel and Lantolf assert (1994, p. 438) "in the face of difficult tasks (cognitive, social, or emotional), adults have continuous access to ontogenetically prior knowing strategies [i.e., private speech, which originates in the egocentric speech of childhood] that allow them to maintain and regain control of their mental activity". They also point out that "engaging in the verbal reconstruction of a silently read discourse provides readers with the opportunity to remember and organize the text and thereby enhance their comprehension" (p. 449). Based on the results of their study, they conclude that at the presence or absence of others in the context, all of the activities that the participants have done are social (being it an inner speech or a communicative one). Leontiev (2003) introduced the new notion of "*the image of the text's content.*" He maintains that this is a dynamic understanding which is variable from one person to another and is not the final result of text comprehension but rather it represents the content component of text comprehension process. Leontiev (2003) believes that text

comprehension is a complex activity that includes perception. For him, perception of the text implies the same characteristics as perception of any other object. As reading a text, Leontiev (ibid) adds, we operate with what goes beyond the text, i.e. with the ever-changing real world which exists outside and comprises diverse events, situations, ideas, feelings, intentions, human values, etc. All the outside events and the world affect this perception. Bakhtin's (1986) definition of comprehension, "the correct reflection of reflection" is achieved when "the reader reaches the reflected object" (p. 484).

2. 3. Fluency in Writing

Fluency in writing has been a desire for many learners and has been sought for many years. It is obvious that fluency in writing differs from fluency in speaking, because fluency in speaking is easily noticed through the gaps, hesitations and disfluencies in their production while when written production is submitted, no one can understand how fluent the writer was. According to Waes and Leijten (2015), many L2 users become frustrated while speaking, although they may enjoy high levels of proficiency. This problem is also analysed by scholars like Berninger, Cartwright, Yates, Swanson and Abbott, (1994); McCutchen, Covill, Hoyne, and Mildes, (1994); Segalowitz, (2010). Kormos (2006, p. 163) presents a summary of the most frequently used measures of fluency in oral studies and ends up with ten measures, which can be classified as follows: (a) Pauses (e.g., total pause time, silent and filled pauses per minute, length of pauses), (b) Disfluencies (i.e., breakdown of fluency, indicated by e.g., repetitions, repairs), (c) Rate (e.g., speech and articulation rate; length of runs), and (d) Pace and Stress (e.g., number and proportion of stress words). MacArthur, Graham, and Fitzgerald (2008) further clearly state that fluent writing properties are identified by short pausing times, few revisions and a high production rate. Kellogg (2004) further asserts that initial planning leads to a decrease of cognitive effort in the transcription phase, positively influencing fluency. Kellogg (2004) introduces two measures to determine production rate: 1) *Fluency I:* the mean number of words in the transcription phase (i.e., total time on task minus initial planning time) and *2) Fluency II:* the gross time allotted to task. According to Waes and Leijten (2015, p. 81),

In general, the Fluency II-approach has resulted in more comprehensible and interpretable results, with 'number of word per minutes' being the most well-known measure of writing fluency nowadays… Not only the number of words per minute in the final text is an interesting measure of fluency, but also the number of words *produced* per minute (including revised words and characters). The former is a *product-based* measure, whereas the latter takes the *process* of writing into account, including revisions.

Many researchers (e.g. Leijten, De Maeyer, & Van Waes, 2011; VanWaes & Leijten, 2011; Van Waes, Leijten, Wengelin, & Lindgren, 2012; Wengelin, 2006) have pointed out that inter and intrapersonal variation might come to help us define a more appropriate measure for fluency. Waes and Leijten (2015) propose a multidimensional fluency approach with four components: 1) production, 2) process variance, 3) revision, and 4) pausing behavior.

In sum, the current study aimed to address writing fluency from a different point of view, using shadowing as a means of internalization of meaning within sociocultural theory, and see how this strategy could affect recall of lexical items and writing fluency, while learners had the opportunity to interact with their counterparts.

3. Methodology

3. 1. Participants

Participants of this study were 52 junior EFL learners from Islamic Azad University of Khorasgan and Falavarjan, Isfahan, Iran who were randomly assigned to experimental and control groups. They had not received any professional writing instruction before applying shadow reading strategy. Their age range was between 19 and 26 and all were born, raised, and were residing in Iran. They were all born to Persian parents. They were majoring in English as foreign language. Regarding their social class, the information gained from learners' background questionnaire showed that all of them belonged to middle-class families and some of them held non-professional part-time jobs. The information was gathered using a demographic questionnaire which took them about 20 minutes to fill out.

3. 2. Instruments

In the very beginning session, an Oxford Placement Test (2004) was conducted as a means of proficiency measurement. Then, the learners took a memory retention test.

Ten reading passages with roughly 120 to 130 words were also selected for applying the shadow reading in ten sessions. The texts were designed in two paragraphs so that the reader and shadower could practice on approximately the same number of words.
After applying the shadow reading in ten sessions, the 'number of words per minute' which is the most well-known measure of writing fluency nowadays (Waes & Leijten, 2015, p. 81) was used to calculate the number of words produced by the learners.

3. 3. Procedures

This study was run in the second semester of 2014 academic year in Islamic Azad University of Khorasgan and Falavarjan branches. First of all, a memory retention test was given to 65 EFL learners, in which they had to listen to sentences read by the instructor and then write what they remembered from the sentences. The outliers with extraordinary ability to recall the items were excluded from the data set. Then, 52 EFL junior students age-ranged from 19 to 26 were assigned to two groups of experimental and control. The experimental group received shadowing strategy in a writing course, while the control group class was run in traditional way. In the first session of the semester, an OPT test of proficiency was conducted to both groups to assure that all the participants were at similar level of proficiency. This test took about an hour.
From the second session on, shadow reading strategy was adopted as a reading comprehension strategy and the learners were taught how it worked, i.e. they had to find a partner for themselves as one took the role of reader, the other got the shadower's role and they practiced it to learn how to read and shadow. The instructor firstly read the text and emphasized the unknown words pronunciation and definition. As the text was introduced, the learners began their tasks. Firstly, the learners were paired up on their own interest without any enforcement from the instructor. In each session, a passage including 120 to 130 words were distributed and the readers were required to read the passage word by word and the shadower was required to repeat what s/he heard three times (out loud, low voice repetition, and silent (subvocally). Then, in the second phase of the study, the reader read the text sentence by sentence and the shadower just told what s/he remembered from the sentence without looking at the text. In the third run of the study, the reader read the whole paragraph and the shadower tried to remember what s/he had heard without looking at the text. After this phase of the study, the learners were required to write down what they could remember from the text. They were required to summarise what they understood from the text. Then, their role was switched and the reader then became a shadower for the second paragraph. This process went on for 10 sessions. In the last session of the semester, the learners' written texts were analysed using 'words per minute' and 'propositions per minute'. Then the produced words and propositions produced in a minute from the first and last sessions were calculated for each learner, they were compared using MANCOVA analysis test. Preliminary assumptions including the issues of unequal sample sizes, normality and homogeneity of variances were examined and the results showed no violations of assumptions.

4. Results

Table 1. tabulates the descriptive data for words and propositions per minute for the experimental and control group. As this table shows, in both the word and proposition counting, the experimental group (M= 14.8 words, and 8.69 propositions) has outperformed the control group, which clearly indicates the potent effect of shadowing on the learners' production.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics

	group2 exp. group1 control	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
word per minute immediate last session	1	9.27	2.442	26
	2	14.81	3.731	26
	Total	12.04	4.191	52
proposition per minute immediate last session	1	4.88	1.366	26
	2	8.69	2.396	26
	Total	6.79	2.725	52

As tabulated in table 2, Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances shows no significant difference between two groups of the experimental and the control group before exploiting shadowing.

Table 2, Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variancesa

	F	df1	df2	Sig.
word per minute immediate last session	2.280	1	50	.112
proposition per minute immediate last session	1.087	1	50	.120

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + OPT + WPMIM1 + PPMIM1 + group

According to Table 3, a one-way MANCOVA revealed a significant multivariate main effect for shadow reading [Wilks' Lambda=.50, *F* (2, 46) = 22.28, p value =.000, and multivariate partial eta squared (η2) =.44.57]. Multivariate Tests for two groups clearly state that OPT had not any effect to mediate the role of shadowing in the written production of EFL learners. However, Wilks' Lambda has got the value of .50 with a probability value of .000 (which means p<.01). Therefore, the null hypothesis indicating that there is no difference between the two groups after applying shadowing is rejected and there is a statistically significant effect for shadow reading. This suggests that there was a change in the recalling scores of word counting and proposition number after applying the shadow reading.

Table 3. Multivariate Tests

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Powerc
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.122	3.187b	2.000	46.000	.051	.122	6.374	.582
	Wilks' Lambda	.878	3.187b	2.000	46.000	.051	.122	6.374	.582
	Hotelling's Trace	.139	3.187b	2.000	46.000	.051	.122	6.374	.582
	Roy's Largest Root	.139	3.187b	2.000	46.000	.051	.122	6.374	.582
OPT	Pillai's Trace	.027	.644b	2.000	46.000	.530	.027	1.289	.151
	Wilks' Lambda	.973	.644b	2.000	46.000	.530	.027	1.289	.151
	Hotelling's Trace	.028	.644b	2.000	46.000	.530	.027	1.289	.151
	Roy's Largest Root	.028	.644b	2.000	46.000	.530	.027	1.289	.151
WPMIM1	Pillai's Trace	.055	1.336b	2.000	46.000	.273	.055	2.672	.274
	Wilks' Lambda	.945	1.336b	2.000	46.000	.273	.055	2.672	.274
	Hotelling's Trace	.058	1.336b	2.000	46.000	.273	.055	2.672	.274
	Roy's Largest Root	.058	1.336b	2.000	46.000	.273	.055	2.672	.274
PPMIM1	Pillai's Trace	.011	.261b	2.000	46.000	.771	.011	.522	.089
	Wilks' Lambda	.989	.261b	2.000	46.000	.771	.011	.522	.089
	Hotelling's Trace	.011	.261b	2.000	46.000	.771	.011	.522	.089
	Roy's Largest Root	.011	.261b	2.000	46.000	.771	.011	.522	.089

group	Pillai's Trace	.492	22.287b	2.000	46.000	.000	.492	44.574	1.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.508	22.287b	2.000	46.000	.000	.492	44.574	1.000
	Hotelling's Trace	.969	22.287b	2.000	46.000	.000	.492	44.574	1.000
	Roy's Largest Root	.969	22.287b	2.000	46.000	.000	.492	44.574	1.000

a. Design: Intercept + OPT + WPMIM1 + PPMIM1 + group
b. Exact statistic
c. Computed using alpha = .05

Table 4. tabulates Tests of Between-Subjects Effects. The results show significant difference between two sets of scores coming out of the effect of shadowing on word and proposition counting with probability value (.000) less than .05. Thus, first and second hypotheses, stating that there is no statistically significant difference between the groups in terms of both words counting and proposition number were rejected.

Table 4. Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Powerc
Corrected Model	word per minute immediate last session	503.173a	4	125.793	15.054	.000	.562	60.214	1.000
	proposition per minute immediate last session	199.420b	4	49.855	13.072	.000	.527	52.288	1.000
Intercept	word per minute immediate last session	54.360	1	54.360	6.505	.014	.122	6.505	.705
	proposition per minute immediate last session	11.436	1	11.436	2.999	.090	.060	2.999	.396
OPT	word per minute immediate last session	5.823	1	5.823	.697	.408	.015	.697	.129
	proposition per minute immediate last session	.003	1	.003	.001	.979	.000	.001	.050
WPMIM1	word per minute immediate last session	12.616	1	12.616	1.510	.225	.031	1.510	.226
	proposition per minute immediate last session	.023	1	.023	.006	.939	.000	.006	.051

PPMIM1	word per minute immediate last session	.024	1	.024	.003	.958	.000	.003	.050
	proposition per minute immediate last session	1.177	1	1.177	.309	.581	.007	.309	.085
Group	word per minute immediate last session	319.963	1	319.963	38.290	.000	.449	38.290	1.000
	proposition per minute immediate last session	149.669	1	149.669	39.243	.000	.455	39.243	1.000
Error	word per minute immediate last session	392.750	47	8.356					
	proposition per minute immediate last session	179.253	47	3.814					
Total	word per minute immediate last session	8432.000	52						
	proposition per minute immediate last session	2775.000	52						
Corrected Total	word per minute immediate last session	895.923	51						
	proposition per minute immediate last session	378.673	51						

a. R Squared = .562 (Adjusted R Squared = .524)
b. R Squared = .527 (Adjusted R Squared = .486)
c. Computed using alpha = .05

4. Discussion and Conclusion

As stated before, Vygotskyan Sociocultural theory could be considered as a complement to Swains' (1995) Output Theory. An empirical study was just needed to lend support to this claim, and the findings of this study shows that output can be strengthened and promoted by potent and effective means of shadowing on the basis of sociocultural theory. As Murphey (2001, p. 20) contends, shadowing is related to Vygotskyan sociocultural theory in several ways:

1. the social, interactive nature of language acquisition and concept formation;
2. the idea of regulation or control as the learner passes from other- to self-regulation;
3. the zone of proximal development and scaffolding; and
4. private speech.

This study; however, could add one more feature to the above-mentioned issues that shadowing is related to sociocultural theory. Shadowing came to improve leaners' written production rate. This can be attributed to the fact that shadowing could mediate the relationship between one's ZPD and the social-material environment. This shows that our mental activities are under the direct effect of our interactions with environment. This paves the way for the teachers, learners and also curriculum designers to have a more fruitful class in writing. The shadow reading strategy can be implemented as a part of the curriculum, if we are seeking for a significant advancement in our learners' writing ability.

Unlike models proposed within output theory (e.g. Hanaoka & Izumi), shadowing is not cost effective because it takes much energy and time, but regarding its deep effects on learners' performance and the production rate, it can be considered as a main means of promoting writing and learning. Furthermore, the results of this study indicate that using shadowing helps the learners in that many learners have not any idea about what to write and this is the main problem that learners are struggled with. To put it in Thwaites's words, shadowing helps learners to express themselves without worrying too much about their mistakes and about what to say. This strategy significantly reduces learners' fear and anxiety while interacting (as they read and repeat the text) and simultaneously it mitigates their anxiety while writing because they experience no fear of the possible mistakes, since they have done something orally in the presence of some peers and now it is simpler to transcribe their thoughts on a piece of paper. To put in Murphey's (2001, p. 4) words, shadowing can help learners improve the reproduction on the basis of an image of the original model and the imitator's previous attempts.

Shadowing can also provide teachers with a highly practical and sequenced lesson plan, with its unique and interesting sections. In these sections, learners do not feel fatigued, because this type of "writing to learn" is not a merely writing practice; before writing, they experience an exciting reading text in three phases (out loud, low voice and silent reading). This makes a link between their current state of knowledge with that potential status (ZPD) and as the results show that these interactions (between peers, learners and instructor, and current level of knowledge and the potential) lead to more written production, less anxiety and a better performance supporting Vygotskyan sociocultural theory's role in learning .

The results of this study not only support Thwaites's findings in that ecological factors promote learning, but also prove that interactionally, cooperatively and communicatively educational environment will help learners to learn better, to write better and to recall better in terms of the requirements of English structures. This also lends support to Vygotskyan approach to learning.

As was seen, the results of this study indicate that shadow-reading can work as a helpful means of facilitating the relationship between the ZPD and written production, which results in better production. It seems that shadowing can be of much interest to learners, since it makes an interactive, cooperative and pleasing environment which mitigates the arduous and sometimes burdensome conditions of writing classes. Then, it seems that it is the time to implement the shadow-reading as a new and effective strategy in the foreign language classes to promote learners' achievement in terms of production.

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THE MEDIATION OF MOBILE APPLICATION IN BOOSTING THE VOCABULARY LEARNING OF UPPER-INTERMEDIATE EFL LEARNERS: ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES

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ABSTRACT
IN THE MODERN WORLD, MOBILE PHONES AS NEW INFORMATION SOURCES AND COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGIES HAVE PROVIDED UNIQUE WAYS TO HELP LEARNERS IN THE PROCESS OF LANGUAGE LEARNING. GIVEN THE IMPORTANCE OF VOCABULARY, THIS STUDY THUS INVESTIGATED THE EFFECT OF MOBILE APPLICATIONS ON EFL LEARNERS' VOCABULARY LEARNING. ALSO, THE ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF MOBILE APPLICATIONS FOR VOCABULARY LEARNING WERE INQUIRED ABOUT. TO THIS END, ONE HUNDRED UPPER-INTERMEDIATE UNIVERSITY STUDENTS PARTICIPATED IN THIS STUDY. ADMINISTERING A PRETEST, THE NEXT PHASE WHICH WAS MOBILE APPLICATION EXPERIMENT STARTED. DURING THE EXPERIMENT WHICH LASTED FOR FOUR WEEKS, THE PARTICIPANTS IN THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP WERE EXPECTED TO USE 504 VOCABULARY ITEMS SOFTWARE INSTALLED ON THEIR MOBILE PHONES TO DO ALL VOCABULARY LEARNING ACTIVITIES. MEANWHILE, THE CONTROL GROUP WORKED WITH THE 504 VOCABULARY BOOK, PRINTED-VERSION. AT THE END OF THE EXPERIMENT, THEY WERE GIVEN A VOCABULARY TEST TO SEE WHETHER MOBILE APPLICATION BOOSTED THE VOCABULARY LEARNING OF UPPER-INTERMEDIATE UNIVERSITY STUDENTS. FOLLOWING THE POSTTEST, 15 STUDENTS WERE INTERVIEWED TO EXPRESS THEIR VIEWS REGARDING MERITS AND DEMERITS OF MOBILE APPLICATIONS THEN, THEIR PRE- TEST AND POST- TEST SCORES WERE COMPARED USING AN INDEPENDENT T-TEST. RESULTS OF T-TESTS RUN REVEALED THAT THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP STUDENTS SIGNIFICANTLY OUTPERFORMED THE CONTROL GROUP IN TERMS OF VOCABULARY LEARNING. ALSO, PARTICIPANTS EXPRESSED THAT EFFICIENCY, PORTABILITY AND CONVENIENCE ARE THE ADVANTAGES AND , ON THE OTHER HAND, SMALL SCREEN SIZE, LIMITED BATTERY LIFE AND LIMITED MEMORY SIZE ARE THE DISADVANTAGES OF MOBILE APPLICATIONS. THE FINDING OF THE STUDY UNDERSCORED THE VITAL ROLE OF MOBILE PHONES IN VOCABULARY LEARNING. ALSO, THIS STUDY HAS SOME IMPLICATIONS FOR SYLLABUS DESIGNERS, LANGUAGE TEACHERS AND EFL STUDENTS TO GET HELP FROM TECHNOLOGY IN VOCABULARY LEARNING.

KEY WORDS: MOBILE APPLICATION, VOCABULARY LEARNING

Introduction

Vocabulary learning is a basic component of foreign language acquisition. According to Wilkins 1972 "without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing at all can be conveyed" (p , 111). Learning new vocabulary as the building block of language is considered to be a fundamental part of foreign language learning (Knight, 1997). However, the best means of achieving good vocabulary is still unclear, partly because it depends on a wide variety of factors. An abundance of evidence from some researchers suggested that one of the technologies that can be used to help learners in learning a foreign language is mobile phone. This technology has brought a new type of language learning called Mobile Assisted Language Learning. (Thrnton & Houser, 2005; Chinnery, 2006). According to the Kukulska- Hulme and Shield (2013), MALL can be defined as "the use of technologies such as mobile phones, MP3/MP4 players, PDAs and palmtop computers for language learning" (p.3). MALL is the use of mobile technology to teaching and learning that stresses learner-centered classroom and learner autonomy. Mobile phones are dominant in students' lives and can provide ways for students to learn English at any time and any place. It extends teaching and learning outside of the walls of the classroom. Many features of mobile phones, which have been mainly used in language learning, include Short Message Service (SMS), recording voice services, email services and java dictionaries. However, some applications and their role in language learning have been neglected. One application is 504 Software. Vocabulary learning is crucially important for foreign language learners' fluent communicative ability (Oxford, 1990). Therefore, enlarging English vocabulary is of great significance in English learning . EFL learners in Iran face the challenge of lacking exposure to English vocabulary since for the majority of them; the English class is the only time to use English. Because of the inadequate class time, students do not have the opportunity to speak and use all of the words in English classes (Motallebzadeh & Ganji, 2011). In such conditions, there are some problems for language teachers and learners. Teachers usually face the difficulty of teaching a large number of vocabulary items in the limited time of classroom hours. Here, there seems an urgent need to find an effective self-study approach for students to enlarge their vocabulary size outside classroom hours. (Alemi & Lari, 2013). Teachers should make them responsible for their own learning outside the classroom. Furthermore, some Iranian students are bored to learn vocabulary items through papers, books, and dictionaries. One of the ways that can help teachers and learners in teaching and learning of a large number of vocabulary items is using different technologies available to students. (Alemi & Lari, 2013).

With the inevitable integration of mobile technology into our lives and to justify learners' needs in learning English vocabulary items, it seems that mobile applications play an important role (Grace, 1998). Mobile learning is an effective method; it can overcome restrictions of time and space, enabling learners to learn vocabulary at any time and any place. Besides, mobile applications offer a wide range of learning tools such as downloading educational audio/video files into their mobile devices and helping language learners to manage their spare time more efficiently. This is why the use of mobile applications might increase the Iranian students' motivation and facilitate their success in vocabulary learning. Therefore, this study, aims to implement a complementary learning aid to solve the learners' vocabulary learning problems. In spite of the fact that the use of mobile applications has been on the rise during the last few years, it seems to the researchers' best knowledge that very limited research has been undertaken so far to evaluate the effect of mobile applications on vocabulary learning. Few studies investigated " students' personal use of mobile applications for learning and learning benefits"(Steel, 2012, p, 1). Moreover, there might be a serious lack of research on the issue of mobile applications in the Iranian language teaching and learning context (Dashtestani, 2013). In an attempt to fill the niche that currently exist in the literature, the researchers aimed to examine the effect of mobile applications on the vocabulary learning of Iranian EFL Learners. As a result, the researcher tried to show some ways of implementing and integrating mobile phones into the language classroom. Thus the present study sought to investigate the following research questions:

1. Are there any statically significant discrepancies between exposure to Mobile application vocabulary learning and traditional vocabulary learning?
2. What are the advantages and disadvantages of vocabulary learning via mobile applications?

Literature review

Mobile learning can be defined as the acquisition of any knowledge and skill through using mobile device, anywhere and anytime (Geddes, 2004). A mobile device is "any device that is small, autonomous and unobtrusive enough to accompany us in every moment". (Trifanova & Ronchetti,

2003, p.3).As Cook (2010) noted focus of mobility on learning is on the use of mobile devices for learning outside the classroom. Among all modern communication devices, mobile phones have gained more attention due to their ubiquity and their applications in education (Miangah & Nezarat, 2010).In the study conducted in Iran, Tayebinik (2012) investigated mobile learning to support teaching English, has highlighted the application of a variety of mobile devices in the field of TESL. She noted that mobile devices have become a part of our life. Related literature has determined the adoption of this technology by language teachers. The portability and high access of mobile devices have made it very prevalent in educational field.Studies on using mobile phones in education revealed that students consider mobile phones as useful learning devices and using such devices can enhance students' personal interest. In addition, they help students learn school subjects better.

Researchers have studied several aspects of mobile learning. Some studies, (Kukulska-Hulme & Shield, 2008; Wixom & Todd, 2005), as cited in Pollara and Kee Broussard (2011) have focused on defining mobile learning while others have focused on the outcome of using these mobile devices for language learning (reviewed by Pollara & Kee Broussard, 2011). Mobile phones are effective devices for language learning, (e.g. Rosell &Aguilar, 2007; FallahKhair, 2012; Pemberton & Griffiths, 2007), have positive effect on the development of language skills (e.g., Chen & Chung, 2011) and enhance learners' language learning attitudes and motivation (e.g., Hang & Lin, 2012). Mobile technologies provide EFL learners with additional exposure to target content anytime, anywhere. Mobile devices have numerous advantages for vocabulary learning. Recently, a few studies have investigated the pedagogical use of mobile phones for vocabulary learning. The projects (Thornton & Houser, 2005; Ghorbandordinejad et al.Baleghizadeh and Oladrostam 2010; Lu, 2008; Zhang et al.,2011) integrating text message and vocabulary learning were generally well received. Students learn more effectively when exposed to spaced-repetition of vocabulary than massed repetition. There are numerous aspects of mobile phones, which have been studied in vocabulary learning. These aspects can be classified into: PDAs, SMS, Mobile Dictionaries and Email.

In a study, Lu (2008) investigated the usefulness of SMS on thirteen high school students vocabulary retention. In the first week of a two-week experiment, one group received 14 target words via SMS and the other group received the same words on paper. In the second week the two groups changed their media that is mobile group became paper group and the paper group became mobile group. At the end of each week, an immediate posttest, and three weeks later a delayed posttest was conducted. In the same line, Baṣoglu & Akdemir (2010) conducted a comparative study of vocabulary learning with mobile phones and with paper flashcards. The experimental group used the vocabulary program on the phones to study the target words while the control group worked on the same words on paper flashcards during the same time span. Their findings indicated that "vocabulary learning programs on mobile phones improved students' acquisition of English vocabulary more than traditional vocabulary learning tool, flash cards" (p. 6).In a study conducted in Iran, Alemi and Lari (2012) explored the difference between long term and short-term retention of words learnt via SMS. In addition, it assessed difference between the short and long term retention of vocabularies learnt via SMS and those learnt by using dictionary. In their study before the start of the experiment and in order to assess participants, vocabulary knowledge, they were administered a vocabulary test. During the experiment, which lasted for 16 weeks (a complete semester), the participants in the experimental group received 320 vocabularies from the headwords of academic word list (Coxhead, 2000), their definitions (both Persian and English) as well as example sentences on a regular basis two times a week via SMS. The participants of the control group were provided with the same academic vocabulary and were asked to learn them with dictionary. The class assessment for both groups was based on the words of the Academic Word List. Finally, the findings showed that the participants mean scores were higher in posttest compared to pretest. The result of t-test shows that the SMS had a significant effect on their vocabulary learning. In order to assess the effect of SMS on participants' vocabulary retention, the experimental group had higher mean scores in delayed posttest compared to posttest, so the experimental group performed significantly better in the delayed posttest than the posttest. In the other study conducted in Iran, Amirian and Zare (2013) investigated the effect of Java mobile dictionaries on EFL students' vocabulary learning. To this end, the researchers divided forty intermediate Iranian EFL learners into experimental and control group. Both groups, initially, took the pretest designed based on the vocabulary in the course book, Touchstone 3. While the experimental group received three java mobile dictionaries and installed them on their mobile phones, the control group attended conventional classes without any additional tool. Experimental

group took the advantage of their mobile dictionaries throughout the course looking up the meaning of unknown words. After the treatment both groups firstly filled out questionnaire, which would elicit the learners' attitude toward java mobile dictionaries. Then, they took the posttest. Findings showed that the experimental group students significantly outperformed their control group in EFL vocabulary learning. Moreover, participants demonstrate positive attitudes toward MALL that more technology- based tasks and activities will definitely contribute to Better vocabulary learning. In the same line Rahimi and Miri (2014) investigated the impact of Mobile Dictionary use on Language learning. Thirty-four lower-intermediate language learners participated in a pretest-posttest quasi-experimental study. During the treatment, the experimental group used a dictionary installed on their mobile phones to do all their activities. Meanwhile, the control group worked with the printed version of the same dictionary. A teacher-made achievement test was used as the pre- and post-test. The result showed that, while controlling for the level language ability, the experimental group outperformed the control group in the post-test.

As the literature clearly depicted, although many studies related to mobile phones use in Language learning were carried out, there are still steps to take probing areas which have not received as much attention as they observe. One of such areas is the mobile Applications in language learning. In this respect, the current study was designed to determine the effectiveness of mobile applications in vocabulary learning.

Method

Participants

An original population of 140 EFL students from Payam-noor University in Sirjan, were selected based on an availability sampling procedure to participate in this study. A TOEFL test was administered to homogenize the students. Having administered a homogeneity test, the researcher could finally select one hundred students for the purpose of this study. The participants were assigned to two experimental (25 male and 25 female) and control groups (25 male and 25 female) based on their choice to work with mobile phones. The sample was comprised of fifty female and fifty male students, identical in number. The participants in this research, with an age range of 19 to 22, were in the upper-intermediate level, based on their performance on the placement test. The only difference between the groups was the provision of mobile application to the experimental group.

Instruments

To fulfill the purposes of the current study, the following instruments were applied:

Placement test: a TOEFL test consisting of 75 questions was administered to screen the students and homogenize them based on their level of proficiency before experiment was launched. The allocated time for answering the test was 75 minutes. After administering the TOEFL test, those students who scores fell one standard deviation below and above the mean were chosen as the valid sample of this study and were voluntarily assigned to the experimental and control groups.

Pre-test and Post-test: In order to assess the participants' level of achievement throughout the research, a vocabulary test was developed by the researcher. The participants took the test before and after the treatment as the pretest and posttest. The researcher randomly selected 8 units of 504 Book for this study. The words (N=96) were extracted from 8 units from the 504 absolutely essential words. These words were delivered to the participants of the two groups for learning through different kinds of media, by the book and 504 Software. Both groups were pre-tested on their vocabulary knowledge prior to the study and after finishing the treatment were post-tested to see the effect of mobile applications on their vocabulary learning. Due to the long interval between the pre-test and post-test, the same test was used as the post-test at the end of treatment but in order to minimize the effect of memorization, the order of the items were changed for the posttest. The best time to the participants based on the pilot test was determined to be twenty minutes. Before any instruction, 30 vocabulary items were administered to 15 students for the purposes of the pilot study. Based on the performance of the participants, the item analysis was performed and 10 items were omitted. The internal consistency of the test was calculated using Cronbach's Alpha 0/85 after item analysis. The item facility and item discrimination indexes were 0.48 and 0.52 respectively, which are acceptable values. To determine the validity of the test, the researcher asked 3 experts to pass their comments on the content of the test. Therefore, some items were deleted and some items were revised. The pilot test with twenty items was administered to one hundred students as pre-test and post-test.

504 Software and 504 Book: The 504 Software is a mobile application, which can be installed in diverse mobile phones. The distinguished feature of the 504 is that it is not only an application but also has some aids for vocabulary memorization. The 504 Software provides the text and the meanings of the words to assist word memorization. The screen was divided into three main sections. When a word is displayed on the screen, the learner can read the word by his/her self from phonetic symbols or can click the button on the right top of the screen to listen to the pronunciation of the word. In the second section, Persian explanation is given to help learners understand the word. In the third section, three sentences is given to provide a context that the word can be used. The experimental group used the 504 Software, mobile version for four weeks. The control group used the 504 Book.

Interview: In order to gather data about the advantages and disadvantages of mobile application for vocabulary learning, fifteen interviews were conducted with purposively selected participants from the experimental group and they were recorded using the digital voice recorder. The interview was designed to answer to the second research question. The interviews were conducted with the students individually and face to face. Each interview lasted between fifteen to twenty minutes. Each interview was recorded and transcribed. Three university professors validated the content of the interview questions. All participants gave their verbal consent to the recording of their interviews. The participants' names are not real; the researcher used pseudo-names for the participants.

Procedure

In order to accomplish its goals, this study used two groups each consisting of fifty participants. Before the application, participants met with the researcher. They were given a brief introduction to the program, its objectives, and its methods. The researcher explained the instruction of the program to participants, how to move from one section to another and how to use 504 Software in their smart phones. All these procedures were also conducted in the control group with the only absence of mobile application outside and inside the classroom. Before the start of the experiment and in order to assess participant's vocabulary knowledge, they were administered a pretest and then, the next stage of the study started. During the experiment which lasted for four weeks, the participants in the experimental group were expected to use 504 Software installed on their mobile phone to do all vocabulary learning activities. Meanwhile, the control group worked with the 504 Book and they were expected to use the traditional vocabulary learning techniques. Moreover, the researcher made sure that the control group participants did not have access to this application on their smart phones during the treatment phase. At the end of treatment post-test was given to both groups to see the effects of mobile application on their vocabulary learning.

After the quantitative part of the study, qualitative data were collected using semi- structured interview questions. The interview took place in the Payam-Noor University, Sirjan, Iran. The interview lasted between fifteen to twenty minutes and all interview were audio –taped and then transcribed. It was semi-structured with the following open-ended questions:

1. What are the advantages of use of mobile applications for vocabulary learning?
2. What are disadvantages of use of mobile applications for vocabulary learning?

Results

The first research question of this study inquired into the effect of mobile application on the vocabulary learning of Iranian EFL university students. An Independent-sample Test was carried out to answer this research question. Before discussing the results of this analysis, the descriptive statistics of participants' vocabulary scores in the two target and control groups in both pre-test and post-test were computed and set forth in Table 1. The table indicates that the mean and standard deviation of the two target (M = 7.54, SD = 3.54) and control (M = 7.36, SD = 3.86) groups are not far from each other in pre-test of vocabulary. But the results revealed that the students in the target group (M = 14.84, SD = 3.19) outscored their counterparts in the control group (M = 13.02, SD = 3.06) in the post-test of vocabulary.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics of Two Group's Scores on the Pre-test and Post-test of Vocabulary

Source	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Pre-test	Target	50	7.54	3.54
	Control	50	7.36	3.86
Post-test	Target	50	14.84	3.19
	Control	50	13.02	3.06

The results of Independent sample Test to compare to compare two target and control groups' vocabulary scores on pre-test of vocabulary are represented in Table 1. According to the table, the hypothesis of equal of variances was met because the Sig., .62 in Levene's Test was greater than .05.

Table 2
Independent Samples Test to Compare Two Groups' Scores on the Pre-test of Vocabulary

Levene's Test for Variances			*T*-test for Means			
	F	*Sig.*	*T*	*df*	*Sig.* (2-tailed)	Mean Diff.
Equal variance assumed	.237	.627	.242	98	.809	.180

Independent Samples Test results as appeared in Table 2 showed that there was no statistically significant difference in mean scores between the two groups in the pre-test of vocabulary, $t_{(98)} = .24$, $p = .80$, $p > .05$, in which the *t*-observed, .24 was less than the *t* critical, 2.00, and the *p* value, .80 was more than the selected significant level for this study, .05; consequently we could conclude that the two groups were homogeneous considering vocabulary knowledge before experiencing any treatment.

Additionally, the researcher performed another analysis of Independent Samples Test to compare two groups' vocabulary scores in the post-test of vocabulary, and the related results are laid out in Table 2. The table shows that the Sig., .64 in Levene's Test was larger than .05 and therefore the assumption of equal of variances was met.

Table 3
Independent Samples Test to Compare Two Groups' Scores on the Post-test of Vocabulary

Levene's Test for Variances			*T*-test for Means			
	F	*Sig.*	*t*	*df*	*Sig.* (2-tailed)	Mean Diff.
Equal variance assumed	.219	.641	2.911	98	.004	1.820

Table 3 manifests that Independent Samples Test detected a statistically significant difference in vocabulary scores between the two target and control groups, ($t_{(58)} = 2.91$, $p = .004$, $p < .05$, in which the *t* value, 2.91 exceeded the *t* critical, 2.00, and the *p* value, 004 was lower than the selected significant level for this study, .05; as a result, the second null hypothesis as "Mobile application does not affect the vocabulary learning of Iranian EFL university students" was rejected. So it can be claimed that application of mobile influences the vocabulary learning of Iranian EFL university students. In fact the two groups scored significantly different on the final test of vocabulary.

Data from the interview: The data was gathered from fifteen participants then reported and interpreted in the following way:

What are the advantages of mobile applications for vocabulary learning?

The results of interview showed that the majority of participants believed that learning vocabulary through mobile applications is convenient and efficient. It encourages them to make full use of fragmented time. Also, they can learn vocabulary at anytime and anywhere. Participants appreciated the convenience of using mobile applications to meet their personal vocabulary learning needs that suited their life styles. Mobile devices allow students to gather access and process information outside and inside the classroom. Here are some examples of what they said:

Sara
Learning vocabulary with a mobile phone allows me to take advantage of fragmented time because I bring my mobile phone almost everywhere and at any time."

Marjan
Sometimes, when travelling in the bus or subway, I can read the vocabulary in my phone and to remember them. In a word, it can help me to make use of leisure time to learn vocabulary."

Reza
"As I carry my phone all the time, increasing chances are there for me to learn vocabularies at my convenience."

The results also showed that some of interviewees thought that portability is another advantage of mobile applications for vocabulary learning. They referred to the fact that mobile phones are light and small and they require little space to be kept and easy to be carried that increased their access to the applications. It appeared that the finding indicated that participants found mobile apps easy to use and accessible anywhere and anytime. Negar, Mehdi and Ashkan for examples said portability:

Negar
"Mobile phones are small and can be carried very easily just unlike heavy books and dictionaries. So, I can benefits from this advantage of mobile phones to vocabulary learning."

Mehdi
"I think being portable is a valuable feature of mobile phones because they can be easily carried wherever we go".

Ashkan
"I think it is a good idea to enlarge my vocabulary. I don't need to take the heavy vocabulary books. Using mobile apps I can review vocabularies everywhere and every time".

In addition, the results showed that the majority of the participants believed that the possibility of connectivity to the Internet is one of affordance of the use of mobile phones. In fact the Internet can facilitate the process of language learning. The use of Internet will improve interaction, communication and problem solving. They can easily download vocabulary learning apps and install them in their mobile phones. Here are some examples from interviewees:

Zahra
"In my opinion, one of the benefits of the use of mobile phones for vocabulary learning is that students have opportunity to connect to the Internet in the classroom and outside the classroom. This helps the students to be more autonomous"

Mahbobe
"When EFL learners use mobile phones for vocabulary learning, they have access to thousands of online EFL resources and this Internet is facilitative and very useful for learners' learning."

What are the disadvantages of mobile applications for vocabulary learning?

The findings showed that the majority of the participants believed that physical aspects of mobile phones may prevent an optimal learning experience and there are some limitations. These limitations include: small screen size, limited battery life and limited memory size. For instance:

Somaie
"I think screen size of device is a big disadvantage. The amount of information that can be displayed on the screen at one time is quite small."

Danial
"Mobile devices have limited storage capabilities so, if you have large or many files on your device, it may not be able to store everything

Ariana
The battery life for some mobile devices is little. When the battery runs out, you must plug it into charger and it is no longer movable

Discussion
The present study was an attempt to examine the effect of mobile applications in assisting EFL students' vocabulary learning in contrast to using books. The results of the study indicated that EFL learners who used the mobile application on their mobile phones for vocabulary learning improved their vocabulary ability more than those who used the 504 Book. The findings of this study are supported by findings in the literature (Thrnton & Houser,2005; Baleghizade & Oladrostami;2010;Zhang et al,2011;Zare and Amirian,2013) reporting that the use of mobile phones' features has had a positive effect on students' language learning.
Regarding to the first research question, the results showed that students of experimental group outperformed the control group in terms of vocabulary acquisition and there was a difference between the two groups. It appeared that this maybe due to the students' easy access to the mobile devices which results in their repeated exposure to and frequent practice of the vocabulary. The findings are supported by the study conducted by Zare and Amirian (2013) which revealed that the experimental group students significantly outperformed their control group counterparts in EFL vocabulary learning. Also, the results also echoed the results of the study conducted by Rahimi and Miri (2014) who showed that the experimental group outperformed the control group in the post-test.
Regarding to the second research question, the findings revealed that learning vocabulary through mobile applications is convenient and efficient. Also, they can be easily accessed everywhere and anytime. It appeared that due to the convenience facilitated by the portability and accessibility of the mobile phones, students use them as an English Vocabulary learning device in their leisure time. Therefore, the results are in line with the points suggested in the literature by Klopfer et al (2002) like portability, accessibility and ubiquity. The findings are supported by the study conducted by Steel (2012) which showed that Students appreciated the flexibility and convenience of using their apps to meet their personal learning needs at times and in places that suited their lifestyles. It provides insights into student perspectives on the benefits of using mobile apps for foreign language learning.
Conclusion
This paper was generally an attempt to assess the effectiveness of using mobile phones for promoting students' vocabulary learning. It can be concluded that using mobile applications has affected the students' performance in experimental group. Therefore, the method used in this study can be more effective in English vocabulary learning. As the findings of this study demonstrated, mobile applications could be an effective pedagogical tool for self -learning English vocabulary. Thus, these results highlight the importance of MALL and its features as an attractive path through which success of learning process can be enhanced. Besides, in this study students have shown their desire to use mobile applications for language learning due to convenience facilitated by the portability and accessibility of the mobile phones.
Also, according to the interview, all participants expressed that they liked the experiences of using their own mobile phones to learn vocabulary and enjoyed very much the convenience and flexibility that mobile phones bring to them for vocabulary building. This study has some implications for syllabus designers to incorporate Technology and mobile-based learning into the pedagogical language courses. The findings can be useful for language teachers, administrators and language institutes. It informs them in making decision about a readily available tool to help improving students' vocabulary knowledge. Teachers can change their methods and move toward learner-oriented methods. Students also have more opportunity to improve their vocabulary rather than only using mobile devices for everyday life. Also, English vocabulary programs executing on mobile phones can be employed as an extra-curricular activity for students especially outside the classroom since they are available all the time. Finally, the researcher hoped that mobile learning is not only limited to students but benefits all people who would like to carry out language learning in the

future. It is recommended that further studies should investigate the effects of mobile applications on vocabulary learning. Although this study confirmed the effectiveness of mobile applications on vocabulary learning, it did not investigate if learners can use the acquired vocabulary items in extended discourse and daily conversations; more studies is needed to examine whether learning words via mobile applications can help learners to employ words in their daily conversations. Also based on the fact that a small sample of students was successful using the mobile applications for vocabulary learning, the researcher suggests that further investigations on other classes at other levels and other language skills and aspects be conducted to make findings more applicable and generalizable.

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THE INFLUENCE OF TEACHING EXPLICIT READING STRATEGIES ON IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS' READING COMPREHENSION ABILITY

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ABSTRACT
THIS STUDY AIMED AT INVESTIGATING THE EFFECT OF TEACHING EXPLICIT READING STRATEGIES ON IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS' READING COMPREHENSION ABILITY. TO THIS END, 80 STUDENTS PARTICIPATED IN THE STUDY. FORTY STUDENTS WERE PUT IN THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP AND FORTY STUDENTS WERE IN THE CONTROL GROUP. IN ORDER TO COLLECT THE DATA, THE RESEARCHER UTILIZED A TEST AND A QUESTIONNAIRE. STUDENTS WERE REQUIRED TO FILL IN THE QUESTIONNAIRE BEFORE ADMINISTERING THE PRE-TEST IN ORDER TO CHECK THEIR READING COMPREHENSION ABILITY. HAVING RECEIVED THE EXPLICIT READING STRATEGIES INSTRUCTION, THE STUDENTS IN THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP WERE ASKED TO FILL IN THE POST QUESTIONNAIRE. HOWEVER, BOTH GROUPS WERE GIVEN POST-TEST TO COMPARE THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE TWO GROUPS. THE RESULTS SHOWED THAT STUDENTS WHO RECEIVED EXPLICIT READING STRATEGIES INSTRUCTION OUTPERFORMED THEIR COUNTERPARTS WHO DID NOT RECEIVE SUCH INSTRUCTION. THE IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY WILL BE DISCUSSED AT THE END OF THIS STUDY.

KEYWORDS: EXPLICIT READING STRATEGIES, READING COMPREHENSION ABILITY, STRATEGY INSTRUCTION

Introduction

There is a common belief among teachers that suitable strategy use has a good influence on students when they are taught to apply effective strategies. Janzen (1996) maintains that strategy instruction is useful in reading contexts because students develop knowledge about the reading process. According to Oxford (1990), learners' strategies allow learners to take responsibility for their own language learning. These learning strategies help them to solve learning problems, and as therefore students might become autonomous language learners. Reading exists as a complex cognitive activity which is essential for adequate functioning and for obtaining information in the society Alfassi (2004). To enter any literate society, students must know how to learn from reading in order to succeed (Ko, 2002).

Investigation of reading strategies in foreign language acquisition have further identified the reading strategy use by effective and poor readers Chamot (2005). For instance, effective EFL readers know how to use a variety of appropriate strategies to achieve their learning goals; while less effective readers do not choose the appropriate strategies to enhance the reading comprehension ability in English. Brown (1984) suggest that strategic reading helps students, especially low-achieving learners, avoid comprehension failure and enhance their retention of the text.

Reading consists of two related processes: word recognition, comprehension and fluency. Word recognition refers to the process of perceiving how written symbols correspond to one's spoken language. Comprehension is the process of making sense of words, sentences and connected text. Fluency is the ability to orally and silently read text smoothly and with appropriate phrasing and intonation. Therefore Reading is the most important skill which learners in the high school are expected to develop. Readers typically make use of background knowledge, vocabulary, grammatical knowledge, experience with text and other strategies to help them understand a written text. In the

reading process, readers use reading strategies, linguistic knowledge along with their background knowledge about the text's topic and structure to achieve their purpose for reading Peregoy and Boyle, (2001). This is because almost all examination students' knowledge and abilities are based on their reading and comprehending ability of English language. Learning English is compulsory in Ethiopian secondary and tertiary education where the language is medium of instruction at high schools, colleges and universities across the country. English is a means to enhance one`s educational development, to facilitate communication and to further enrich cognitive abilities of students in other academic subjects as well (Tefera, 2012).

Reading comprehension is an interactive activity between students and contexts; in the period of this interaction between students and contexts, students utilize different experiences and knowledge which involve language skills, cognitive information and world knowledge. Recent research on the reading strategies used by readers indicated that most of the comprehension activities of efficient readers take place at the meta-cognitive level (Hudson,
2007). Meta-cognition refers to one's ability to understand, control, and manipulate the cognitive process to maximize learning.

Statement of the problem

As most EFL teachers indicated, Iranian students who enter educational settings have serious problem of reading comprehension. Most of them even failed to comprehend a single paragraph. A few students have problems of reading or pronouncing words and sentences in a paragraph. Parents frequently complain about their children reading comprehension particularly educated parents. Teachers have not conducted any research on any skill in this school despite of all these problems. Learners struggle with comprehension possess inefficient strategies and use them inflexibly. They are usually unaware of what good readers do and when to apply a small repertoire of comprehension strategies. Providing students with clear instruction in comprehension strategies can be an effective way to help them overcome difficulties in understanding the texts. The more understandable the comprehension strategy instruction, the higher the learner will make significant gains in reading comprehension. As the result of this the researcher has tried to fill the gap. Therefore, this study attempts to answer the following question:

What is the influence of explicit reading strategies instruction of Iranian EFL learners' reading comprehension ability?

Review of literature

Reading Strategies

Reading strategies may be defined as an action or serious of actions employed in order to construct meaning (Garner, 1987). Learning to be strategic reader can promote reading comprehension and failure to be strategic in reading may result from either developmental inability or poor reading (Paris et al., 1983). Learning reading comprehension strategies help students in becoming independent, confident learners. As a result of this, students become more motivated as they begin to understand the relationship between their use of strategies and success in learning reading comprehension (Cohen, 1998). Foreign language learners should be encouraged to learn and use a broader range of language learning strategies that can be tapped throughout the learning process. This approach is based on the belief that learning will be facilitated by making students become aware of the range of strategies from which they can choose in the context of language teaching and learning (Cohen, 1998). Knowledge of different strategies is very important. These strategies widen the understanding level of the learners. Learners should get enough explanation and practice on different types of strategies. There are different types of strategies that students should know which are suggested by different scholars but all of them have similarity. However for this study (Johnson, 2008) reading strategies and activities in order to understand expository text have been selected because it shows clear definition of each strategy and its practice.

A study was done by Taghinezhad, Tabaeifard, and Bazyar (2015) which investigated the impact of teaching listening comprehension strategies on the improvement of listening comprehension ability of Iranian EFL learners and found that teaching listening comprehension strategies can play a major role in the improvement of listening comprehension ability. Also, Taghinezhad, Dehbozorgi and Esmaili (2015) conducted a study investigating the influence of teaching meta-cognitive reading strategies on the reading self-efficacy beliefs of Iranian EFL learners. The study showed that those

who received instruction using meta-cognitive reading strategies had higher self-efficacy beliefs comparing with those who did not receive such instruction. However, there was no statistically significant difference between males and females regarding their self-efficacy beliefs.

The importance of reading strategies

A lot of researchers have paid attention to reading comprehension and explicit reading strategy instruction due to the importance of the issue. Learning is a very demanding process. Concerning language learning, the matter becomes much more complicated. It does not only involve learning the structures, vocabulary items, some idiomatic expressions and cultural aspects of the language but it also involves being proficient in the skills needed to understand and communicate in the target language effectively. There are many skills required in a language but the main ones are listening, reading, writing, and speaking. The first two are the receptive skills while the latter two are the productive ones. Without the full mastery of the receptive skills, it is difficult to achieve mastery in productive ones. Reading is one of the receptive skills which is of great importance in language teaching and learning (Khalaji, 2012).
Reading in a second language is a dynamic and interactive processes in which learners make use of background knowledge, text schema, lexical and grammatical awareness, L1- related knowledge, and real world knowledge, as well as their personal purposes and goals, to arrive at an understanding of written material. At the same time readers‟ teachers‟ views of the nature of reading are seen to be shaped by their own social, cultural, and personal histories. Reading is one of the most important skills which a person has to deal with throughout his life time. It needs a lot of practice and experience to understand a passage and the information conveyed in it. The matter becomes more complicated when the text appears in a foreign language in which the reader is not proficient enough... As Wallace (1992) said "There are two things which we all know about language: first that we use it for a purpose; second that it only makes sense in context that is as part of a larger text or in a situation". It is not always easy to understand a passage carefully without using certain strategies. Strategies are defined as "specific methods of approaching a problem or task, modes of operation for achieving a particular end, planned designs for controlling and manipulating certain information" by Brown (1994). Researchers found that readers need to utilize a wide range of strategies while reading a text and especially in reading comprehension, because in reading comprehension process readers should utilize several of conscious and unconscious strategies to solve their problem in order to construct meaning from written message/messages. As it can be understood from the definition, strategies are not easy to explore and use especially in a foreign language. This is where the language teacher comes onto the stage. The duty of a teacher is then to guide and teach learners how to be effective readers in a foreign language.

Types of Reading Strategies
Cognitive reading strategies are cognitive activities or process that the reader executes in his attempt to construct the meaning out of a text. These include both the bottom up processing, when the teacher focuses on sampling and predicting, testing the prediction, getting the gist, making inference, etc. using available resources to guess or complete the missing information(Oxford, 1990).

Meta-cognitive strategies refer to over viewing and talking with already known material, paying attention, finding out about language learning, organizing, setting goals and objectives, identifying the purpose of a language task planning for a language task, seeking practice opportunities, self-monitoring, and self-evaluating (Oxford. 1990).

Prediction

The basis of comprehension is prediction, the prior elimination of unlikely alternatives. Predictions are questions that we ask, and comprehension is receiving relevant answers to those questions. If we cannot predict, we are confused. If our predictions fail, we are surprised. And if we have no interest or uncertainty as a basis for prediction, we are bored (Smith, 2004). Predicting is fundamental to comprehension. Good readers anticipate meaning. They do this by predicting what they think is going to happen in the selection and by revising their prediction as they read.

Imagery

Like all comprehension strategies, imaging requires readers to use prior knowledge and to predict. In this case, the prior knowledge the reader uses is experience with words and descriptive language. Readers use what that descriptive language makes them think to create an image. That is, they predict what image the author intends to convey. Because descriptive language appears with more frequency in narrative than in expository text, imagery tends to be taught in conjunction with stories rather than with textbooks or other informational texts (Scholastic, 1987)

Monitoring and Questioning

Monitoring is a process of talking to oneself about whether the meaning being encountered is the meaning anticipated—that is, whether the original prediction is coming true. Monitoring and questioning are virtually the same, because questioning is also a process of talking to oneself about whether the meaning makes sense. That is, the reader is constantly asking. Students must keep the original prediction in mind. They should keep asking whether that prediction continues to make sense in light of new information in the text. They should use new information in the text and prior knowledge about that information to make new predictions (Duffy, 2009)

Inferring

As Duffy (2009) states inferring is the ability to "read between the lines" or to get the meaning an author implies but does not state directly .All comprehension strategies involve inferring in the sense that comprehension requires readers to note text clues, to access prior knowledge associated with those clues, and then, on the basis of that background knowledge, predict (or infer) what the meaning is. So, in this sense, inferring is something a reader does as part of all comprehension strategies. Big understandings you might need to explain when teaching inferring: What we mean when we say meaning is "implied" or is "between the lines. "Those authors compose text based on their experience background and we construct meanings based on what the authors` words make us think about (i.e., our experience background). That authors often leave information unstated or implied expecting readers to infer it. Comprehension is an active process of constructing meaning, which means we must infer. Inferring is virtually the same process as prediction. Students must stop when the text stops making sense. First identify what is blocking the meaning. Then think about what strategy they know that could be used to fix the problem. After they apply the strategy, test to see if the problem is fixed.

Summarizing

Summarizing is the creation of a brief retelling of a text. While it may include the main idea or theme, the focus is on describing in brief form the text's major points. How will you know you need to teach summarization?

The situation: When you ask students to "tell you about" a story or a piece of expository text, they recite virtually everything that happened or report unimportant information and omit important information. The data you collect, ask students to provide a brief summary of a common fairy tale or a movie that they saw. If they cannot be brief, or cannot identify the important information, they may profit from an explanation of how to summarize.

Drawing Conclusion

Drawing conclusions, like predicting and inferring requires readers to be proactive in looking for clues in the text, thinking about what those clues trigger in prior knowledge, and making a prediction about what the author wants us to conclude on the basis of what makes sense in terms of past experience. Big understandings you might need to explain when teaching drawing conclusions: Those authors often want readers to draw conclusions, even though they may not say so explicitly or do not specify exactly what conclusion should be drawn but readers must be assertive creators of meaning. Drawing a conclusion is a prediction about what the author wants the reader to conclude like main idea and other comprehension strategies, the reader must pretend to be the author and, on that basis, think what conclusion the author might draw (Duffy, 2009) similarly only a little difference

Duke and Pearson (2002) have divided reading comprehension strategies in to five. Prediction Prediction entails activities that come with different labels, such as activating prior knowledge, previewing and over viewing all these variants have in common is encouraging students to use their existing knowledge to facilitate their understanding of new ideas encountered in text.

Think-aloud

Think aloud involves making one`s thoughts audible and usually public saying what you are thinking while you are performing a task of reading.

Text structure

Students use the structure of the texts, both narrative and expository to organize their understanding and recall of important ideas.

Summarization

Teaching students to summarize what they read is another way to improve their overall comprehension of text.

Questioning

No comprehension activity has more pervasive tradition than asking students questions and their reading, whether this occurs before, during or after the reading.

Approach to Reading Strategies

In recent years, one of the earliest considerations was a new approach to reading. In this approach, two different processes were introduced to language teaching and learning. These were namely bottom-up and top-down processing Brown (2001).

Bottom-up Processing

In bottom-up processing, according to Brown(2001), readers must first recognize letters, morphemes, syllables, words, phrases, grammatical cues, discourse marker .Nuttal(1996) states that a teacher in this process can move from grammar points and vocabulary to direct the learners to focus on the message. The whole reading process is based on the words and learners construct meaning from context by recognizing each word. Individual words are emphasized in isolation and rapid word understanding is important in the bottom-up. The readers who utilize this process quickly become skilled readers. However, there is one disadvantage of bottom-up processing. Language learners are sometimes too much interested in individual words or phrases that they forget about the overall meaning of the text. Therefore, this process that decodes word-by-word is slow and takes a lot of time and effort in reading comprehension because short-term memory is overloaded, and readers forget easily what they have read when reading comes to an end.

Top-down Processing

In top-down processing, learners draw on their intelligence and experience to understand a text. According to Brown (2001), readers come to the reading process with some knowledge of the world around them in their mind and they use this knowledge to make sense of a text for example, the students' prior information and expectations help them to construct meaning from a reading text. According to Nuttall (1996), top-down processing is useful to get the overall meaning of a text. In language classes, students are required to have general predictions about the text and then seek for the writer's message. Therefore, a teacher can give some ideas to form generalizations about the topic to process the information as an initiator. Then the students are required to process information in the text.

In the past, lots of reading specialists defended bottom-up processing as being the best way to teach reading. However, more recent research has shown that a reading lesson should make use of both bottom-up and top-down processing, called as "interactive reading". Since both of the processes are equally important in reading, a combination of them would be the best solution. In both modes of processing, students will need different strategies to improve their reading skills.
The application of such reading strategies results in improved memory and comprehension of text for students. Hence, language educators insist on teaching students to use explicit reading comprehension strategies in a self-regulated fashion with extensive teacher explanation and modeling of strategies, followed by teacher-scaffold use of the strategies.

Explicit Instruction of Comprehension Strategies

Explicit reading strategy instruction which is given by teacher enhances students` conditional knowledge and procedural knowledge. Comprehension strategies which characterize direct explanation, teacher modeling and guided practice of reading strategies show positive improvement in conceptual understanding and reading achievement (Roehler & Duffy, 1984). Explicit reading Strategy instruction is very decisive to raise understanding level of the learners. Recent research in the area of reading comprehension has focused on reading related strategies and strategy instruction studies. For the most part, such studies have found that explicit reading strategy instruction leads to improved reading performance (Signal, 2001).According to Duffy (2009), explicit reading strategy instruction should be given by the teacher based on the following procedure.

Introducing the Lesson

Students learn best when they have enough information about what they are going to accomplish. For example, we are going to use clues from the title to make prediction about what is going to happen in the story. For each prediction, you will be able to tell me how you used the title as a clue to come up with the topic, and to base your prediction on what your experience has taught you about it.

Modeling the Thinking

When we model, we provide a verbal statement of how to do a skill or strategy. We talk about the thinking we do in as clear and explicit a way as possible. Consequently, modeling is often described as "think-aloud" or as" mental modeling." We talk out aloud about what we do the invisible thinking involved so our students can use our model as a strategy point for developing their own way of doing it.

Scaffolding Assistance

Scaffolding is a process of helping students move from modeling of thinking to them doing the skill or strategy. They can use our model as a strategy point for developing their own way of doing it independently. Scaffolds are temporary supports. The idea of scaffold assistance is to provide initial support and then to gradually reduce the support as the student gains confidence in responding. We give students opportunities to try out what we modeled, with lots of help from us at first and then gradually with less and less help.

Application in Reading

Application is an integral part of explanation because we cannot say an explanation has been successful until we see students transfer it to real reading. Application is the ultimate reason for providing an explanation. Learning skills and strategies without having a use for them makes no sense.

Reading is one of the receptive skills which are of great importance in language teaching and learning. To get an expertise in this skill the readers need to utilize a wide range of strategies while

reading a text and especially in reading comprehension where a lot of cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies are needed to comprehend the meaning. These strategies are not easy to explore or acquire. It needs a lot of practice and above all the strategy instruction in reading comprehension.

Method

Research Design

This study is experimental research by using quantitative data approach. As Janzen (2003) says experimental research shows the effectiveness of teaching certain reading comprehension strategies to different groups. As a result of this, the researcher used experimental research design to find out the effectiveness of strategy instruction. Experimental research uses quantitative data. Gunderson (2000), describes quantitative research is explaining phenomena by collecting numerical data that are analyzed using mathematically based methods. As a result of this, the data which were collected from the questionnaire and tests were numerical data and these data analyzed and tabulated for clear explanation.

Population and Sampling

The participants of the study were 80 high school students in Shiraz. They were between 15 to 18 years of age. From these two sections the researcher chose randomly 40 from each school in order to conduct experimental research by using simple random activity. That means from natural science 40 students were part of experimental group and from social science students 40 students were part of control group students. Selection of control group and experimental group was a simple random activity because the participants had similar level of language proficiency because their pre test scores were close to the mean. This random method gives chance in order to find different types of students who have different habit of reading ability. In these two different sections the teacher who was assigned was the researcher. As a result of this, the researcher got clear information about each group. The simple random sampling technique was employed because it helps the researcher to include different types of learners from each group in order to obtain valid and the reliable data.

Data collection Instruments

In this study, the researcher used questionnaire, pre-test and post-test. These were the only instruments that the researcher used throughout the study. In addition to this, to observe the significant difference of control group and experimental group the researcher used t-test.

Questionnaire

This data gathering tool is important since it helps the researcher to gather data from different types of learners. The researcher gathered students` reading experience from experimental group and control group. The researcher prepared pre and post questionnaire. The questionnaire was close ended questionnaire by using five point Likert scales. The questionnaire was administered before the study and after the study

Pre questionnaire

For both sections, section "A" the experimental group that means the natural science students and section" B" the control group that means the social students had questionnaires before the experimental group took explicit strategy instruction of reading comprehension. This helped the researcher to find out their real problem of reading comprehension of students` performance.

Post questionnaire

The aim of this questionnaire is to find out how much explicit strategy instruction reading help the experimental group students to comprehend passages. To identify the explicit reading strategy instruction which was given by the teacher was effective or not, the post questionnaire was administered.

Test

Test is an instrument that is used to measure the performance of the learners in teaching reading activities. In reading comprehension it plays a great role in measuring the learners' understanding. Pretest and Posttest was administered to both groups to get the relevant data.

Pre-test

Pre-test for both groups was given in order to find out the reading strategies that they use. These pre-test questions held 10 objective questions that test predicting, skimming, scanning, inferring, and summarizing then their result was registered. The reading comprehension questions were extracted from students' text book. It was given by printing on a piece of paper for each student. The test focused on the cognitive strategies. The test made them employ different strategies.

Post-test

Post-test was given to both groups and it was evaluated after recording their result. This test showed clear result of explicit strategy instruction. The post-test was prepared in accordance with the pre-test. The post-test questions were also 10 similar to the pre-test and the type of the questions were objective questions that tested students` cognitive reading strategies. The questions were prepared considering the explicit strategy instruction session.

Data Collection Procedure

The researcher used questionnaire and tests to gather data from the control group and the experimental group. The first instrument was a questionnaire based on Likert scale. There were 15 pre and post closed questionnaire that helped to identify the students' reading strategies. The second instrument was test. In order to find out students' reading comprehension ability, two reading comprehension texts were extracted from their textbook. Based on these reading comprehension texts they were tested. Ten questions were for pretest and again after the strategy instruction they took another ten questions based on reading comprehension text of their own textbook. The data were gathered one by one from each instrument. In addition to this, for experimental group, six reading passages were presented to widen their understanding of different strategies by using explicit strategy instruction within six weeks. However, the control group learned the same passage by the same teacher without having explicit strategy instruction for six weeks. The reading comprehension pre-test was administered to the target group. Then, the researcher collected the scores and kept them for analysis. Following the pre-test, explicit reading strategy was conducted to the learners in the experimental group right after the learners questionnaire was filled and completed and after six weeks post-test was given and the scores were recorded for further comparison with the pre-test. The pre questionnaire and the post questionnaire which were presented to them to identify their reading habit since the questionnaires were the same. They indicated their previous reading strategies and their reading strategies after intervention.

Data Analysis Procedure

Data analysis is not a simple description of the collected data but a process by which the researcher can bring interpretation to the data in relation to the projected study (Cohen and Morrison, 2000).This procedure includes organizing the data, identifying emerging themes, categorizing the patterns and testing hypotheses against the data. The data which were collected through questionnaire and pre and post tests are quantitative data .These data were Analyzed on the other hand the data obtained quantitatively transcribed, tabulated, categorized and summarized together to reach conclusion. The data collected from these two sources which means from questionnaire and test were analyzed. The data related to the students reading habit before pre-test and after post-test were analyzed and compared. Similarly, the pre-test and the post-test scores were recorded, analyzed, tabulated and compared using T-test.

RESU LTS AND DISCUSSION

Data Analysis

Students` Pre Test and Post Test Result by using T-test

Following the questionnaire, the pretest was given for both EG and CG students. The test consisted of equal number of items following the same question format for both of them. Moreover, the mark load was equal: 10%. Students were grouped in two sections. The first 40 of the students were in Experimental Group (EG) and in the second group 40 of them were in the Control Group (CG). The test was given to EG and CG students after the pre questionnaire without having any intervention both of them. The score kept and calculated as shown below here. The pretest questions were asked based on the reading passage from students' textbook. The questions were also taken from this text. However, additional questions that could make students use reading strategies had been included. Their results were indicators of the weakness of the students. According to the pretest result, both groups of students exposed their weakness in different reading strategies. They were ignorant of different types of reading strategies. These questions indicated similar things but the right problem of their reading strategies problem can be revealed clearly during post-test after the intervention. The following tables show the results.

Table 1. Paired-sample statistics

Paired- sample statistics	Mean	Number	Std. deviation	Std. error mean
Pair 1 pre-experimental group	3.87	80	1.46932	.33985
Pair 1 post-experimental group	6.96	80	1.46932	.33985
Pair 2 pre-control group	3.79	80	1.39425	.31759
Pair 2 post-control group	3.93	80	1.34267	.31132

Table 2. Paired-sample Correlation

Paired-sample correlation	Number	Correlation	Significant
Pair 1 pre-experimental and post-experimental group	80	.895	.000
Pair 2 pre-control group and post-control group	80	.891	.000

Table 3. Paired-samples t-test

Paired-samples t-test	Mean	Std. deviation	Std. error mean	95% of confidence of the diff. Lower	95% of confidence of the diff. Higher	T	Df.	Sig (2-tailed)
Pair pre-experimental post-experimental	-4.00	.52432	.14532	-3.67431	-2.64321	-30.389	79	.000
Pair pre-control post-control	-2.00	.51213	.10000	-32401	.13421	-1.000	79	.478

According to the above paired students` t-Test results, the result from the reading test revealed again their weakness in reading comprehension. During pretest the mean and the median are not wide. This implies that almost the distribution of the test score is around the same area. The standard deviation of the score also indicates that the deviation of the students score from the mean. As it has been calculated here above by using t-Test, the experimental group and the control group posttest students' score indicates that the difference of students' score result when it is compared with the previous score result, there is wide difference. For instance, the result of the mean score of the pretest of the EG was 3.87 whereas the CG mean was 3.79, the difference was very little, that was 0.08 but the posttest mean of the experimental group when it is compared with the posttest control group the

difference is too wide that is 3.03. This clearly indicates that the improvement of experimental group students. It can be concluded that the mean improvement is the result of six weeks ERSI. The other evidence is their test score. During pretest, the difference between experimental group and control group was only 2 but after the explicit strategy instruction their difference became too wide, that is 60 mark differences. The deviation of the experimental group score from the mean is 1.62 and 1.47 respectively during pretest and posttest whereas the control group students score deviation from the mean was 1.62 and 1.54 respectively. This is also another indication of the experimental group improvement because standard deviation is an implication on how much the values of a certain data set differ from the mean on average in a normal distribution. In general, the impact of explicit strategy instruction has brought meaningful change.

Summary Concerning Explicit Reading Strategy

Explicit reading strategy has brought meaningful change on students reading comprehension. Learners who read with reading strategies and without reading strategies are not the same. Learners who struggle with comprehension possess inefficient strategies and use them inflexibly. They are usually unaware of what good readers do and need to be shown how and when to apply a small repertoire of comprehension strategies. Providing students with explicit instruction in comprehension strategies can be an effective way to help them overcome difficulties in understanding texts (Graham & Bellert, 2004). The more explicit the comprehension strategy and self-regulatory instruction, the higher the likelihood that the leaner will make significant gains in comprehension (Manset-Williamson & Nelson, 2005). As learners become more competent and confident of their comprehension, the less support they require from the teacher (Duke and Pearson, 2002). In general explicit reading strategies made them read with confidence after they took the intervention when it was compared their awareness that they had earlier before the intervention.

Conclusion

The experimental group and the control group were exposed for reading passages which were extracted from students' text book by the researcher for six weeks. The text book that they learned was the same. It was grade 11 English Text Book. The only difference was the method of teaching. The experimental group students were taken the lesson by using explicit reading strategy instruction but the control group students were taken the lesson by using the usual lecture method teaching. After six weeks, both of them took the post test. After the test experimental group post questionnaire was administered. The pre and post questionnaire responds were organized, tabulated and changed to percent in order to compare the two groups. The pre and the post test scores were kept and analyzed by using T-test. This helped the researcher to find out the difference between the two groups. Based on this process, the following major findings were found.

The pre questionnaire and the post questionnaire and the tests were the means in order to identify the reading strategies of the students. The research revealed that students who took the ERI started to use in a good way after the intervention whereas the other students who did not participate in the intervention did not show much change concerning using reading strategies.

- Reading strategies instruction that were employed by the students affected the students reading strategies. As it was explained the analysis part, most students had difficulty of reading comprehension before the reading strategy instruction. They were very weak in reading skills. They did not use to pay attention for different reading strategies. However, after the intervention most students started to use reading strategies in order to comprehend because of this it is possible to say reading strategies affected the reading strategies that were used by students.
- The scores of the students before the intervention were the same. At the beginning of the study, the score of the experimental group students and the score of control group students were similar. However, after the intervention, the score of experimental group students showed great improvement. The control group students did not show much change. As a result of this, it is possible to say the reading strategy instruction affected the score of reading comprehension of the students.

Based on the above research findings, the following conclusions were made.

It is possible to conclude that explicit reading strategies have great impact for understanding any text.

It can be concluded that most students have reading comprehension problem due to poor reading strategies. To escape from this poor reading experience, students should be exposed to different reading strategies. These strategies make them understand very difficult information very easily. They show them how to tackle the reading comprehension problem. These reading strategies would be clear if learners learned by using explicit reading instruction. The ERSI can make students to master the technique of reading strategies very easily. As a result of this, students can comprehend reading passages very easily.

It is also possible to conclude that the reading strategy instruction can change the students score since most students had shown satisfactory result after they took explicit reading instruction. The reading strategies are weapons that learners should arm for the sake of reading comprehension. If there is comprehension, there will be good result because for good score only comprehension is needed According to the analysis of the questionnaire and the test score result, the reading strategies instruction improve students' reading proficiency because students read by paying attention different context clues in order to understand the clear information of the text. As a result of this it can be concluded that the reading strategy instruction can improve students' reading proficiency. In general, explicit reading strategy instruction can improve students' score, reading proficiency and improves their comprehension greatly.

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MJLTM

THE EFFECT OF DYNAMIC ASSESSMENT ON IRANIAN INTERMEDIATE EFL LEARNER'S NARRATIVE PERFORMANCE

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ABSTRACT
DYNAMIC ASSESSMENT AS AN ASSESSMENT METHOD INTEGRATES INSTRUCTION AND ASSESSMENT AND EMBEDS INTERVENTION WITHIN THE ASSESSMENT PROCEDURE. IT'S THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK IS BASED ON VYGOTSKY' NOTION OF ZONE OF PROXIMAL DEVELOPMENT (ZPD) AND FEUERSTEIN'S CONCEPT OF MEDIATED LEARNING EXPERIENCE (MLE). THE PRESENT STUDY INVESTIGATES THE EFFECTIVENESS OF USING DYNAMIC ASSESSMENT (DA) ON IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS WITH AN INTERMEDIATED LEVEL OF PROFICIENCY. IN THIS STUDY THE RESEARCHER INVESTIGATED THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN NARRATIVES BEFORE AND AFTER A DYNAMIC ASSESSMENT PROCEDURE CALLED A TEST_TEACH-RETEST METHOD. TO FULFILL THE PURPOSE OF THE STUDY TWO CLASSES COMPRISING THIRTY IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS WERE SELECTED. IN THE FIRST CLASS (EXPERIMENTAL GROUP) DYNAMIC ASSESSMENT WAS USED AND IN THE SECOND CLASS (CONTROL GROUP) STATIC ASSESSMENT WAS APPLIED. IN TESTING PHASE A WORDLESS PICTURE SEQUENCE TO THE PARTICIPANTS IN ORDER TO DEVELOP A STORY RELATED TO PICTURES. AFTER THE PARTICIPANTS' FIRST NARRATION THE TEACHING PHASE TOOK PLACE FOR EXPERIMENTAL GROUP WHICH LASTED SEVEN SESSIONS. IN THE FINAL STAGE BY USING THE SAME WORDLESS PICTURE SEQUENCES ALL PARTICIPANTS TOLD THE SECOND NARRATIVES. THE FINDINGS REVEALED THAT PARTICIPANTS IN THE DYNAMIC ASSESSMENT GROUP PRODUCED HIGHER NARRATIVE SCORES COMPARED TO THE SCORES OF PARTICIPANTS IN THE STATIC ASSESSMENT GROUP.

KEY WORDS: DYNAMIC ASSESSMENT; EFL LEARNERS; STATIC ASSESSMENT; NARRATIVE PERFORMANCE

1. INTRODUCTION

Traditionally, assessment is defined as a 'means fo controllong the context in which language performane takes place' (Bachman 1990). Cohen (1980) offers three purposes of assessment: administrative, instructional, and research-driven. Within the administrative realm, assessment may serve to place students in appropriate class levels, provide an exemption for completing a certain or hasten a promotion. An assessment that has an instructional purpose is one that shows evidence of

student progress and gives feedback to the test-taker. In a classroom in which the tacher implements DA, instruction and assessment occur simultaneously.
Based on the sociocultural Theory (SCT) of mind originated from the Russian psychologist LevVgotsky's ideas, DA researchers claim that dialectical interration of instruction and assesssment into a dynamic activity will bring successful education. This requires sensitivity to the learners' Zon of Proximal development (ZPD) during the assessment proceduress which is achieved through the mediators' intervention in terms of providing hints, prompts, and feedbacks. While the results of traditional non-dynamic assessment (NDA) can only show the already existent abilities of the student, the analysis of ZPD makes it possible to evaluate the ability of the students to learn from the interaction with a teacher or a more capable peer and predict their possible future developments.

2. DYNAMIC ASSESSMENT AND ITS CHARACTERISTICS

Dynamic assessment (DA) as a concept originates from Vygotsky (1978) and Feuerstein (1979). In Vygotsky's model of cognitive development, children's learning takes place in the zone of proximal development (ZPD) during social interaction. The ZPD is based on the premise that a child's unassisted performance during a task can be enhanced when guided assistance is given by an adult. Feuerstein's theory of mediate learning experience (MLE) consists of a formal educational process where an adult tries to enhance the child's performance. According to Feuerstein, the mediated interactions promoted a higher mental functioning in a child.
The goal of DA is to modify learners' performance level in order to enable the mediators not only to understand individual learners' current level of abilities but to predict their unassisted potential future abilities based on their present performance. In dynamic assessment, examiners become an active part of the assessment. Examiners observe interpret observations in order to change and reveal learning. This approach focuses on the learning process. During mediated learning, examiners focus on how children solve problems and how they learn. Observations reveal information about children's learning strategies and the amount of effort required for learning new skills.
DA can be better understood when contrasted with static assessment (SA). The sharp difference between DA and SA is that DA focuses on the learning process, whereas SA focuses on the results of learning. In SA, which is usually done for summative purposes, any kind of interaction or assisstance during the assessment is considered unacceptable. In fact, interaction and assistance of any kind could be seen as being unfair or even cheating. In particular, changes in the learners' performance during the assessment process are considered threats to the reliability of test scores. However, DA adopts a different stance and maintains that important information about a learner's ability can only be obtained by offering assisstance during the assessment.

2.1 CLINICALLY-ORIENTED VERSUS RESEARCH-ORIENTED DA

The broad practice of DA has evolved and diverged into two separate strands of study:
Clinically-oriented DA and research-oriented DA. Clinically-oriented DA began as an educational treatment or intervention. Its most common operationalization is Feuerstein's Learning Potential Assessment Device (LPAD). The LPAD is a nonstandardized method of assessing and teaching cognitive deficiencies in children with learning problems. Treatment duration could last years (Rand, Tannenbaum, &Feuerstein, 1979). Research-oriented DA, in contrast, originated as an instrumental tool. It is generally a standardized administration of an assessment in which the examiner seeks to guide the student through the learning process during one teaching session. The time needed for a student to reach mastery, or the necessary level of instructional explicitness, serves as an index of student potential (Lidz & Elliott. 2000).

2.2 VYGOTSKY' FORMULATION OF THE ZONE OF PROXIMAL DEVELOPMENT

Vygotsky (1978) (as cited in Tzuriel 2000) proposed that in order to understand the cognitive development of an individual, one should understand his/her social, cultural, and historical background. The origins of higher mental functions of the child drive from social interactions with more experienced members who guide the child toward higher levels of mastery. According to him, learners' performance level is twofold: their actual developmental level (ADL) and their potential level of development or, in Vygotsky' words the "zone of present development" and the "zone of proximal development" (ZPD), respectively. The former pertains to learners' existing ability to display a performance level without external assistance; the latter connotes the extent to which

learners can move away from this existing performance level towards the one developed under guidance and assistance.
Vygotsky (1978) (as cited in Tzuriel 2000) defines the ZPD as "the distances between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (P. 86). According to this definition, the person providing guidance (the mediator) must be aware of a learner's actual developmental level. Vygotsky defines the "actual developmental level" as problem solving completed without assistance, or "the level of development of a child's mental functions that has been established as a result of certain already completed developmental cycles" (P.85). Learning, or the ability to perform under another's guidance, creates the ZPD. According to Vygotsky if a child has difficulty performing a given task or grasping a concept, he or she should not be left alone until she develops on her own a readiness to learn; on the contrary, he or she should receive focused intervention designed to bring about development.

2.3 THE TEST-TEACH-RETEST METHOD

The DA method, test-teach-retest, is inspired by both Vygotsky's and Feuerstein's theories. In the test phase, a child creates a narrative from one wordless picture sequence with no assistance from the examiner. This builds the baseline score of the child. The examiner then introduces a teaching phase or mediated learning experience. In this phase, the child participates in supported mediation session focused on narrative elements. Following mediation, the examiner retest the examinee to measure the amount of learning that has occurred. If the student shows high scores at posttest, the lower initial performance score is likely a result of bias due to cultural or prior experiential differences or a lack of interest or attention in the task. However, if the student shows low scores at pretest and a small amount of learning progress on post-testing, this suggested that the student is likely to have language learning problems (Poehner 2005). It can also be due to the fact that the child has general learning problems or perhaps attention deficit problems.

3. PURPOSE AND RESEARCH QUESTION OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study is to investigate the effect of DA on Iranian EFL learners' oral narrative performance. The research question of the study is as follows:
To what extent dynamic assessment is effective on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' oral narrative performance?
This study might encourage English teachers to think about trying this particular assessment technique in their classrooms. It could help them decide on the suitable strategies to use for particular lessons. The result can help teachers detect their students' strength and weakness by using this from of assessment. As a result, they guide their students to overcome their weaknesses in producing oral narratives.

4. METHODOLOGY

4.1 PARTICIPANTS

To accomplish the task, 30 students participated in this study. All of them were male Iranian EFL (English as a Foreign Language) learners in Guyesh institute in Germi. Their age varied from 15 to 17 with the mean of 16.

4.1.1 SELECTION OF PARTICIPANTS

Prior to the main phase of the study, a TOEFL test was administered by the institute. After selecting participants with scores one standard deviation above and below the mean they were randomly divided into homogeneous classes. One class was determined as the control group (CG) and the other one was regarded as experimental group (EG).

4.2 INSTRUMENT

A wordless picture sequence was used to elicit the narrative samples. It consisted of eight laminated pictures. Students looked at the pictures in the story, and then were instructed to tell a story to go along with the pictures. The students looked at the first picture and narrated the events in the first picture. When the children finished telling the events in the first picture, they went to the second

picture and told the events related to it. When the children stopped telling the events in the second picture, they went to the third picture. The same procedure was then carried out for the test of pictures.
A microphone also was used to record the data. Participants' narratives on pretest and posttest were recorded by using this microphone. The researcher analyzed the data by listening to the records.

4.3 SCORING METHOD
In order to asses participant' pretest and posttest narrative, the NSS was used. The NSS is scored using a zero to five point scale. Five points were given for proficient use, 3 points for emerging or inconsistent use and 1 point for immature or minimal use. Scores of 2 and 4 are used for intermediate performance. A score of zero (0) was given for poor performance and for a variety of child errors including telling the wrong story, conversing with the examiner, not completing the task, abandoned utterances, unintelligibility, and when target components of the NSS were imitated. The scores for ach characteristic can be considered individually or combined into a total composite score (highest possible score being 35).

4.5 DESCRIPTION OF NSS CHARACTERISTICS
The NSS is divided into seven sections that assess seven different aspects of narrative performance. The Detailed description of the scheme is provided below:

1. Introduction: Scores are determined by the presence, absence, and qualitative depiction of character and setting components.
2. Character Development: Scores are based on the acknowledgement of characters and their significance throughout the story.
3. Mental States: Narratives are evaluated based on the vocabulary used to convey character emotions and thought processes. The frequency as well as diversity of mental state words are considered. For example, if a story provides frequent opportunities to verbalize anger themes and a child marks each of these with "mad," he/she will not receive as high of a score as a child who explains one opportunity using "mad," another using "angry," another using "upset," and so on. Mental state words can be either adjectives (e.g. sad, happy, and scared) or active cognitive-state (e.g. believe, know, and remember).
4. Referencing: Score are given according to the consistent and accurate use of antecedents and clarifiers throughout the story. Student's use of correct pronouns and proper names should be considered in this score.
5. Conflict/Resolution: Score are based on the presence/absence of conflicts and resolutions required to express the story as well as show thoroughly each is described.
6. Cohesion: The sequencing of, details given to, and transitions between each event are examined.
7. Conclusion: Scores are based on the conclusion of the final event as well as the wrap-up of the entire story. (Heilmann, Miller, & Nockrets 2010, p. 7)

4.6 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY
The test measure (NSS) utilized in the study has been previously used by Heilmann, Miller and Nockerts (2010) to assess narratives and were found to be valid measures of expressive language abilities. They stated that NSS is the most sensitive scheme to measuring narrative performance. As a routine, inter-rater reliability was calculated for 20% of testing forms from the large study. Six participants were randomly selected; in total 12 narratives were reanalyzed. The other researcher (principal of the institute) scored the tests independently. Then the reliability between the two scorings was calculated. The results indicated high inter-rater reliability (.89). Differences in results between the researcher conducting the study and the second rater were resolved through discussion, and a consensus was reached.

4.7 DATA ANALYSIS
This study had a pretest-posttest design. In order to analyze the data from oral narratives, descriptive statistics of the tests were calculated to arrive at the means and standard deviation of the pretest and posttest scores. Furthermore, a t-test was used to measure the significance of the difference in the means of two groups.

4.8 PROCEDURES

4.8.1 WARMING UP THE PARTICIPANTS

The researcher felt that the participants needed more time to get comfortable in the situation and decided to conduct a warm up phase by asking them some questions in general.

These questions included asking questions about the participants themselves, their parents, their jobs, etc. The researcher also showed a picture of their town. This picture made it more natural to ask warm up questions. Telling the participants that the researcher has also learnt English at school made the situation warmer. The length of the warm up phase was also adapted to each participant during the study. If the participant was talkative the researcher started the assessment earlier, but if the participant answered the questions with short answers or not at all, the researcher spoke more about the picture and the participant was more at ease with talking to the researcher.

4.8.2 NON-DYNAMIC PRETEST

One week before the DA program began; students were given a non-dynamic pretest to determine their ability to form a narrative. The purpose of the non-dynamic pretest was to reveal the independent performance of the students, or their Actual Development Level (ADL). In this phase the researcher put pictures in front of the student and said: "Now I want you tell the story. Look at the pictures and try to tell the best story you can". The same procedure was then carried out for the rest of the students. During this assessment, the teacher did not provide any assistance to the students and students were not allowed to consult classmates.

After taking pre-test, a t-test was used. The normality of the distribution of scores, as a prerequisite of running a t-test, was calculated using Kolmogrow-Smirnow statistic. The results of the initial t-test showed no significant difference between the scores of groups on pretest. Table 1 presents the descriptive statistics for the students' scores on pretest.

Table 1 Descriptive Statistics for Pretest

Group	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation
EG	15	20.93	1.093
CG	15	21.07	1.163

The following test of normality (Table2) gives the result of the Kolomogrow-Smirnov statistic for pretest. This assesses the normality of the distribution of scores. The Sig. values for experimental and control groups are .081 and .153 respectively, which indicate the normality of distribution for both groups (Sig. values of more than .05).

Table 2 Kolomogrow-Smirnov Test of Normality for Pretest

Group	Statistic	Df	Sig.
EG	.208	15	.081
CG	.190	15	.153

Since the distributions of scores for both groups were normal it was started to use parametric test (t-test) to seek the existence and non-existence of initial difference between the two groups.

Table 3 Independent Samples T-test for Students' Scores on Pretest

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Level's test for equality of variances			T-test for equality of means	
F	Sig.	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean differences	Std. Error Difference
.278	.602	.742	.133	.402

The table 3 presented above shows that the difference between the mean scores of two groups is very small (.133).

4.8.3 TEACHING PHASE

The dynamic Assessment (DA) in this study took place during the teaching phase immediately after the first narrative task. In dynamic assessment phase, the mediator provided individualized mediation and assistance, including prompts, hints, suggestions, explanation, etc. in an appropriate and meaningful manner, where necessary. The mediator paid attention to the problematic areas from pretest phase and additional problems that the learner revealed through interactions in this phase. Through DA, the mediator tried to help the learner optimally with the help of mediation. The mediation prompts used are provided in Table 4 below:

Table 4 Mediation Prompts Provided by the Researcher

Level of Explicitness	Mediation Movement
Prompt 1	Pause with skeptical look
Prompt 2	Repetition of entire phrase by teacher
Prompt 3	Repetition of specific site of error
Prompt 4	Forced choice option
Prompt 5	Correct response

During the sessions in which mediation was provided the following additional directions were also given:

The mediator interrupted at various points to ask questions, offer suggestions, and provide help when necessary; sometimes he interrupted to provide a correction, to question something that was said, or to make general comments.

These interruptions were done in Persian or Azeri Turkish in order to avoid any possible misunderstandings. In addition interruption, the mediator also encouraged students to ask him for help if they need it; they could do that in Persian, English or Azeri Turkish.

When a student used incorrect forms in narrating the story, the researcher provided a series of graduated prompts, arranged from implicit to explicit, to help the student reformulate the form correctly. Some students were able to correct the form after pausing and giving the student time to think, others required more explicit prompt in which a forced choice was given. A brief description of three phases in DA is presented below in Table 5:

Table 5 An Overview of DA Phases

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Assessment	Task Description	Material	Mediation Offered
Pretest phase	Construction of a Past-tense, Narrative in English, Recounting events from the wordless picture sequence	A wordless picture sequence	None
Teaching phase	Construction of a past-tense, narrative in English, Recounting events from the wordless picture sequence	A wordless picture sequence	Flexible interaction with assessor: hints, promos, suggestions, explanations as needed
Posttest Phase	Construction of a past-tense, narrative in English, Recounting events from the wordless picture sequence	A wordless picture sequence	None

4.8.4 POSTTEST

In the posttest phase the participant again produced a narrative by using the same wordless picture sequences. We followed the same procedure for analyzing and describing the posttest story that was used for the pretest. In order to capture students' independent progress, mediation was not provided during the assessment. The posttest was scored using the same rubric as was used to score the pretest. The purpose of the non-dynamic posttest was to observe how much the learner has developed over the seven sessions.

The following test of normality (Table 6) gives the results of the Kolomogorow-Sminrov statistic for posttest. This assesses the normality of the distribution of scores. The Sig. values for experimental and control groups are .377 and .276 respectively. A non-significant result (Sig. values of more than .05) indicated normality. Since the distributions of scores for both groups on posttest were also normal it used a parametric test (t-test) to seek the existence and non-existence of difference between the two groups.

Table 6 Kolomogorow-Sminrov Test of Normality for Posttest

Group	Statistic	Df	Sig.
EG	.206	15	.377
CG	.214	15	.276

Table 7 presents the descriptive statistics for the students' scores on posttest

Table 7 Descriptive Statistics for Posttest

Group	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation

EG	15	25.33	1.234
CG	15	20.87	1.125

The difference between the performances of the two groups has been calculated through applying a t-test that was presented below (Table 8).
The man of experimental group (25.33) was more than the mean of control group (20.78). So null_ hypothesis of this study which claimed that dynamic assessment has no effect on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' narrative performance was rejected.

Table 8 Independent Samples T-test for Students' Scores on Posttest

	Levene's test for equality of variances		t-test for equlity of means			
	F	**Sig.**	**t**	**df**	**Sig. (2-tailed)**	**Mean difference**
Equal variances Assumed	.108	.744	10.356	28	.000	4.467
Equal variances not Assumed			10.356	27.764	.000	4.467

5. DISCUSSION

The findings of our study are in line with those of Pohner (2005). Pohner conducted and empirical DA study of oral communication among advanced learners of L2 French to investigate the effectiveness of the application of DA procedure to L2 learning. He demonstrated that DA is an effective means of understanding learner's abilities and helping them to overcome linguistic problems.
Our findings are also in line with those of Ajideh and Nurdad (2012). Ajideh and Nurdad designed a study to investigate the difference between applying dynamic and non-dynamic assessment of EFL reading comprehension ability and examining its immediate and delayed effects. The results of the study revealed significant difference between dynamic and non-dynamic assessment with a statistically significant increase in the reading comprehension scores of the group being assessed dynamically. Similarly, Kozulin and Garb (2004) indicated that dynamic assessment is effective in both improving students' reading ability and understanding about their language learning potential.
Participants in an informal talk with the researcher indicated that face-to-face interaction with the mediator made learning process more enjoyable and comfortable. They also mentioned that they felt less anxious in dynamic assessment sessions in comparison to previously conducted classes. Most of them indicated that their attitudes toward assessment change completely. They told that their perceptions of their class, teacher and curriculum changed during these sessions. The new attitude provided them a strong motivation to produce second language. They claimed that they are learning for themselves so there is no need to compare them with others and dynamic assessment sessions provided them this situation-appropriately.
By providing the participants with the opportunity to take part in mediation sessions, they were able to participate more, ask questions that feared asking in front of the class, and hypothesize about different questions. Providing comprehensible input during these sessions the participants were likely to exhibit change in their performances.
In contrast to static assessment in which all of the students take part in the same test with the same difficulty level, in dynamic assessment the teacher acts according to each student's ZPD and trainings are based on this ZPD, so very student has the opportunity to develop through these sessions.

6. CONCLUSION

To show any significance change, the performances of both groups on posttest were compared applying t-test. T-test revealed that there is a significant difference in the performances of the subjects in experimental group. So the null hypothesis of this study which claimed that dynamic assessment has no effect on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' narrative performance was rejected.

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LEXICAL INFERENCING STRATEGIES OF IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS AT DIFFERENT LEVELS OF PROFICIENCY WHILE READING

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ABSTRACT
THIS STUDY INVESTIGATED THE LEXICAL INFERENCING MADE BY IRANIAN EFL STUDENTS AT IAU, ISFAHAN (KHORASGAN) BRANCH WHEN THEY ENCOUNTERED UNFAMILIAR WORDS IN ENGLISH TEXTS. THE RESEARCHERS EXAMINED THE EFFECT OF LEARNERS' LEVEL OF READING COMPETENCE ON THEIR LEXICAL INFERENCING WITH RESPECT TO THE KNOWLEDGE SOURCES AND TYPES OF CONTEXTUAL CUES THEY USED IN THE PROCESS, THEIR RATE OF SUCCESS IN INFERRING THE CORRECT MEANING OF THE TARGET WORDS, AND THEIR RATE OF VOCABULARY LEARNING AND RETENTION OF PREVIOUSLY UNKNOWN WORDS. BASED ON THE RESULTS OF A READING COMPREHENSION PROFICIENCY TEST (TOFEL TEST), 20 STUDENTS, 10 FROM EACH OF TWO DISTINCT LEVELS OF READING ABILITY (I.E., INTERMEDIATE AND ADVANCED) WERE SELECTED FOR THE STUDY. TWO PRETESTS WERE USED: NATION'S (1990) VOCABULARY LEVEL TEST TO ASSESS THE STUDENTS' SIZE OF VOCABULARY, AND VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE SCALE (VKS) (PARIBAHT & WESCHE; 1993, 1997; WESCHE &PARIBAKHT, 1996), TO MEASURE THEIR LEVEL OF KNOWLEDGE OF THE TARGET WORDS. THINK-ALOUD PROCEDURES WERE USED DURING THE INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEW SESSIONS. AT THE END OF INTERVIEWS, RETROSPECTIVE MEASURES WERE USED TO ASK THE PARTICIPANTS ABOUT THEIR EXPERIENCES. TWO WEEKS AFTER THE INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEW SESSIONS, A POSTTEST (VKS) WAS ADMINISTERED TO ASSESS LEARNERS' RATE OF RETENTION OF THE PREVIOUSLY UNFAMILIAR TARGET WORDS. RESULTS REVEALED THAT PROFICIENCY GROUPS USED SIMILAR TYPES OF KNOWLEDGE SOURCES AND CONTEXTUAL CUES WHEN INFERENCING, BUT IN DIFFERENT PROPORTIONS. SENTENCE LEVEL MEANING AND DISCOURSE LEVEL MEANING WERE THE MOST FREQUENTLY USED STRATEGY TYPES BY BOTH GROUPS.

KEY WORDS: LEXICAL INFERENCING, VOCABULARY ACQUISITION, READING COMPREHENSION, READING PROFICIENCY

1. Introduction

It is words that contain the basic component as well as the essence of any language. Recently the role of the lexicon in language learning and communication has come to be widely understood by foreign language teachers and researchers since vocabulary is central to the developmental of language and literacy (Jorddan, 2011). Traditionally, language has been determined as lexical grammar. Nowadays, researchers begin to pay more attention to vocabulary. Consequently, in the field of English language learning, without the good mastery of vocabulary, other skills, such as listening, reading, and writing will turn out to be castle in the air.

Reading comprehension is considered as both a process and a product of communication with a writer. A reader needs a variety of highly flexible processes called comprehension strategies in order to achieve successful reading comprehension. Reading English as a second/foreign language (ESL/EFL) is very important for the academic success of university students. In an EFL context, most of the time, students' need to read English texts is more significant than the opportunity to listen and/or speak the language. Therefore, written language in such contexts contains a major source of potential input for second language (L2) vocabulary acquisition. However, learners always have problems with unknown words while they read, and poor knowledge of vocabulary constitutes a major barrier in their reading comprehension. The mastery of vocabulary facilitates comprehension in reading as one of primary factor (Al-jabri, 2005).

Research (Harley & Hart, 2000; Paribakht, 2004; Qian, 2004) indicates that readers use a variety of strategies when they encounter new words in foreign text. These strategies include ignoring unknown words, consulting a dictionary for the meanings of these words, writing them down for further consultation with a teacher, or attempting to infer their meaning from context (Harley & Hart, 2000). Some studies (e.g. Laufer, 1997 cited in Nassaji, 2003; Paribakht, 2004; Qian, 2004) have shown that the most commonly used strategy among them is to infer the meaning of unknown words in order to compensate for the lack of comprehension.

Lexical inferencing is defined by Oxford (1990, p.47) as "using a variety of linguistic and nonlinguistic clues to guess the meanings of all words when the learner does not know them". Inferencing includes more in-depth processing and mental effort than, for example, memorizing.

The present study was designed to find out what strategies Iranian EFL learners used to comprehend unknown words in the foreign text and to explore the lexical inferencing behavior of Iranian EFL learners of English as foreign language in terms of the intent, the clue use, the procedure, the processing type, the adaptability, and the success of lexical inferencing as well as the subsequent lexical knowledge acquisition.

2. Literature Review

In the process of language learning, vocabulary plays an important role. McCarthy (2001) states that vocabulary constitutes the largest part of the meaning of the languages, and that vocabulary also becomes the problems for most language learners. Thus, vocabulary learning is at the center of learning a second or foreign language. It is necessary to take up the issue of what it means to know a word for any discussion on vocabulary acquisition. There is an agreement among researchers that knowing a word includes more than just being able to remember its meaning or the ability to provide an equivalent in L2.

Gass (1999) states a definition of the word; she contends that there are two aspects to defining the word. On the one hand, "acquisition is viewed as an end" (p. 327); therefore, it seems something has been acquired. On the other hand, "acquisition can be viewed as a process beginning with input and culminating with integration of new linguistic information into an existing linguistic system, then being the manifestation of newly integrated or acquired knowledge". According to the Gass' viewpoint, "acquisition" can be an end (i.e. something has been learned) or a process (i.e. something is being learned). The next point of view corresponds to the opinion of Schmitt (2000). Schmitt claims that "vocabulary acquisition is incremental in nature" (p. 117). This means knowing a word involves a process of learning and "a number of component types of word knowledge" (p. 5).

Lexical inferencing, according to a more correct definition by Haastrup (1991), "involves making informed guesses as to the meaning of a word in light of all available linguistic cues in combination with the learner's general knowledge of the world, her awareness of the co-text and her relevant linguistic knowledge" (p. 40). While practicing lexical inferencing, learners should not only pay more attention to the worlds in context, but also improve their reading ability. Because this kind of vocabulary learning is incidental, through large amounts amount of reading, learners can accumulate a lot of vocabulary.

In recent years, researchers have paid a great deal of attention to vocabulary learning and have in particular focused on lexical inferencing processes of L2 readers. Hence, the research questions raised in the present study are written below.

1. What kind of knowledge sources and context clues do Iranian EFL learners access to guess the meaning of unfamiliar words?

2. What is the role of learners' reading proficiency level in their lexical inferencing in terms of their knowledge sources and context clues they use in the process?

3. What is the role of learners' reading proficiency level in their lexical inferencing in terms of their rate of success in inferring the correct meaning of unfamiliar words?

4. What is the role of learners' reading proficiency level in their lexical inferencing in terms of their rate of learning and retention of previously unknown words?

3. Methodology

3.1. Participants

This study was conducted at IAU, Isfahan (Khorasgan) Branch, Isfahan, Iran. The study required that 50 M.A. students take part in a sample TOFEL test. All the 50 students volunteered to participate in the study and take the test. Ten advanced and 10 intermediate students were randomly selected to take part in the study.

3.2. Materials and Instruments

In order to conduct the present study, the following instruments were used for the selection of the participants and for data collection. The primary instrument was the TOFEL reading test. The reading test of the TOFEL was used for assessment of the participants' reading proficiency level. The next one was Vocabulary Knowledge Test which includes: Vocabulary Level Test (Nation, 1990), and Vocabulary Knowledge Scale (VKS). The Vocabulary Level Test is widely used in academic and other settings by L2 researchers as a measure of English vocabulary size (e.g. Laufer, 1992, 1996; Yu, 1996). In order to obtain demographic and background information about the participants, a questionnaire in English was prepared by the researcher. The questions helped the researcher gain information about the participants. Different types of texts from various sources were examined in order to select a suitable text on a topic of general interest to this population. The reading text had to be interesting and appealing, authentic, non-technical, culturally and politically suitable, and with appropriate level of difficulty and length. To ensure the suitability of the selected text, it was piloted tested again with ten volunteer students (from a population similar to that of chosen sample). These students were also asked to read the text and circle any unfamiliar words. The circled words this time provided the basis for the selection of the target words that were used in the text.

3.3. Procedures

Procedures used to collect data, following the selection of participants, included pretesting, training sessions, and individual research sessions. Data was collected over a 6-week period. The participants knew in advance that they would be required to give at least 6 hours of their time in order to complete all the research sessions. Twenty days before the individual interviews, the 50 volunteers willing to participate in the study took the reading proficiency test (TOFEL test). Based on the result of the test, 10 students each from two distinct levels of reading ability (advanced and intermediate) were randomly chosen for the study. The think-aloud training session took place in a classroom just after the pretest, and a week before the individual research interviews. In the training session, following Ericsson and Simon (1984, 1993), the researcher demonstrated how to "think aloud," using several pictures. During the individual research sessions (think-aloud and retrospective sessions), the lexical inferencing task, which comprised 26 target words in an English text was presented as a problem-solving task to the participants. Immediately after the practice session, each participant was first given the target text and was asked to read it for general comprehension. The participant was also asked to verbalize what she or he was doing and thinking while carrying out the inferencing task. The researcher tried not to interfere with the participants' reading and inferencing process, but promoted them to think aloud whenever there was a long pause by saying. Immediately after completing the inferencing task, participants were asked to retrospect on how they had found the text in terms of difficulty and interest, and how they had dealt with the unknown words. At the end of each interview, each participant was given the Vocabulary Knowledge Scale (VKS), in order to measure gains in the knowledge of the target words. The last research session took place 2 weeks after the individual research interview. At this time the VKS was administered for the third time to assess the learner's rate of retention of the target words.

4. Results

4.1. Result of the TOFEL

The TOEFL was administered to help the researcher determine the level of proficiency of the participants in the study. The test contained 20 questions, and those who obtained 15 or above were labeled advanced, while those who got a score between 9 and 14 were considered to be intermediate. Table 1. shows the descriptive statistics of the participants in these two proficiency levels on the TOEFL.

Table 1.

Descriptive Statistics for the TOEFL Scores of the Intermediate and Advanced Learner

Groups	*N*	Mean	*Std.* Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Intermediate	10	12.41	1.18	9.00	14.00
Advanced	10	16.39	1.37	15.00	19.00

Mean, standard deviation, and other descriptive statistics of the two proficiency groups are shown in Table 1. Once the proficiency level of the participants was determined, they were asked to proceed with the research steps, go through the treatment, and subsequently take the reading and vocabulary tests the results of which made the following analyses possible.

4.2. Results for the First Research Question

The first research question of the current study was formulated to investigate what kind of knowledge sources and contextual clues the learners accessed to guess the meanings of unfamiliar words. To find an answer to this question, the only concern was to identify the knowledge sources and contextual cues used in lexical inferencing regardless of whether participants succeeded or not in providing the appropriate meanings. The qualitative analyses of the data revealed that participants used a variety of knowledge sources and contextual cues in word inferencing and exploited several other knowledge sources, such as their native language and their background knowledge.

The taxonomy is illustrated by a description of each category accompanied by representative examples. In some of the examples, multiple knowledge sources were used by the participants. Participants made use of *morphology,* or their knowledge of word derivations (stems, prefixes, and suffixes).

Example 1:

P: {Toxic spills, **desertification**, roads, land mines} . . . . **desertification** becoming like a desert . . . . **desertification** . . . . becoming a desert . . . .

I: *How did you know?*

P: The beginning . . . . (desert) the first part, desert is (environmental disaster) it's got to be it.

The participants often made use of cues beyond the target word. This included two main categories: sentence level and discourse level cues. Examples of *sentence level meaning*, when participants used the general meaning of the sentence containing the target word in inferencing, follow:

Example 2:

P: {Caribbean islands **devastated** by} . . . . it may means like destroyed or something like that.

I: How did you know?

P: (just from the meaning, the whole meaning of the sentence) . . . . they tell you how people (**flee** from their country) then he tells you how people (**flee** from their country) then he tells you (by volcanic eruptions so it has to be . . . .)

The participants made use of relationships and meanings beyond sentence level, which were identified as discourse level meaning or formal schemata. *Discourse level* meaning is the general understanding of several related sentences, a paragraph or the text as a whole.

Example 3:

P: I want to see the meaning of the whole paragraph, here (hysterical **media**) does not give the meaning like . . . . surly (media) here has another meaning.

Participants sometimes made use of their general knowledge of the world, the topic of the text and their field of study in lexical inferencing.

Example 4:

P: the word **flee**, **devastated**, and **volcanic** ... (people of . . . . I didn't know where the Montserrat . . . . so that doesn't help me but) . . . . {to flee the Caribbean island} . . . .

I: *What do you think it means?*

P: To leave or . . . .

I: *How did you get to the meaning?*

Results indicate that both proficiency groups used the same types of knowledge sources and contextual cues in lexical inferencing. These sources illustrate the participants' own linguistic and non-linguistic knowledge sources (e.g., background knowledge) interacting with the cues from the target words and the surrounding text.

4.3. Result for the Second Research Question

The second research question of the current study was formulated to investigate what the role of learners' reading proficiency level was in their lexical inferencing in terms of their knowledge sources and context clues they use in the process. To find an answer to this research question, chi-square test was conducted. Table 2 shows the descriptive statistics of the different types of knowledge sources and context clues used by both intermediate and advanced groups, and Table 3 presents the results of the chi-square for this analysis:

Table 2.

Frequencies of Different Types of Knowledge Sources and Context Clues Used by Intermediate and Advanced Learners

		Knowledge Sources and Context Clues					Total
		Background Knowledge	Inferencing	Dictionary	Ignoring the Word	Context Clues	
Proficiency Level	Intermediate	41	19	76	26	38	200
	Advanced	63	31	29	44	71	238
	Total	104	50	105	70	109	438

The frequencies of different types of knowledge sources and context clues used by intermediate and advanced learners are displayed in Table 2 above. As it is clear, for all different types of knowledge sources and context clues (except for dictionary use), the frequencies of for advance learners exceeded the frequencies for intermediate learners. Whether the difference between the frequencies of knowledge sources and contextual clues used by advanced learners or intermediate learners was statistically significant or not had to be determined by the results of the chi-square test:

Table 3.

Chi-Square Results for Comparing Intermediate and Advanced Learners with Regard to Different Types of Knowledge Sources and Context Clues

	Value	*df*	*Asymp. Sig.* (2-tailed)
Pearson Chi-Square	40.19	4	.000
Likelihood Ratio	40.93	4	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	.66	1	.41
N of Valid Cases	438		

The *p* value under the *Asymp. Sig.* (2-tailed) column in front of Pearson Chi-square was less than the specified level of significance (i.e. .000 < .05), indicating that the difference between intermediate and advanced learners in terms of using different types of knowledge sources and contextual clues was statistically significant. To be more precise, the only items that make a difference between these two groups is using dictionary. As you see in Figure1, the intermediate group checked dictionary more than advanced one. Figure 4.1 graphically shows the results obtained for this research question.

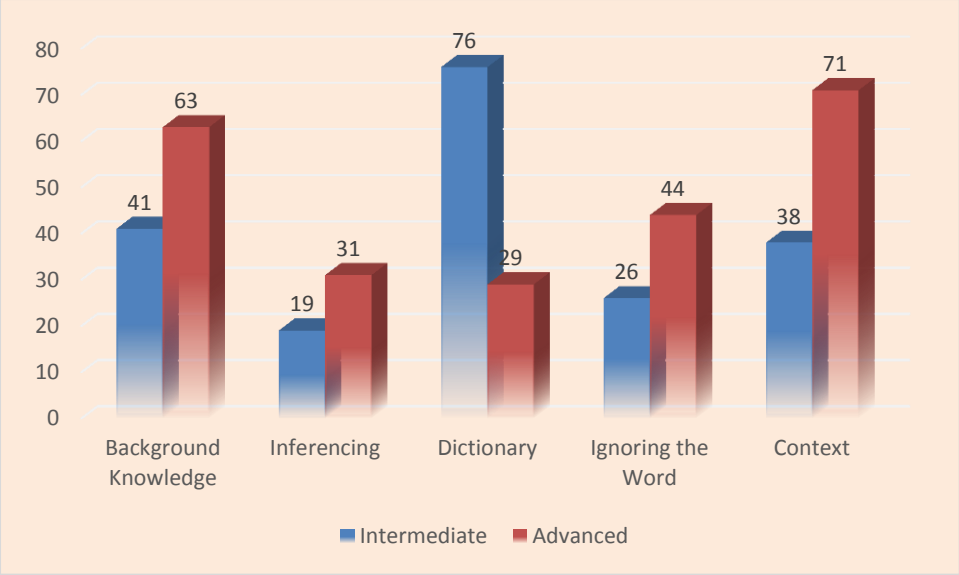

Figure 1.: Knowledge Sources and Context Clues Used by Intermediate and Advanced Learners

4.4. Results for the Third Research Question

The third research question of the current study was formulated to investigate what the role of learners' reading proficiency level was in their lexical inferencing in terms of their rate of success in inferring the correct meaning of unfamiliar words. To come up with an answer to this research question, a reading test containing unfamiliar words, which was commensurate with the level of intermediate learners, was given to the intermediate learners. A similar test, though with a level which suited advanced learners, was administered to advanced learners. This way, the researcher could understand how successfully the learners in the two proficiency groups could infer the meanings of unknown words. An independent-samples *t* test was conducted to compare the scores of intermediate and advanced learners on their relevant reading test. Table 4 depicts the results of descriptive statistics obtained for this purpose.

Table 4.

Descriptive Statistics for Comparing the Scores of Intermediate and Advanced Learners

	Groups	*N*	Mean	*Std.* Deviation	*Std.* Error Mean
Reading Test	Intermediate	10	14.90	1.19	.37
	Advanced	10	16.80	1.68	.53

Such descriptive statistics as mean and standard deviation are shown for both groups in Table 4. The mean score of the intermediate learners (*M* = 14.90) was less than the mean score of the advanced learners (*M* = 16.80). The value of *p* under the *Sig.* (2-tailed) column in Table 5 determines whether this difference between the two mean scores was statistically significant or not.

Table 5

Results of the Independent-Samples t Test for Comparing the Scores of Intermediate and Advanced Learners

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		T-test for Equality of Means						
		F.	*Sig.*	*t*	*df*	*Sig.* (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Reading	Equal Variances	.85	.36	2.90 -	18	.039	1.90 -	.65	-3.27	-.52

Assumed							
Equal Variances not Assumed	-2.90	16.23	.010	-1.90	.65	-3.28	-.51

According to Table 5., there was a statistically significant difference in reading scores for intermediate (*M* =16.80, *SD* =1.68) and advanced learners (*M* = 1.80, *SD*=1.68), *t* (18) = -2.90, *p* = .009 (two-tailed). This is so because the *p* value is less than the specified level of significance (i.e. .05). If the *p* value were greater than the alpha level (that is, the level of significance), the conclusion would be that the two groups were not significantly different in terms of their reading scores. The results of the reading comprehension are also graphically shown in Figure 2.

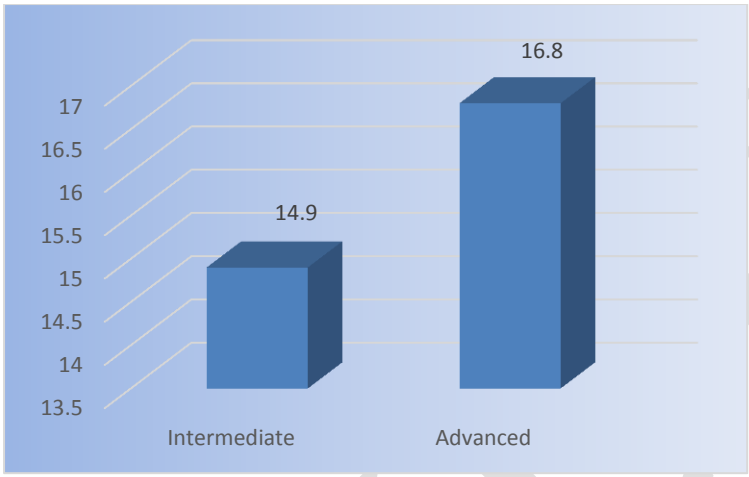

Figure 2: The Mean Reading Scores of Intermediate and Advanced Learners

As it could be seen in Figure 2, the difference between the reading scores of the intermediate and advanced learners was substantial. It could thus be understood that learner's level of proficiency in reading effects on the rate of success in inferring the correct meaning of unfamiliar words.

4.5. Results for the Fourth Research Question

The fourth research question of the current study was formulated to investigate what the role of learners' reading proficiency level was in their lexical inferencing in terms of their rate of learning and retention of previously unknown words? To come up with an answer to this research question, a vocabulary test (VKS) containing the words to be taught during the course was given to the intermediate learners as the pretest. The same test, used as the posttest, was administered to the learners after the completion of the treatment. Finally, this test was used as a delayed posttest after an interval of two weeks. This way, the researcher could understand how successfully the intermediate learners could learn retain the meanings of those words. The same procedure was carried out for advanced learners, the only difference being that the test used for them suited their level of proficiency. To find an answer to this research question, the pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest scores of the participants in the intermediate group were compared via one-way repeated measures ANOVA, and then the same statistical procedure was used for the learners in the advanced group. Table 6. presents the descriptive statistics for the pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest of the intermediate learners.

Table 6. *Descriptive Statistics Results Comparing Pretest, Posttest, and Delayed Posttest Scores of the Intermediate Learners*

	Mean	*Std.* Deviation	*N*
Pretest	.70	1.03	20
Posttest	16.75	5.01	20
Delayed Posttest	14.20	6.04	20

Comparing the intermediate learners' mean scores of the pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest, it could be seen that the posttest mean score exceeded both the pretest and the delayed posttest mean scores. More precisely, the intermediate learners managed to achieve a mean score of 16.75 on the posttest, while their pretest mean score was .70. In addition, their delayed posttest mean score was 14.20. The significance or insignificance of these differences between the pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest scores of the intermediate learners could be determined in the one-way repeated measures ANOVA table below (Table 7).

Table 7. *One-Way Repeated Measures ANOVA Results Comparing Pretest, Posttest, and Delayed Posttest Scores of the Intermediate Learners*

	Value	*F*	Hypothesis *df*	Error *df*	*Sig.*	Partial Eta Squared
Pillai's Trace	.95	180.96	2.00	18.00	.000	.95
Wilks' Lambda	.04	180.96	2.00	18.00	.000	.95
Hotelling's Trace	20.10	180.96	2.00	18.00	.000	.95
Roy's Largest Root	20.10	180.96	2.00	18.00	.000	.95

The *Sig.* value in front of Wilks' Lambda (which is the most widely reported index) in the ANOVA table represented a *p* value lower than the significance level (.000 < .05), indicating that there was a statistically significant difference between the pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest scores of the intermediate group. However, the exact location of the difference had to be determined in the Tukey post-hoc table (Table 8.).

Table 4.8. *Results of the Tukey Post Hoc Test for Comparing Pretest, Posttest, and Delayed Posttest Scores of the EG Learners*

		Mean Difference	*Std.* Error	*Sig.*	95% Confidence Interval for Difference	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Pretest	Posttest	-16.05*	1.04	.000	-18.78	-13.31
	Delayed Posttest	-13.50*	1.28	.000	-16.86	-10.13
Posttest	Pretest	16.05*	1.04	.000	13.31	18.78
	Delayed Posttest	2.55*	.45	.000	1.35	3.74
Delayed Posttest	Pretest	13.50*	1.28	.000	10.13	16.86
	Posttest	-2.55*	.45	.000	-3.74	-1.35

Pair-wise comparisons of pretest-posttest, pretest-delayed posttest, and posttest-delayed posttest are presented in Table 4.8. It could be noticed that the difference between pretest (*M* = .70) and posttest (*M* = 16.75) mean scores of the intermediate learners reached statistical significance since the corresponding *Sig.* value appeared to be lower than the significance level (i.e. .000 < .05). The same was true for the difference between pretest and delayed posttest scores, and for the difference between posttest and delayed posttest scores. This is also graphically shown in the bar chart below.

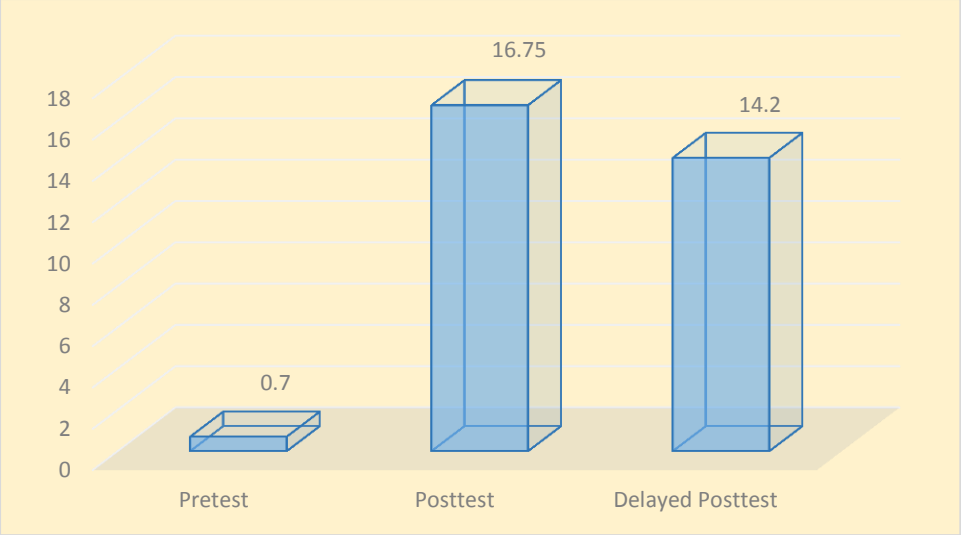

Figure 3: The Pretest, Posttest, and Delayed Posttest Mean Scores of Intermediate Learners

It is well beyond doubt that the intermediate learners had better performances on their posttest and delayed posttest, compared to their pretest performance, and that their posttest mean score surpassed their delayed posttest mean score.

Here are the results for advanced learners: Like what was the case with intermediate learners, the pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest scores of the participants in the advanced group were compared by means of one-way repeated measures ANOVA. Table 9. presents the descriptive statistics for the pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest of the advanced learners.

Table 9. *Descriptive Statistics Results Comparing Pretest, Posttest, and Delayed Posttest Scores of the Advanced Learners*

	Mean	*Std.* Deviation	*N*
Pretest	.15	.36	20
Posttest	23.40	4.21	20
Delayed Posttest	21.60	6.34	20

According to Table 9, the pretest (M = .15), posttest (M = 23.40), and delayed posttest (M = 21.60) mean scores were different from one another. Whether the differences among these three mean scores were of statistical significance or not should be determined in the one-way repeated measures ANOVA table (Table 10.).

Table 10. *One-Way Repeated Measures ANOVA Results Comparing Pretest, Posttest, and Delayed Posttest Scores of the Advanced Learners*

	Value	*F*	Hypothesis *df*	Error *df*	*Sig.*	Partial Eta Squared
Pillai's Trace	.99	1021.42	2.00	18.00	.000	.99
Wilks' Lambda	.009	1021.42	2.00	18.00	.000	.99
Hotelling's Trace	113.49	1021.42	2.00	18.00	.000	.99
Roy's Largest Root	113.49	1021.42	2.00	18.00	.000	.99

The *Sig.* value in front of Wilks' Lambda in Table 10. showed a p value lower than the significance level (.000 < .05), indicating that there was a statistically significant difference between the pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest scores of the advanced learners. Tukey post-hoc table was used in order to find the exact location of the differences.

Table 11. *Results of the Tukey Post Hoc Test for Comparing Pretest, Posttest, and Delayed Posttest Scores of the EPG Learners*

	Mean Difference	*Std.* Error	*Sig.*	95% Confidence Interval for Difference

					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Pretest	Posttest	-23.25*	.92	.000	-25.68	-20.81
	Delayed Posttest	-21.45*	1.40	.000	-25.12	-17.77
Posttest	Pretest	23.25*	.92	.000	20.81	25.68
	Delayed Posttest	1.80*	.54	.011	.38	3.22
Delayed Posttest	Pretest	21.45*	1.40	.000	17.77	25.12
	Posttest	-1.80*	.54	.011	-3.22	-.38

As could be seen in Table 11, the difference between pretest (*M* = .15) and posttest (*M* = 23.40) mean scores of the advanced learners was statistically significant due to the fact that the relevant *Sig.* value was smaller than the significance level (i.e. .000 < .05). Similarly, there was a significant difference between the mean score of posttest (*M* = 23.40) and delayed posttest (*M* = 21.60), and so was the difference between pretest and delayed posttest mean scores. Figure 4. graphically shows the results obtained in this part.

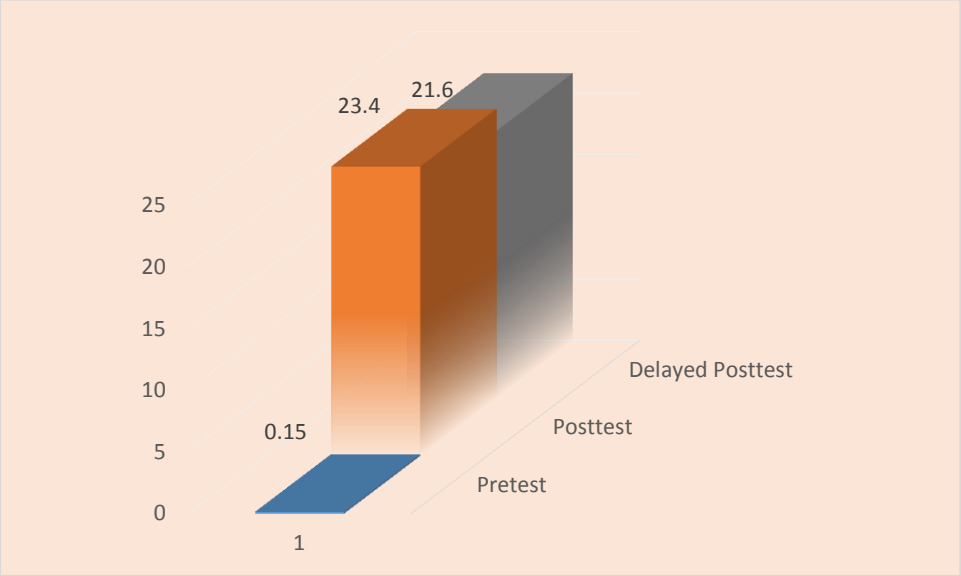

Figure 4: The Pretest, Posttest, and Delayed Posttest Mean Scores of Advanced Learners

It is as clear as the day that the advanced learners' performance on the posttest was far superior to their performance on the pretest, and also better than their performance on the delayed posttest.

To summarize, the same knowledge sources and contextual cues (with the exception of using dictionary) were used by both intermediate and the advanced groups in L2 lexical inferencing. There was no significant difference between two groups in terms of success of inferencing. However, the intermediate group had a significantly higher level of failure in providing appropriate word meanings.

5. Discussion

As mentioned before, the present study aimed to explore the lexical inferencing processes of Iranian university students when they encountered unknown words while reading English texts.

As the results of the study revealed, the participants did not depend only on their knowledge of the target language, but also exploited several other knowledge sources, such as their background knowledge, when inferring the meanings of unknown words while reading English. The findings also indicated that all participants used different kinds of knowledge sources and contextual cues when inferencing.

Sentence level meaning and discourse level meaning were used significantly more often than all the other knowledge sources by all participants irrespective of their reading proficiency level. Also, sentence level meaning was used significantly more often than discourse level meaning by all participants indicating that their main approach was to use local cues. At the discourse level, the participants used formal schemata. This is probably due to the formal, structural type of teaching they received in the L2 in secondary school. The classification of knowledge sources and contextual cues

used in lexical inferencing in the present study are more similar to Paribakht and Wesche's (1999) study and more specifically, in terms of the two main sources: linguistic sources (intralingual and interlingual) and extra linguistic sources (learner's world knowledge).

Another main goal of this study was to examine the effect of the participants' reading proficiency level on their lexical inferencing in terms of the knowledge sources and contextual clues they used in the process. The findings indicated that although both intermediate and advanced proficiency groups made use of wide range of the same knowledge sources and contextual clues when inferring the meanings of unknown target words, they used them in different proportions. Furthermore, both groups in the present study used linguistic sources more often than non-linguistic sources.

Another results of this study revealed that although the intermediate group inferred more target words than the advanced group, there were no significant differences between the two groups in terms of the frequency of their complete or partial success in lexical inferencing. That is, the differences between the two groups in their level of reading proficiency did not appear to significantly affect their level of success in inferring the correct meanings of the target words. In summary, although there were no significant differences between the two groups in terms of success of inferencing, the intermediate group failed more significantly than the advanced group probably because these participants had not reached the same level of reading proficiency as the advanced ones, and had more limited vocabulary knowledge.

For either group alone, the posttest gains did not reach statistical significance. However, there was some evidence of learning and retention over time for the combined sample. These results, indicating minimal word learning and retention, are not surprising. Research shows that even if learners successfully infer the meaning of an unknown word in a reading text, the word may not necessarily be acquired. Research has also shown that intermediate as well as advanced L2 readers "pick up only if a new, hitherto unfamiliar words by just reading for recreational, educational or professional purposes" (Hulstijn et al., 1996, p. 328).

Therefore, the fact that there was some level of learning of previously unknown words may indicate that the inferencing task brought at least some target words to the participants' attention and, therefore, made them salient. The fact that the participants found the reading text very interesting and appealing might have helped them learn some of the words. For example, when asked whether the text was interesting in the retrospective interview, an intermediate student said: "Yes, it's great that people are paying attention to this problem".

5. Conclusion

The result of the study shed some light on the complex process of L2 inferencing and the factors that may affect its outcomes in terms of learners' success in guessing the meaning of unfamiliar words, as well as the rate of learning and retention of these words. The results also help to better understand some of the learners' problems in the process and possible impact on their L2 reading comprehension and L2 vocabulary acquisition. In addition, the taxonomy of the knowledge sources used in lexical inferencing that was developed from this study may be of interest to researchers investigating different L2 learners' lexical inferencing processes in this area.

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A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF SIMPLE TEXT TRANSLATION BASED ON TARGET LANGUAGE EMPHASIS VS. SOURCE LANGUAGE EMPHASIS METHODS AMONG IRANIAN BA TRANSLATION TRAINEES

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ABSTRACT

THE PRESENT STUDY SEEKS TO INVESTIGATE A COMPARISON BETWEEN TARGET-BASED LANGUAGE (TBL) VS. SOURCE-BASED LANGUAGE (SBL) EMPHASIS METHODS OF TRANSLATION AMONG IRANIAN BA TRANSLATION TRAINEES. IT IS VIEWED THAT SBL REFERS TO SEMANTIC AND TBL REFERS TO COMMUNICATIVE METHODS OF TRANSLATION. IN ORDER TO FIND AN ANSWER FOR THE QUESTION OF THIS RESEARCH, 45 TRANSLATION STUDENTS OUT OF 60 AT RASHT ISLAMIC AZAD UNIVERSITY WERE SELECTED VIA ADMINISTERING OXFORD QUICK PLACEMENT TEST. THEN THEY WERE DIVIDED INTO THREE GROUPS OF 15 AND WERE RANDOMLY ASSIGNED TWO EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS A, B AND ONE CONTROL GROUP C. AFTER PRETESTING OF TRANSLATION WHICH WAS ADMINISTERED TO THREE GROUPS, THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP A RECEIVED SBL METHODS AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUP B RECEIVED TBL METHOD OF TRANSLATION FOR EIGHT SESSIONS (ONCE A WEEK, 45 MINUTES) BY A TRANSLATION INSTRUCTOR OF RASHT ISLAMIC AZAD UNIVERSITY WHILE THERE WAS NO TREATMENT FOR THE CONTROL GROUP. AFTER TREATMENT PERIOD, THERE WAS POSTTEST OF TRANSLATION; IT WAS ADMINISTERED TO ALL GROUPS. TWO SETS OF DATA OBTAINED FROM THE PRETEST AND THE POSTTEST SCORES WERE ANALYZED (USING SPSS SOFTWARE) THROUGH CALCULATING DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS, A PAIRED SAMPLES *T*-TEST AND ONE-WAY ANOVA. THE RESULTS REVEALED THAT THE IRANIAN TRANSLATION STUDENTS IN EXPERIMENTAL GROUP B WHO RECEIVED TBL METHOD OF TRANSLATION ATTAINED THE HIGHEST SCORES IN TRANSLATION TEST (POSTTEST). IT CAN BE

CONCLUDED THAT THERE IS A STATISTICALLY DIFFERENCE BETWEEN SBL AND TBL METHODS OF TRANSLATION IN THE ROUTE OF RENDERING A ST INTO TT.

KEY WORDS: TBL, SBL, INTERCULTURAL COMPETENCE, TARGET CULTURE

1. Introduction

Nida and Taber (1969) explained the process of translating as, translating consists of reproducing in the receptor language the closest natural equivalent of the source language message, first in terms of meaning and secondly in terms of style. Translation, involving the transposition of thoughts expressed in one language by one social group into the appropriate expression of another group, entails a process of cultural de-coding, re-coding and en-coding. As cultures are increasingly brought into greater contact with one another, it is the cultural aspect of the text that should be taken into account. "Translation involves the rendering of a source language (SL) text into the target language (TL) so as to ensure that (1) the surface meaning of the two will be approximately similar and (2) the structure of the SL will be preserved as closely as possible, but not so closely that the TL structure will be seriously distorted" (McGuire, 1980, p. 2).

The current study analyzes the comparison between simple text translating based on target language emphasis vs. source language emphasis methods among Iranian BA translation trainees. There is a distinction between source language and target language; in the first step, a brief comparison between them is made. In translation, the source language is the language being translated from; it is the antonym of the target language, which is the language being translated to. Part of the difficulty in translation arises due to the lexical gap between the source language and the target language. The necessity of translation arises from that gap, especially between two languages belonging to different language families. In most professional settings, the source language is also the translator's second language. The process typically begins with a full and in-depth analysis of the original text in the source language, ensuring full comprehension and understanding before the actual act of translating is approached (Hatim & Munday, 2005).While, the target language is the language being translated to; it is the antonym of the source language, which is the language being translated from. In most professional settings, the target language is also the translator's first language. Translation for specific or professional topic areas often require a working knowledge of those terminologies in the target language as well. For example, the translation of a legal text requires not only fluency in the target language but also a familiarity with the terminology specific to the legal field in the target language. While the form and style of the source language often cannot be reproduced in the target language, the meaning and content can. Linguist Roman Jakobson went as far as to claim that all cognitive experience can be classified and expressed in any living language (FéRailleur-Dumoulin, 2009).

In translation, most often, it was seen that the translated text carries either more or less information than the original text. As a result, Iranian translation students may face some problems to reach the real meaning. There are some particular problems in their translation processes: problems of ambiguity, problems that originate from structural and lexical differences between two languages and multiword units like idioms and collocations. Actually, such phenomena are due to over-translation and under-translation which consist of reproducing in TL the non-equivalence of SL message, in terms of meaning or style. One of the most significant current comparative study is to explore the best method of translation work for teaching Iranian BA translation students (i.e., target-based language emphasis or source-based language emphasis). Nowadays, in a world characterized by global communication, translation plays a key role in exchanging information between languages. To move along the natural and professional continuum of conveying the meaning from one particular language into another, a translator needs to learn some skills, strategies and methods as well as a perfect knowledge of both the source and the target languages. Another significant point of this study involves the perception and application of translation based on similarities and differences even big or subtle between two languages as a delicate art. It appreciates faithfulness nature of source text to target text like a painting which renders the realistic nature of a highland or mountainside skillfully.

Moreover, considering the emphasis and importance placed on English translation ability, the researcher of the present study felt the urge and need to investigate two basic methods of translation training, namely, TBL and SBL to promote the translating skill of Iranian BA translation students, and find an answer for the following question: Is there any statistically significant difference between

target-based language emphasis and source-based language emphasis methods in teaching simple text translation among BA translation trainees?

2. Literature Review

According to Newmark (1988), the first traces of translation dates back from 3000 BC, the Egyptian Old Kingdom, in the area of First Cataract, Elephantine, where inscriptions in two languages have been found. It became a significant factor in the West in 300 BC. Luther's Bible translation in 1522 laid the foundations of modern German and King James's Bible (1611) had a seminal influence on English language and literature. Significant periods of translation preceded Shakespeare and his contemporaries, French classicism and the Romantic Movements. Newmark (1981) divided translation into two types: semantic and communicative as two methods of translation. According to him, word-for-word, literal, faithful and semantic translations are SBL translation, while communicative, idiomatic, free translation and adaptation are target-based language translation. Semantic and communicative translation fulfill the two main aims of translation, which are first, accuracy, and second, economy. A semantic translation is more likely to be economical than a communicative translation, unless, for the latter, the text is poorly written. In general, a semantic translation is written the author's linguistic level, a communicative at the readership's level. Semantic translation is used for "expressive" texts, communicative for "informative and vocative" texts.

The field of translation has advanced along with scientific lines, particularly with the work of Nida (1914-2011) using linguistics as a point of departure. Dooley (2005) investigated the SL vs. TL discourse features in translating the word of God. According to him, in doing a translation it seems reasonable to assume, at least as a default position, that target-language discourse features should be favored. After all, discourse features are a matter of linguistic form and it is not primarily form that is to be transferred, but meaning. However, in the aforementioned early work on discourse in relation to Bible translation, it appears that there was a tacit possibility for using source-language features on a certain hierarchical level of discourse organization (Dooley, 2005). In addition, Miaomiao (2014) studied on the semantic and communication translation of magical things in *Harry Potter*. He believes that Semantic translation (SBL) aims at replicating the original texts' forms within the target language, reproducing the original context, and retaining the characters of the SL culture in the translation. In contrast, communicative translation (TBL) centers on the specific language and culture and focuses on the TL readers. The translation under this method is clear, smooth and concise. According to Miaomiao, although semantic translation has some differences from the traditional "word-for-word translation"—the former takes the context into account while the latter does not— they are almost the same, both loyal to the original text and culture. In this respect, he continued that Semantic translation from the pronunciation level refers to abiding by the pronunciation rules and adopts the way of transliteration in the translation process. This kind of translation method is often used in the translation of names and proper nouns. In the magical world of *Harry Potter*, there are numerous things that do not exist in the reality.

According to Jakobson (1959), translation is not only between two languages but also between two versions or dialects of the same language which he considers "intralingual translation". He proposes three categories:

• *Intralingual translation or rewording*: an interpretation of verbal signs by means of other signs in the same language.

• *Interlingual translation or translation proper*: an interpretation of verbal signs by means of some other language.

• *Intersemiotic translation or transmutation*: an interpretation of verbal signs by means of signs of nonverbal sign systems.

Having established these three types, of which interlingual translation properly describes the process of transfer from SL to TL. Jakobson went on immediately to point to the central problem in all types: that while messages may serve as adequate interpretations of code units or messages, there is ordinarily no full equivalence through translation. Even apparent synonymy does not yield equivalence, and Jakobson (1959) showed how intralingual translation often has to resort to a combination of code units in order to fully interpret the meaning of a single unit.

2.1. Translation competence

A consensus on the definition of written translation competence has not been achieved yet. Different authors actually identified translation competence differently; Transfer competence (Nord, 1991), translational competence (Chesterman, 2003). According to Neubert (1991), translation requires a set of complex skills and knowledge about translation (Neubert, 2000) and translation competence includes some specific skills such as language competence, text competence, the subject area knowledge, culture competence and transfer competence. Transfer competence plays an active role in rendering the texts produced in the source language into the target language, and also covers translation methods and techniques necessary for handling of the translation task quickly and efficiently (Wilss, 1984). Therefore, without transfer competence, translators fail to perform the rendering of the source text into the target language. It can be included that three main skills translators should actually have; namely receptive competence, productive competence and meta-translational competence. "Due to the highly complex nature of translation, translation is not an activity based on the mere language acquisition. On the contrary, it requires different sub-competences" (Kelly, 2005, p. 28).

2.2. Target-Based Language (TBL) Method of Translation

Newmark (1988) suggested different methods of translation. According to him, Target-Based Language (TBL) method of translation refers to "communicative" translation which includes idiomatic, free and adaptation ways of translation. Communicative translation attempts to render the exact contextual meaning of the original in such a way that both content and language are readily acceptable and comprehensible to the readership.

Idiomatic translation: idiomatic translation reproduces the "message" of the original but tends to distort nuances of meaning by preferring colloquialisms and idioms where these do not exist in the original.

Free translation: free translation reproduces the matter without the manner, or the content without the form of the original. Usually it is a paraphrase much longer than the original, a so-called "intralingual translation", often prolix and pretentious, and not translation at all.

Adaptation: this is the "freest" form of translation. It is used mainly for plays (comedies) and poetry; the themes, characters, plots are usually preserved, the SL culture converted to the TL culture and the text rewritten. The deplorable practice of having a play or poem literally translated and then rewritten by an established dramatist or poet has produced many poor adaptations, but other adaptations have "rescued" period plays.

Catford believed that free translation is interchangeable with the SL text in a situation. The following example shows a TBL method of translation which is a lexical adaptation to TL idiomatic aspect (Catford, 1965, p. 25):

SL Text It is raining cats and dogs.
TL Text باران شلاقی می بارد.

2.3. Source-Based Language (SBL) Method of Translation

According to Newmark (1995), SBL method of translation refers to semantic translation which includes word-for-word, literal, faithful way of translation. He believes that semantic translation differs from "faithful translation" only in as far as it must take more account of the aesthetic value (that is, the beautiful and natural sound) of the SL text, compromising on "meaning" where appropriate so that no assonance, world-play or repetition jars in the finished version. Further, it may translate less important cultural words by culturally neutral third or functional terms but not by cultural equivalents and it may make other small concessions to the readership. The distinction between "faithful" and "semantic" translation is that the first is uncompromising and dogmatic, while the second is more flexible, admits the creative exception to 100% fidelity and allows for the translator's intuitive empathy with the original.

Word-for-word translation: this is often demonstrated as interlinear translation, with the TL immediately below the SL words. The SL word-order is preserved and the words translated singly by their most common meanings, out of context. Cultural words are translated literally. The main use of word-for-word translation is either to understand the mechanics of the source language or to construe a difficult text as a pre-translation process.

Literal translation: the SL grammatical constructions are converted to their nearest TL equivalents but the lexical words are again translated singly, out of context. As a pre-translation process, this indicates the problems to be solved.

Faithful translation: a faithful translation attempts to reproduce the precise contextual meaning of the original within the constraints of the TL grammatical structures. It "transfers" cultural words and preserves the degree of grammatical and lexical "abnormality" (deviation from SL norms) in the translation. It attempts to be completely faithful to the intentions and the text-realization of the SL writer.

The following example shows a SBL method of translation which is a word-for-word translation (Catford, 1965, p. 25):

SL Text It is raining cats and dogs.
TL Text باران گربه و سگ می بارد.

It is also worth mentioning that Toury (2005) sees different kinds of norms operating at different stages of the translation process. The basic initial norm refers to a general choice made by translators. Thus, translators can subject themselves to the norms realized in the SL or to the norms of the target culture or language. If it is towards the SL, then the TL will be adequate; if the target culture norms prevail, then the TL will be acceptable. The poles of adequacy and acceptability are on a continuum since no translation is ever totally adequate or totally acceptable. Shifts-obligatory and non-obligatory are inevitable, norm-governed and "a true universal of translation. The norms described by Toury are:

● Operational norms describe the presentation and linguistic matter of the TL.
● Matricial norms relate to the completeness of the TL. This phenomenon includes omission or relocation of passages, textual, segmentation, and the addition of passages or footnotes.
● Textual-Iinguistic norms govern the selection of TL linguistic material: lexical items, phrases and stylistic features.

3. Method

Pretest, treatment, posttest design based on quasi-experimental design was employed to test SBL and TBL methods of translation of Iranian BA students' translation abilities. The type of research is applied research, which tries to improve a product or a process-testing theoretical concept in actual problem situations. It attempts to develop generalizations about teaching-learning process, instructional materials, the behavior of students and ways to modify it, and so on.

3.1. Participants

Participants of this study were consisted of 60 female and male students ranging 19-32 years old. They were all native speakers of Persian and their major was English translation. It should be mentioned that the research was done with the help of an instructor at the university. The participants had experienced QPT (version 1) to make sure that the study enjoys homogeneous participants with respect to their English language proficiency to be able to take part in translating classes. The participants took four parts that included items related to structure, vocabulary, reading comprehension, and writing with a maximum possible score of 70 points. Of the whole participants, 15 were excluded due to their inadequate English proficiency for the purpose of the study. Being homogenized by QPT, 45 participants were selected as the main sample that were then randomly divided into three groups, one control group to receive placebo and two experimental groups to receive two different treatments. Each group comprising of 15 participants (control group = 3 males and 12 females, experimental group A = 4 males and 11 females and experimental B = 2 males and 13 females) totally 45 participants.

Group (A) included 15 participants received an 8-session of treatment schedules on SBL method of translation as the word-for-word, faithful and literal strategies. In this way, the instructor provided them correct forms of semantic method of translation which focuses on the SL form for students' production (translating ST into TT), and the students needed to decided which sentence was correct based on that method. Group (B) included 15 participants received an 8-session of training programs on TBL method of translation as idiomatic, free and adaptation strategies in which the instructor provided them correct forms of communicative method of translation which emphasizes the meaning in TL for students' translated ST into TT. Training programs for both experimental groups involved 8 sessions once a week for 45 minutes. Group (C) included 15 participants received placebo or no

treatment of emphasizing any specific method of translation, and also, the control group followed the same schedule as the experimental groups (A and B), receiving the same amount of training over the 8-week (8 sessions, once a week 45 minutes) period with the researcher.

3.2. Materials

The materials used for conducting the research were instructional and testing materials. In the instructional materials, the instructor made an attempt to make the students familiarize with the concept of SBL as semantic method of translation and TBL as communicative method of translation by applying explicit instruction, which was unknown to almost every student in the classroom and then attracted with a lot of interests. The instructor explained how word-for-word or sense-for-sense method of translation was used as SBL and TBL in different texts, specifically in translating English text into Persian linguistically and culturally. At this stage, the nature of main area was revealed and the students' attention was oriented to the goal of the study and the point that the major emphasis during the research was using SBL and TBL methods of translation of ST into TT for organization of their knowledge of linguistic and communicative systems of two languages as one of the assessment criteria in scoring the participants' translating tasks.

In the testing material, three independent tests were administered. The first one was "QPT" for determining the participants' English proficiency level. The second one was "Pretesting", in this section a piece of text was given to the three groups to assess the translation ability of them before the treatment program. Students were supposed to translate the given source text (English) into target text (Persian) within 45 minutes. The participants were asked to use SBL (word-for-word) or TBL (sense-for-sense) in translating so researcher was able to measure students' accuracy based on these features of translating strategies. For this step, two raters rated the papers. To make sure of the consistency of the scores, inter-rater reliability was calculated. The score of each participant then was the average of the scores given by the two raters. The third one was "Posttesting", it was administered at the end of the eighth week of the treatment program. The participants were again required to translate a paragraph with just one method of translation (SBL or TBL) within 45 minutes. Those papers were collected and rated by the same raters of the pretest phase. Inter-rater reliability was calculated again, and the average of the scores given by the two raters was considered as the final score of each participant.

3.3. Procedures for Data Collection and Data Analysis

The present study was conducted based on quasi- experimental design which consisted of three steps for collecting data: pretest, treatment and posttest. Participants of this study were selected from three intact classes included 45 out of 60 translation students in second semester at Rasht, Islamic Azad University at 2015-2016 academic year. They were taught by the same instructor and met once a week, each session 45 minutes of translation instruction. Between pretest and posttest, the control group received no formal translation training emphasizing SBL or TBL, but two experimental groups (A and B) received an 8-session treatment schedule through the training program of two kinds of SBL and TBL methods of translation. In addition, the materials were based on students' curriculum course book and the treatment was covered through different classroom activities such as translating poems, short stories, an Ayeh from Persian Qur'an, and so on. The participants' translated texts were corrected based on emphasizing on SBL in the group A class or TBL in the group B class by their instructor in the way that each student read her/his translation of ST. While, the erroneous translated sentence of group C just were underlined without any emphasizing to SBL or TBL methods of translation. After collecting the data through the pretest and the posttest, the researcher investigated the hypothesis in order to answer the research question. The data available for the analysis consisted of translating scores (the pretest and the posttest). The results obtained of two sets of data were statistically analyzed through descriptive statistics (comprising means, standard deviations and variances) followed by inferential statistics, namely, one-way ANOVA and a paired samples *t*-test.

4. Results

The results are presented in two parts: The first part deals with pretest (pre-training), and the second part presents posttest (post-training) which were concluded short texts to translate (from the given source text (English) into target text (Persian). As it was shown in Tables 1 and 2, it was revealed non-significant differences between the results obtained from three group scores in pretest

before translation training program. The subjects were nearly at similar level in terms of their English translating ability.

Table 1:
Descriptive statistics of the experimental and control groups for the pretest scores

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Exp. A	15	16.06	2.15	4.62
Exp. B	15	16.13	2.58	6.65
Con.	15	14.60	2.69	7.23
Total	45	15.60	2.62	6.86

Table 2:
Descriptive analysis of one-way ANOVA for the pretest scores

One-way ANOVA results							
95% Confidence Interval of the Difference							
Groups	N	df.	SED	F	sig.(two-tailed)	Lower	Upper
Exp. A & Exp. B & Con.	45	42	0.39	1.688	1.97	14.81	16.38

The results of the pretest showed that the mean of the control group ($M_{\text{control group}}$ = 14.60), mean of the experimental group A ($M_{\text{experimental group (A)}}$ = 16.06), and mean of the experimental group (B) ($M_{\text{experimental group (B)}}$ = 16.13), did not differ statistically. In other words, the mean difference was not statistically significant for the pretest scores of translating before initiating the specific treatments for the experimental groups. Table 4.5 displays the results of one-way ANOVA for the pretest scores of translating. Results indicated that there was no statistically significant difference in students' translating ability on the pretest scores across the groups (F = 1.688 with df = 42, $p_{\text{translating test}}$ .197 ≥ .05). The significance value of the F test in the ANOVA table was higher than alpha (α = .05) for the pretest scores of translating. As a result, the non-significant F test revealed that the population means on test of translating were similar at the beginning of the study. It implies that the average assessment scores of translating ability were equal across the three groups at the beginning of the study.

While the results of posttest after training program (Tables 3 and 4) indicated a significant variation between experimental and control groups. In general, a comparison between the results obtained from both tests at the beginning and end of the study revealed expressive differences.

Table 3:
Descriptive statistics of experimental and control groups for the posttest scores

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Exp. A	15	17.13	2.03	4.12
Exp. B	15	18.53	1.30	1.69
Con.	15	14.86	2.35	5.52
Total	45	16.84	2.43	5.90

The results of the descriptive statistics for the posttest showed that the mean of the control group ($M_{\text{control group}}$ = 14.86), mean of the experimental group A ($M_{\text{experimental group (A)}}$ = 17.13), and mean of the *experimental group (B)* ($M_{\text{experimental group (B)}}$ =18.53), differed significantly. The significance value of the *F* test in the ANOVA table was less than α = .05.

Table 4:
Descriptive analysis of one-way ANOVA for the posttest scores

One-way ANOVA results
95% Confidence Interval of the

Difference							
Groups	**N**	**df.**	**SED**	**F**	**sig.(two-tailed)**	**Lower**	**Upper**
Exp. A & Exp. B & Con.	45	42	0.39	13.549	.000	16.11	17.57

Thus, the hypothesis that average assessment scores of the translating ability (posttest) were equal across the three groups was rejected (F = 13.549, Sig. = .000 ≤ .05). Figure 1 illustrates mean plots for the results of the posttest of the students' translating.

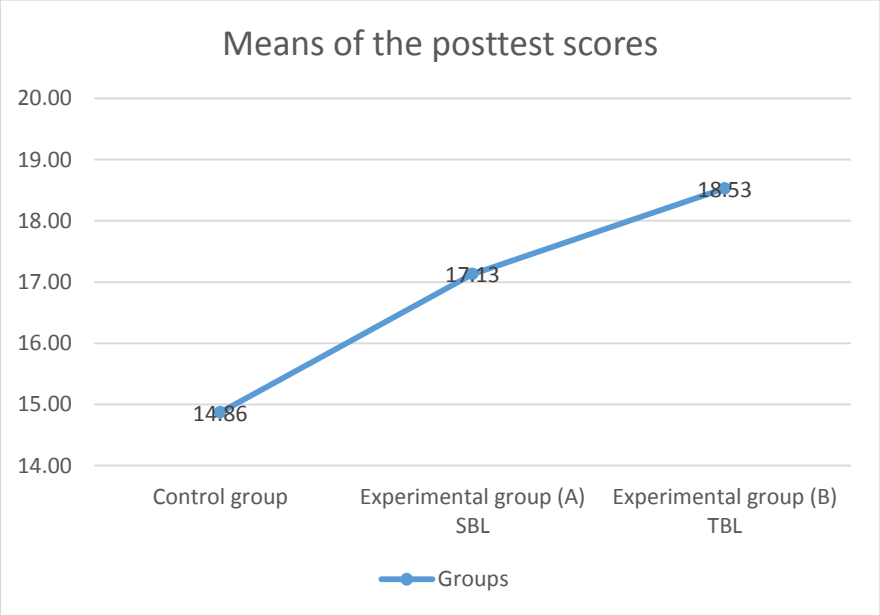

Figure 1: Mean plots for the results of the posttest of translating test

The findings of *F* statistics verified that there was statistically significant differences among the three groups' mean scores, and means plots showed the location of these differences. The participants of the experimental group B who worked on TBL method of translation outperformed their counterparts namely the control group (C) and the experimental group (A) who worked on SBL method of translation. After confirming that the three groups differed in some way, the detailed structure of the differences was scrutinized through doing multiple comparisons.
In order to investigate the extent of the students' progression within groups, three paired samples *t*-tests were also run, which showed the subjects' progress in the pretest and the posttest (see Tables 5).

Table 5
Paired samples statistics for the pretest and the posttest scores of three groups

Paired Samples Statistics						
Groups			Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Control group	Pair 1	Pretest scores	14.6000	15	2.69391	.69556
		Posttest scores	14.8667	15	2.35635	.60841
Experimental group (A) SBL	Pair 1	Pretest scores	16.0667	15	2.15362	.55606
		Posttest scores	17.1333	15	2.03072	.52433
Experimental group (B) TBL	Pair 1	Pretest scores	16.1333	15	2.85023	.73593
		Posttest scores	18.5333	15	1.30201	.33618

As it was shown in Table 5, the mean scores of the control group improved from (14.60) in the pretest to (14.86) in the posttest. With respect to the performance of the participants in the experimental group (A), the mean score increased from (16.06) in the pretest to (17.13) in the posttest, and finally,

the mean of the experimental group (B) group improved from (16.13) in the pretest to (18.53) in the posttest.

5. Discussion

It is necessary to understand the concept of translation as mentioned by many translation theorists to obtain an overall picture of the translation process. Bassnett (1990) stated that translation is closely related to the reading process. Hatim and Mason (1990) suggested that translation is a process involving the negotiation of meaning between producers and receivers of the text. Picken (1993) defined that general translation is a method of transferring oral and written messages from writing to speech or from one language to another. Nida (1974) cited by Jiraphatralikhit , Klinpoon, and Kaewjan (2005), believed that translating consists of reproducing in the receptor language the closest natural equivalent of the source language message, first in terms of meaning and second in terms of style. Catford (1965, as cited in Jiraphatralikhit *et al*., 2005) viewed translation as the replacement of textual material in one language (SL) by the equivalent text material in another language (TL). Besides, one of the most prominent definitions of translation was stated by Newmark (1988, p. 5) who defined translation as "rendering the meaning of a text into another language in the way that the author intended the text". This definition stresses on rendering meaning of the source language text into the target language text as what is intended by the author. Hatim and Munday (2004, p. 6) defined translation as "the process of transferring a written text from SL to TL". In this definition they do not explicitly express that the object being transferred is meaning or message. This study found that they emphasize on translation as a linguistic and sociolinguistic process but they do not hint to the psychological process of translation in the route of rendering ST into TT via mental and cognitive process.

Correspondingly, Nida and Taber (1969, p. 12) stated that "translating consists in reproducing in the receptor language the closest natural equivalent of the source language message". This definition is more comprehensive than the previous ones. Nida and Taber explicitly stated that translation is closely related to the problems of languages, meaning, and equivalence. Machali (2001) and Baker (1992) underlined the term meaning equivalence because it is the meaning which is transferred in the target language. In this case, translators are faced with text as unit of meaning in the form of sets of words or sentences. This study explored that translation involves reading the source text, understanding and analyzing and then reformulating it in the target language for a specific target audience. It has a significant mental component. That is to say, it involves mental activities, contrastive analysis, applied linguistic analysis, discourse, cultural and intercultural analysis between ST and TT. Figure 2 indicates the process of rendering SL text into TL text:

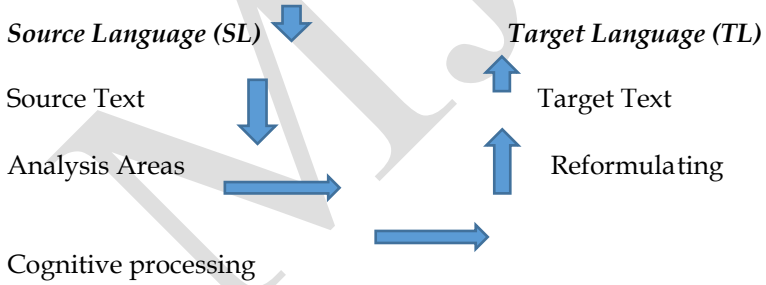

Figure 2: The process of rendering SL to TL

In closing, a plausible method of teaching translation would be a balanced-based of SL and TL method of translation which considers and maintains the bidirectional language frameworks and constraints of two languages from analysis areas (linguistic, psycholinguistic, sociolinguistic and cultural) to reformulating a ST into TT in the process of translation. The central core of balanced-based of SL and TL method of translation is an emphasis either form or meaning.

The major goal of conducting this research is providing a link between theory and practice to adapt an appropriate and practical approach to translation training at the BA translation students, and to find plausible ways for solving or minimizing their translation difficulties. The perspective of the present investigation takes beyond the focus of the SBL and TBL methods of translation. This study attempts to highlight the Iranian instructors' role in "scaffolding" for manageable translation

methods of students' learning opportunities to BA students by providing more explicit support and translation inputs in their initial English translation learning through various strategies, activities and practices in order that Iranian students to become more able and independent in their translating ability.

Incorporating SBL and TBL should be designed in translation course-books based on certain producing tasks to engage translation students' productive ability towards a successful translation. These phenomena can help translation trainees become active and productive students with a high conceptual and habitual language learning which reinforces and fosters their creativity and self-awareness as well as enhances their sense of retention, understanding, problem-solving ability and their classroom performances. Hence, it will be very useful to add this knowledge as an English translation skill in Iranian BA translation students' course-books.

6. Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to examine the effect of SBL and TBL methods of translation in the improvement of Iranian BA translation students' translating ability. It is proposed that the students' translation of ST into TT would greatly influence early on their linguistic, sociolinguistic and cultural/intercultural knowledge as well as other skills. Lack of this knowledge in Iranian English translation curriculum design of material developing has made a lot of difficulties for BA translation students. SL and TL awareness as a translating skill serves not only to semantic and communicative aspects but also to the students' language production (translating, speaking and writing) toward fostering their English fluency and accuracy. Training SBL and TBL methods of translation proved to be effective in making students' progress in translating abilities in terms of content, organization, conception and comprehension of translating a text from one language to another. In addition, as frequently emphasized by different translation scholars, the issue of translation and its complex relationship with language in terms of SBL and TBL items are among the most problematic issues that a translator or interpreter may face. Accordingly, the issue will be also important to those people who are going to teach and/or evaluate how to translate different texts or pieces of speech from one language into another.

Consequently, within SBL and TBL translation the work to be done is also clearly obvious. There is a need for a comprehensive study of SBL and TBL methods of translation with a view to establishing a theory, and there is a need for much more serious attention to be given to the specific problems of SBL and TBL translation. Applying SBL and TBL methods of translation is neither the only way nor the best way to improve students' translating ability. There are many methodological issues which need to be explored in order to enhance students' translating ability. However, one of important considerations in minimizing or overcoming Iranian translation students' translating difficulties is to help them master cognitively and productively on the SBL and TBL aspects of rendering ST into TT.

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MJLTM

THE EFFECT OF INDIVIDUALIZATION VERSUS COLLABORATION ON THE ACCURCY OF WRITTEN GRAMMAR

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ABSTRACT
THE PRESENT STUDY AIMED AT INVESTIGATING THE EFFECT OF COLLABORATION ON THE IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS' WRITING ACCURACY. SIXTY IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS IN AN EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUP PARTICIPATED IN THIS STUDY. THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP COMPLETED THE WRITING TASKS COLLABORATIVELY WHILE THE CONTROL GROUP PERFORMED THE SAME TASK INDIVIDUALLY. BOTH GROUPS PARTICIPATED IN SIX COMPOSITION WRITING SESSIONS. THE PARTICIPANTS WROTE ON THE SAME TOPICS AND GENRES. REGARDING THE ACCURACY OF INDIVIDUALLY PRODUCED AND COLLABORATIVELY PRODUCED COMPOSITIONS IN TERMS OF VERB TENSE, WORD ORDER AND SUBJECT/VERB AGREEMENT, THE RESEARCHER FOUND CONTRADICTORY RESULTS. REGARDING THE SUBJECT/VERB AGREEMENT, IN BOTH COLLABORATIVE AND INDIVIDUAL COMPOSITIONS, THE FREQUENCY OF THIS TYPE OF ERROR WAS ROUGHLY THE SAME. WORD ORDER ERRORS IN COLLABORATIVE COMPOSITIONS WERE HIGHER THAN IN INDIVIDUAL COMPOSITIONS. MEANWHILE, TAKING THE VERB TENSE INTO ACCOUNT, THE COLLABORATIVELY PRODUCED COMPOSITIONS WERE MORE ACCURATE THAN THOSE INDIVIDUALLY PRODUCED COMPOSITIONS. IT WAS CONCLUDED THAT INDIVIDUALLY WRITTEN COMPOSITIONS HAD MORE ERRORS THAN COLLABORATIVELY PRODUCED ESSAYS, SUGGESTING THAT INDIVIDUAL WRITING WAS LESS ACCURATE. WRITING TEACHERS CAN PROVIDE OPPORTUNITIES FOR STUDENTS TO INTERACT AND WORK COLLABORATIVELY IN SMALL GROUPS. IN THIS WAY, STUDENTS CAN BECOME MORE AUTONOMOUS LANGUAGE LEARNERS AS THEY CAN EXCHANGE KNOWLEDGE, SKILLS, AND STRATEGIES.

KEYWORDS: COLLABORATIVE WRITING, INDIVIDUAL WRITING, ACCURACY, COOPERATIVE LEARNING, WRITING PERFORMANCE

1. Introduction

Over the last decade, research on writing has received a lot of ink in the review of the literature and it has been regarded as one of the most important communicative skills in English language teaching (e.g., Hayes & Flower, 1986; Sharples, Goodlet, & Pymberton, 1989). The ability to write effectively and fluently in English is becoming increasingly important in today's modern world, since communication through language has become more and more essential.

In fact, writing is mostly a hard-laden task and skill for both native and non-native speakers, Iranian EFL learners being no exception. Over time, the interest in a more communicative approach to language teaching has resulted in the growth of pair work in second language contexts (Hawkey,

2004). This provides language learners with opportunities to interact in collaborative situations, in which two or more learners do activities together. For a situation to be collaborative, the pairs should be more or less at the same level.

According to Roschelle and Teasley (1995), collaboration is a coordinated, synchronous activity that results from a continued endeavor attempt to build and maintain a shared conception of a problem. It has been said that students can learn best in a more learner-centered, collaborative learning context compared with individualistic and competitive learning settings (Johnson & Johnson, 1994).

Collaborative writing is an iterative and social process that involves a group focused on a common objective that negotiates, coordinates, and communicates during the creation of a common document (Lowry et al., 2004) through mutual interactions, shared expertise and joint decision-making throughout the whole process (Yong, 2006). Collaborative writing is underpinned by Vygotsky's sociocultural theory, where social interaction is an integral component of learning. An aspect of this theory relevant to collaborative writing is the concept of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) where group members use mediational means collaboratively to create, obtain, and communicate meaning (Moll, 1989). Scaffolding is a construct related to ZPD and the Vygotskian premise of learning as a socially constructed process.

Studies conducted on the effects of collaborative writing on overall writing performance found improvements in students' writing. Students' writings were found to be more grammatically accurate (Storch, 1999; Storch, 2005; Wigglesworth & Storch, 2009), more linguistically complex (Storch, 2005), and had better content, organization and vocabulary (Shehadeh, 2012). In general, the students had positive perceptions of collaborative writing. Positive responses included pooling of resources and opportunities to compare ideas (Storch, 2005), perceived academic and social benefits (Brown, 2007), and a sense of accomplishment from editing each other's work (Chao & Lo, 2011).

The basic assumption behind the research was hence to find out the effect of collaboration on the writing orthography and accuracy of tense use. This has been previously done by Wigglesworth and Storch (2009) on EFL advanced-level learners but the writers focused on collaboration in an assessment context. As a result, the present study aimed to investigate whether collaboration between members of a pair helps them to write more accurate texts through interacting, giving and receiving feedback from each other. Similarly, the current study also tried to examine the influence of collaboration and pair working for duration of five sessions to compare the degree of improvement in the writing orthography of text written individually or in pairs.

1.2. Collaborative Writing

Collaborative writing is gaining prominence because it provides an alternative to the individualistic and competitive atmosphere of learning to a more cooperative method of learning to write (Bosley, 1993; Dale, 1997). Collaboration helps students to value peers' contribution to the group instead of focusing on individual achievement. Students also get to know one another and learn from group members in a natural way and in a safe social environment.

Collaborative writing is therefore different from other forms of group work in the writing class in that it encompasses every group member's effort and participation at every stage of the writing process, from planning through composing to revision. It is the sharing of responsibility over the production of a single piece of work through the pooling of resources, negotiation, and decision making. In short, what makes collaborative writing different from other group work is its inclusion of the entire writing process and its social contexts among peers who share in the production of a single document.

1.3. Collaborative Writing Process

While research continues to focus on individual writing processes, students involved in collaborative writing projects have been found to use processes similar to those used by students when writing individually. According to Southavilay, Yacef and Calvo (2010), the collaborative writing process begins with adding text and editing text to develop a document.

Writing activities include brainstorming ideas, creating an outline, and developing a draft before moving on to revising or editing the document. In collaborative writing, learners must also develop content as well as edit other student's content. The process of editing other students' content can involve both constructive and unconstructive behaviors (West, 2009). Constructive behaviors improve the composition and contribute to group collaboration; unconstructive edits are counterproductive and may lead to a breakdown in group collaboration.

1.4. Individual Writing Processes

In the 1970s, writing research focused primarily on evaluating the learner's final written product. As the complexity of good writing was recognized, the focus shifted to concerns about the writing process and how a well written piece of writing evolved. The "process movement" was based on "cognitively oriented research" which focused on the "interconnections among thinking, learning and writing" (Hayes & Flower, 1986, p. 1106). Hayes and Flower (1986) argued that instructors should understand "the cognitive processes associated with the three processes of writing: planning, sentence generation and revision" (Hayes & Flower, 1986, p. 1106). These three writing processes have in fact been shown to improve students' writing.

Planning: during the planning process, students develop ideas and organize a writing plan. Goals are set, content is generated, and text is organized based on those goals. While early research emphasized the importance of planning for producing quality writing projects, more recent research (e.g., Hayes & Nash, 1996) concluded that time spent on planning is not as important as time spent on the task of writing.

Sentence generation: during the sentence generation process, writers begin to produce formal sentences to form a draft. At the same time, sentences are structured as part of an outline. During this process, writers may think aloud and structure sentences in sequences such as "The best thing about it is – what?" (Hayes & Flower, 1986, p. 1109). According to Kaufer, Hayes and Flower (1986), both experts and average writers create sentences in the same manner.

Revision: Fitzgerald (1987) defined revision as, "making changes at any point in the writing process" (p. 484). Prior to making changes, students identify discrepancies and make decisions as to what needs to be changed in the document (Fitzgerald, ibid, p. 484). Making these types of decisions often involves cognitive operations used in problem solving and, as a result, research has focused on identifying reasons for breakdowns in the problem solving process. For example, a breakdown can occur when a writer has not clearly established content goals and is unable to decide how to revise the document (Fitzgerald, ibid, p. 489).

2. Review of the Related Literature

Despite claims about the potential of collaborative writing (Dale, 1997), there is a relatively small amount of published research on this topic. Recent research that has been carried out to investigate collaborative groups of EFL learners has examined patterns of interactions (DiNitto, 2000; Sim, 1998; Storch, 2001, 2002, 2004; Swain and Lapkin, 1998, 2002), cognitive conflict and disagreement (Tocalli-Beller, 2003), idea development (Yong, 1998), development of ZPD (Nyikos and Hashimoto, 1997; Ohta, 1995, 2001), roles of repetition (DiCamilla and Anton, 1997; Tocalli-Beller, 2003), functions of L1 (Anton and DiCamilla, 1998; Brooks and Donato, 1994; Brooks et al., 1997; Le and McDonald, 2004; Platt and Brooks, 2002), and grammatical concerns (Storch, 1998, 1999).

A common feature shared by most of the studies that are reviewed in this paper is the sociocultural perspectives which provide the theoretical framework. Proponents of collaborative writing identify social interaction as a key element in collaboration. As it is mentioned, according to this view, learners internalize their learning through dialogic interactions with others. Merrill Swain (2006) terms the dialogic interaction among peers as "collaborative dialogue".

In collaborative dialogue, learners learn to work collectively to solve linguistic problems or co-construct language or knowledge about language. Swain refers to it as a problem-solving and knowledge-building dialogue. Studies conducted on the effects of collaborative writing on overall writing performance found improvements in students' writing. Students' writings were found to be more grammatically accurate (Storch, 1999; Storch, 2005; Wigglesworth & Storch, 2009), more linguistically complex (Storch, 2005), and had better content, organization and vocabulary (Shehadeh, 2012).

2.1. Collaborative writing in Iranian EFL Context

Regarding Iranian EFL context, there have been some studies on different aspects of collaborative writing among Iranian EFL learners. For example, Sahragard and Mallahi (2014) attempted to explore the preferred language learning styles of a group of Iranian EFL learners and differences in the styles of collaborative group with individual group. The results of analysis revealed that most of the learners in the collaborative group had a communicative learning style preference and the more proficient writers favored this type of learning as well. As for the comparison between the students' writing self-assessment and the assessment done by the researchers, the results indicated that the more proficient writers underestimated their writing ability whereas the majority of the less proficient ones overestimated different aspects of their writing ability.

Another study by Arabloo (2015) was conducted to investigate the comparative effects of individually created and collaboratively created Concept Maps on EFL learners' essay writing. The results indicated that individually created concept maps proved to be more effective than collaboratively created concept maps on intermediate EFL learners' essay writing. In another study by Biriya and Jafari (2013) the impact of practicing in pairs on the writing fluency of Iranian EFL learners was investigated. The findings revealed that practicing in pairs did improve the overall quality of the learners' writing productions even though the fluency of written texts did not change significantly.

Jalilifar's (2010) investigation in which two techniques of Cooperative Learning including Student Team Achievement Divisions and Group Investigation were used, examined students' reading comprehension achievement of English as a Foreign Language. The researcher found that Student Team Achievement Divisions technique is more effective in improving EFL reading comprehension achievement in spite of the fact that both techniques could not improve reading comprehension significantly.

Javadi Rahavard (2010) explored the relationship between cooperative learning strategies and reading comprehension. Cooperative learning methods have been a major part of learning methodologist debates. He studied the cooperative learning effect in EFL classes of Iranian learners quantitatively in an English institute at Bandar-Abbas. The Correlation coefficient formula using SPSS software, graphs and diagrams showed that cooperative learning strategies groups achieved significantly better results compare to their counterparts in reading comprehension test.

Finally, Dabaghmanesh and Soori (2014) investigated the effect of cooperative learning versus traditional method on English Proficiency of undergraduate students with different majors. The results of their study indicated no significant difference between cooperative learning and teacher fronted instructional method in language learning in General English course. Moreover the outcomes of the study also showed insignificancy of different majors through implementing cooperative language learning.

As far as the review of literature on collaborative writing in Iran is concerned, only a few studies have recently been conducted on collaborative writing , even though there have been studies concerning the comparison of collaboratively produced compositions with individually produced compositions in terms of accuracy of tense use and orthographies of writing. The current research will, therefore, focus on comparing the collaboratively produced compositions versus individually produced compositions in terms of accuracy of tense use.

2.2. Statement of the Problem and Purpose of the Study

As pointed out by Messer (1997), composition writing is a skill which is difficult to teach, learn and evaluate. Some of the factors affecting successful writing performance, in particular, in composition writing include English proficiency, content schemata, affect, formal schemata, cognitive skills, and meta-cognitive skills (Kirkland & Saunders, 1991). In light of the difficulties in the learning and teaching of composition writing in EFL classrooms, it is thus important to examine approaches to teaching and learning the skill. Collaborative writing, which has been found to have encouraging effects on students' EFL writing (Storch, 2005; Watanabe & Swain, 2007; Wigglesworth & Storch, 2009; Shehadeh, 2012), may possibly be a viable approach in the teaching of writing skills. However, to date, few studies have been conducted on using collaborative writing in composition writing, specifically in the context of the Iranian EFL classroom. The purpose of this study was therefore to establish whether collaborative composition writing is helpful for Iranian EFL learners in terms of correct tense use and orthographies of writing.

2.3. Significance of the Study

Although the role of writing in language learning, if not more, is not less than the role of the other three language skills, it has long been ignored. Compared with the other three language skills, writing seems to be too difficult and time-consuming to teach, so little attention has been given to teach and practice writing in the class (Zeng, 2005). Students need enough knowledge to create and generate ideas in order to write a composition. In Iranian educational system even private language institutes, students receive little practice in writing in English. Due to students' limited proficiency, time limitation, and poor motivation, writing still remains a big hurdle. Considering learners are always hesitant to make grammatical mistakes, Al-Jarf (2007) found that peer support and feedback could help the learners to reduce such stress and improve their language knowledge as well.

It is commonly assumed that collaborative learning is beneficial for students. There is a great deal of research evidence to support this assumption in different parts of the world (Flowerdew, 1998;

Roskams, 1999; Lan, Sung, & Chang, 2006; Chen & Hird, 2006; Bejarano, 1987). However, little research has been carried out in Iran. This research gains significance in that it investigated the extent to which collaborative learning in the Iranian EFL (English as a foreign language) setting had an influence on the accuracy of university students majoring in English.

2.4. Research Question and Hypothesis

This study therefore aimed at answering the following research question and hypothesis:

1) Is there any significant difference between individual and collaborative writing in terms of accuracy of tense use (present, past and future tenses)?

1) There is not any significant difference between individual and collaborative writing in terms of accuracy of tense use (present, past and future tenses)?

3. Methodology

3.1. Participants

The participants of this study included 60 male homogenous Iranian EFL learners with the age range of 18 to 25 in an English institute in Tabriz. For the purpose of the research, the participants were divided into either experimental group or control group. Twenty pairs of learners (40 of the learners who were selected into the pairs) completed the collaborative writing tasks. Another group of 20 participants wrote the same tasks individually. The participants knew each other. Given the researcher's previous observations that some students may be reluctant to write in pairs and reported survey findings (e.g., Hyde, 1993), the participants in both groups were given the choice of working in pairs or individually. They themselves chose their groups. For the purpose of homogeneity of the participants, they were based on their score in the *New Inside Out* placement test which tests structures, vocabulary and reading. For the purpose of this study, we selected those learners whose scores were 30-39 being considered to have an intermediate proficiency level. This study was conducted in an institutional context. Each group was instructed by the same EFL teacher. In one group, learners wrote individually and in the other group they wrote collaboratively. Totally, 20 learners worked individually and 40 learners in pairs.

3.2. Instruments

3.2.1. New Inside Out Test Placement Test

For the purpose of homogeneity of the participants, they were based on their scores in the *New Inside Out* placement test including structure, vocabulary and reading sections with 60 multiple-choice items. Each of these items is worth one point. The time for completing this test was 36 minutes. The *New Inside Out* placement tests have been designed to be used for placing students into groups corresponding to the six levels of proficiency. That is, the test divides the learners into six proficiency levels of beginners, elementary, pre-intermediate, intermediate, upper-intermediate and advanced based on the learners' scores. For the purpose of this study, we selected those learners whose scores were 30 to 39 which were regarded as intermediate level.

3.2.3. Categories of collaborative writing

Onrubia and Engle (2009, p.10) proposed five main strategies for collaborative elaboration of written products:

"Parallel construction—'cut and paste'. Each group member contributes with a different part of the completed task and the final document is constructed through a juxtaposing of these different parts without the contribution of other co-authors. "Divide and conquer"

Parallel construction—'puzzle'. Each group member contributes with an initial document with the entirely or partially completed task, and the final document is constructed through the juxtaposing of small extracted parts of the initial contributions of other coauthors.

Sequential summative construction. One group member presents a document that constitutes an initial, partial or complete, proposal for the task resolution, and the rest of the participants successively add their contributions to this initial document, without modifying what has been previously written, hence, systematically accepting what is added by other co-authors.

Sequential integrating construction. One group member presents a document that constitutes an initial, partial or complete task proposal, and the other group members successively contribute to this initial document, proposing justified modifications or discussing whether they agree with what has been previously written or not.

Integrating construction. The writing of the document is based on synchronic discussion through the chat, with repeated revisions, where all group members react to the comments, the changes and the additions made by other participants.
In addition, Lowry et al. (2004, p. 14) states that there are five collaborative writing strategies including:
"**Single-author writing** occurs when one team member writes as a representative for the entire team. Single-author writing usually occurs when the writing task is simple.
Sequential single writing. In sequential single-author writing, one group member writes at a time. Each group member is assigned a portion of the document, writes his or her portion and then passes the document onto the next group member.
Parallel writing is the type of collaborative writing that occurs when a group divides the assignment or document into separate parts and all members work on their assigned part at the same time. There are two types of parallel writing: *horizontal division parallel writing* occurs when group members divide the task into sections, each member being responsible for the development of his or her assigned section; *stratified division parallel writing* occurs when group members divide responsibility of the creation of the product by assigning different members different roles. Some examples of roles that a member could be assigned are: author, editor, facilitator, or team leader.
Reactive writing occurs when team members collaborate synchronously to develop their product. Team members react to and adjust each other's contributions as they are made.
Mixed mode. This term describes a form of writing that mixes two or more of the collaborative writing strategies described above".
In our study, we used reactive writing mode in which both members of the groups collaborate synchronously to develop their compositions, but for peer collaboration to have a positive effect on either writing or learning outcomes, a few conditions should be met. One of the crucial factors determining the effectiveness of peer collaboration is participation of all members of the groups.

3.3. Procedures
The students were grouped in to two matching participants with similar English proficiency level based on the placement test. The researcher taught three verb tenses (i.e., simple past tense, simple present tense, and simple future tense) and orthographies of writing (capitalization and punctuations).The classes met for one and half hour twice a week for one month. For both the collaborative and individual group, the first three sessions were devoted to teaching punctuation rules(end-mark rules, comma rules, apostrophe rules and question marks), capitalization rules, subject verb agreement, and word order rules and in the second three sessions past, present and future tenses were taught. Totally, the researcher taught three verb tenses and mechanics of writing in six sessions. In both groups, in the second three sessions after teaching a particular verb tense, the participants were given a composition topic. In these three sessions, they were asked to write a 100-word composition on the assigned topic in which the use of verb tenses such as past, present future tense was obligatory. They were also asked to pay attention to spelling, punctuation and capitalization rules in their compositions. During six sessions of teaching, practicing and testing a particular verb tense and orthographies of writing a total of 120 compositions (60 individually produced and 60 collaboratively produced) were collected. All the compositions were analyzed in terms of accuracy of tense use. Examples of the assigned topics included "how did you spend your Nourooz holidays, how did you spend last summer, what are you planning to do in the next ten years, or what are your days like nowadays. There was a time limit for writing; 30 minutes in each session were spent on teaching each verb tense and orthographies of writing, 30 minutes for practicing the taught verb tenses and orthographies of writing, and 30 minutes for writing, reviewing and revising the compositions. The students were asked to write a 100-word composition within the limited time. In addition, they were allowed to use dictionaries if necessary.
3.4. Measurement
The compositions written by the students were analyzed using quantitative and qualitative measures. These measures included measures of accuracy of verb tense and orthography. Wolfe-Quintero et al (1998) have suggested the best and valid measures of fluency and accuracy which were the basis of analysis in more than a hundred measures used in second or foreign language research studies. According to them, the best measures of accuracy included mean length of clause (words per clause: W/C), and words per error-free clauses (W/EFC). They have stated that these measures as the most

reliable and valid measures since these measures are consistently linear and significantly related to program, school, or holistic rating levels. In this study, in order to measure for accuracy, the compositions had to be analyzed for clauses, distinguishing between independent and dependent clauses. An independent clause is one which can be used on its own (Richards, Platt, & Platt, 1992); a dependent clause must be used with another clause in order to form a grammatical sentence in English.

There is some disagreement among researchers as to how to code for clauses, particularly dependent clauses. In this study, following Foster et al. (2000), a dependent clause was one which contained a finite or a nonfinite verb and at least one additional clause element of the following: subject, object, complement or adverbial. Based on the guidelines for clauses, word counts, and error classifications adopted from Polio (1997), errors in this study included errors in word order, verb tense and subject–verb agreement. In order to measure and compare accuracy, the students' compositions were analyzed for errors, clauses, and error-free clauses. In order to check for inter-rater reliability in scoring, and following the advice of Polio (1997), guidelines were formulated stating clearly what constitutes a clause, and an error. After scoring the participants' compositions, they were given to a colleague to score the composition, to identify errors and clauses based on Polio's (1997) guideline. For clause identification inter-rater reliability was 95%, inter-rater reliability for error counts was about (75%).

A total of 120 compositions—60 collaborative compositions and 60 individual compositions—were collected and used to compare collaboratively and individually produced writing. In order to measure and compare accuracy, the compositions were analyzed for errors, clauses and error-free clauses. The total number of words in each composition was the same, about 100 to 110 words.

To evaluate accuracy, two measures were used: the percentages of incorrect verb tenses in each composition produced collaboratively and individually, and the proportion of error-free clauses of all clauses (EFC/C). Both proportions were expressed as percentages (Wigglesworth & Storch, 2009). Errors in this study included errors in word order verb tense and subject-verb agreement.

4. Results

4.1. Measuring Accuracy in Writing

Accuracy: For the purpose of this study, two general measures of accuracy were used: the percentages of incorrect verb tenses in each composition produced collaboratively and individually, and the proportion of error-free clauses of all clauses (EFC/C). Errors in this study included errors in word order verb tense and subject/verb agreement. To make sure of the reliability of scoring, all the compositions were scored by another rater. Pearson correlation coefficient was found to be 0.86 (r=0.86).Therefore, the scoring of compositions was adequately reliable.

4.1. Comparison of Accuracy in Individual and Collaborative Writing

As seen in table 1, accuracy measures were used in this study. According to Wolfe-Quintero et al. (1998), writing accuracy was measured and compared using both frequency measurements and ratio measurements. Clause-based measures such as W/C and EFC/C, were used for this study because clause-unit based measures have been determined to be the best measures of second language development in writing (Larsen-Freeman, 2006; Wolfe-Quintero et al. 1998) and also because a variety of measures have been based on clause-unit (Gaies, 1980; Hunt, 1965; Larsen-Freeman, 1983). In addition to the ratio measurements, frequency measures were also used because all of the compositions were written under the same time limit (i.e., 30 minutes).

Table 4.1: Measures of Fluency and Accuracy in Individual and Collaborative Writing

	Frequency Measures
Fluency	Total Number of Words, Sentences and Clauses
Accuracy	Percent of Errors and Error-Free clauses (EFC)

In order to measure and compare accuracy, the students' compositions were scrutinized for errors, clauses and error-free clauses. The total number of sentences and the total number of words were calculated with MS WORD statistics. Both error free clauses and clauses were identified by the researcher based on Polio's (1997) study. Clauses were marked by the researcher and were compared for inter-rater reliability measured by Holsti's (1969) coefficient of reliability, and the results indicated that there was 89% agreement for clauses.

Table 4.2: Descriptive Statistics for Individual and Collaborative Writing

Groups	Total No. of Words	Total No. of Sentences
Collaborative Writing	4300	460
Mean	208	20.2
S.D	6.97	2.523
V.	48.58	6.35
Individual Writing	4100	428
Mean	207	20.05
S.D	5.75	2.05
V	33.06	4.20

Table 2 provides a summary of the average results of comparing the number of words and sentences produced by individual and collaborative groups. Collaborative writing produced a higher number of words and sentences than individual writing. However, these differences are not significantly enough. The number of words for the individual groups and for collaborative groups is 4100, and 4300, respectively. The number of sentences for individual groups and for collaborative groups is 428, and 460, respectively.

Table 4.3: The Number of Clauses and Words per Clauses in Collaborative Writing

Groups	No. of clauses	Words per clauses
Collaborative Writing		
N	530	600
Mean	8.83	10
S.D	4.15	8

Table 4.4: The Number of Clauses and Words per Clauses in Individual Writing

Groups	No. of clauses	Words per clauses
Collaborative Writing		
N	512	540
Mean	8.53	9
S.D	3.78	7

Table 4.5: Comparison of Clauses and Words per Clauses in Collaborative and individual Writing

Groups	No. of clauses	Word per clauses
Individual Writing (N=60)		
Mean	8.53	9
S.D	3.78	7
Collaborative Writing (N=60)		
Mean	8.83	10
S.D	4.15	8

As the table 4.5 illustrates, the average number of words per clause for the collaborative groups and that of individual groups were 10 and 9, respectively. Moreover, the number of clauses of collaborative writing and that of individual writing were 530, and 512, respectively. It can be realized that the participants in collaborative groups outperformed the individual group in terms of the total number of clauses as well as in terms of word per clauses.

Table 4.6: Comparison of Accuracy in Individual and Collaborative Writing

Groups	No. of Errors	Error-Free Clauses

Individual Writing (N=60)		
Total	175	45
Mean	9.65	2.5
S.D	3.05	0.89
Collaborative Writing (N=60)		
Total	144	62
Mean	7.5	4.5
S.D	2.45	1.85

Table 4.6 provides a summary of the results comparing the accuracy of the collaboratively and individually written compositions. Individual written compositions (average 9.65 errors per compositions) had more errors compared to collaboratively written compositions (average 7.5 errors per compositions), suggesting that collaborative compositions were more accurate. This result may be due to the fact that participants in collaborative groups could think of more accurate words and sentences through negotiating and helping each other. On the other hand, collaboratively written compositions (average 4.5 error-free clauses) had more error-free clauses than individually produced compositions (average 2.5 error-free clauses), suggesting that collaborative compositions were more accurate. The average number of errors for collaborative and individual groups was 7.5, and 9.65, respectively. Individually written compositions had more errors, but less error-free clauses; the difference was also slightly significant, $t = 2.37$, P value = 0.029. The result is significant at $p < 0.05$.
The detailed analysis of errors revealed 175 cases of errors for individually produced compositions and 144 cases of errors for collaboratively produced compositions. Out of three types of errors, subject verb agreements with 50 for individual group and 39 errors for collaborative group accounted for the most error. However, as far as the percentages of errors to the total number of errors produced in each particular category was concerned, for both types of compositions the major error categories were as follows: (1) Future tense (2) past tense (3) present tense (4) word order and (5) subject/verb agreement The figures expressed in terms of percentages in Table 4.7 indicate the proportion of errors to the total number of errors in the relevant category.

Table 4.7 Comparison of Errors Produced in Collaborative and Individual Writing

Groups		**Individual**		**Collaborative**	
		Frequency	Errors%	Frequency	Errors%
Verb Tense	Present	30	18. %	25	17%
	Past	33	19%	25	17%
	Future	42	24.5%	33	23%
Subject verb Agreement		50	28.07%	39	28%
Word order		20	10.56%	21	14%
Total		175	100%	144	100%

F = Frequency of per category
Several interesting aspects emerged when comparing individually and collaboratively produced compositions in terms of errors. With regard to subject/verb agreement, both in collaboratively and individually produced compositions, the frequency of this type of error was nearly the same (both about 28%). Another interesting finding was related to word order error. Frequency and percentage of this type of error in collaboratively produced compositions were higher than those of individually produced compositions. However, regarding the verb tense errors, the collaboratively produced compositions were more accurate than those individually produced compositions.

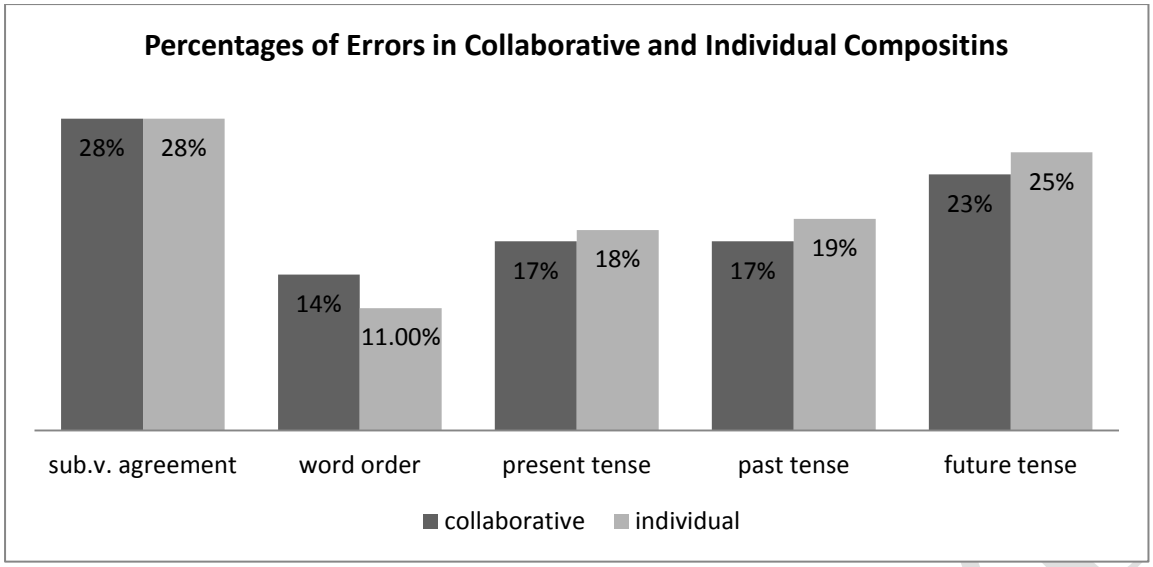

Figure 4.1: Comparison of Percentages of Errors in Collaboratively and Individually Written Compositions

The above bar graph shows the percentage of each category of errors produced in collaboratively and individually written compositions. As seen from the graph, the frequency of subject/verb agreement errors was nearly the same (both about 28%), but Frequency and percentage of word order error in collaboratively produced compositions were higher than those of individually produced compositions, and the percentages of the verb tense errors in all three tenses were less in collaboratively produced compositions than percentages in individually produced compositions.

5. Discussion

The present study has been greatly influenced by the key notions of Vygotsky's theory of learning, particularly the idea that learning originates in social interactions. The Vygotskian approaches to learning are socially oriented and emphasize the significance of language and social interaction in children's intellectual development (Wells, 2009). The center of this enterprise is Vygotsky's (1978) argument that social interaction constitutes the learning process; first socially (inter-mental), and then individually (intra-mental). Wells (2009) further advocated the significance of collaboration in social interaction, stating that "all human psychological processes develop out of collaborative social forms of interaction, using cultural tools, most importantly language, to transform the world rather than passively to adapt to it" (p. 237).

The present study, accordingly, sought to investigate whether there is any significant difference between individual and collaborative writing in terms of accuracy of tense use (i.e., Present, past, and future tenses). For this purpose, 60 individually produced compositions and 60 collaboratively produced compositions were compared in terms of accuracy. With regard to the accuracy of subject/verb agreement, both in collaboratively and individually produced compositions, the frequency of this type of error was nearly the same, and regarding word order error, frequency and percentage of this type of error in collaboratively produced compositions were higher than those of individually produced compositions. However, the collaboratively produced compositions were more accurate than those individually produced compositions in terms of the verb tense errors.

In addition, the participants seemed to write longer compositions when they worked collaboratively because they could think of more and stronger words and sentences through negotiating with their each other. Interestingly, however, this results that collaboratively written compositions were more fluent contrasts with Storch's (1999, 2005) study that reported collaboratively produced texts were shorter. This difference may be due to the different type of writing task used; while writing composition task was used in Storch's (1999, 2005) studies, writing a composition was used in this study. The participants may have tried to write longer texts when they produce a composition compared to the writing commentary task.

It is worth mentioning that the result of our study is in line with the results of previous studies (Kowal & Swain, 1994; Glennding & Howard, 2001; Storch, 1999, 2005). Individually written compositions had more errors than collaboratively produced essays, suggesting that individual

writing was less accurate. In addition, collaboratively written compositions also had more error-free clauses than individually written compositions, suggesting that collaborative writing was more accurate. However, these frequency measures are likely to increase as the total number of words or the total number of error-free clauses is increased, as noted by Wolfe-Quintero et al. (1998).

To summarize, individually written compositions had more errors than collaboratively produced essays, suggesting that individual writing was less accurate. In addition, collaboratively written compositions also had more error-free clauses than individually written compositions, suggesting that collaborative writing was more accurate.

5.1. Testing the Hypothesis

The study was expected to support the previous studies and suggest that collaborative writing is more accurate than individual writing. To test the null hypothesis that there was not any significant difference between individual and collaborative writing in terms of accuracy of tense use, we compared the individually produced and collaboratively produced compositions in terms of three types of errors: verb tense errors, word order errors and subject/verb agreement errors. With regard to subject/verb agreement, both in collaboratively and individually produced compositions, the frequency was roughly the same (both about 28%), but comparing word order errors we found out that frequency and percentage of this type of error in collaboratively produced compositions were higher than those of individually produced compositions(14% to 11%). However, regarding the verb tense errors, the collaboratively produced compositions were more accurate than those individually produced compositions (18%, 19%, 24% in individual writing to 17%, 17%, 23% collaborative writing), and the first null hypothesis was rejected.

5.2. Pedagogical Implications

Research and empirical studies on collaborative writing have generally been very supportive of its use in the EFL classroom. As was the case with this study, a vast number of past studies examining students' perceptions of collaborative writing had similarly positive responses. The findings of the many studies suggest varied advantages of collaborative writing, be it in terms of communicative skill, language proficiency, construction of knowledge, or assessment of written work. Although collaborative writing may not be likely to yield immediate results and transform learners into great writers, the benefits and advantages of this approach to general learning have been shown in numerous past studies. In view of the lack of interest and ability in the writing skill of the majority of Iranian students today, a more interactive pedagogy utilizing the collaborative approach is a viable alternative to the traditional method of teaching composition writing.

The present findings have confirmed the view that students have the ability to teach and learn from others during collaborative writing. Thus, writing teachers can provide opportunities for students to interact and work collaboratively in small groups. In this way, students can become more autonomous language learners as they exchange knowledge, skills, and strategies. More capable students can guide and help the weaker ones. Collaboration encourages students to develop their independence and responsibility to construct knowledge on their own.

Another important classroom implication is the need to prepare students carefully for collaboration. The purpose of collaboration needs to be explained clearly to students. Teachers cannot assume that students will share the same attitudes, goals, and motivation when they are assigned to work in groups. Hence, before collaboration, the teacher can ask students to discuss the benefits of group work, attitudes and behaviors that are conducive to language learning. Students should also be informed that different people have different beliefs and this can determine what happens during the collaboration.

Teachers can demonstrate effective planning and composing techniques with a student or a colleague and be explicit about what works for successful collaboration. Role-playing the collaboration process and modeling conflict resolution in class provides students with a model to follow. It also gives students an idea of what to expect during the process of collaboration. It is vital to emphasize that group members should be regarded as resources rather than competitors. Pooling of resources can promote deeper analysis and synthesis of ideas and viewpoints. Teachers can create an atmosphere of interdependence among the collaborators by encouraging them to support one another spontaneously with their diverse strengths and abilities. Students can also acquire important group skills such as tolerance, cooperation, and flexibility when they learn to work as a team.

5.3. Suggestions for Further Research

A number of important issues raised by the findings need to be explored and understood more fully. First of all, in the light of significant findings about the benefits of collaborative writing in developing students' knowledge construction, more empirical studies could compare the effects of collaborative writing. Future researchers could extend the study by investigating the redrafting process to ascertain the extent and the kinds of revision that the collaborators will make, based on peer response comments and teacher's comments. In addition, future study can investigate how students write subsequent compositions alone after the collaborative experience. Such a study could provide valuable insights into the transfer of effects from collaboration to individual writing and to what extent the zone of proximal development has been important.

6. Conclusion

Research and empirical studies on collaborative writing have generally been very supportive of its use in the EFL classroom. As this study revealed, and some previous studies showed collaborative writing can have similarly positive benefits. Some benefits of collaborative writing can be communicative skill, language proficiency, construction of knowledge, or assessment of written work. However, not much Iranian-based research has been conducted to investigate the effects of collaborative writing on students' writing performance. To date, studies on collaborative writing in composition writing are scarce. This study investigated the effects of collaborative composition writing on the correctness of tense use. Understanding the collaborative effects' on students writing enables teachers to tailor writing activities according to students' needs and to prepare students well before initiating any collaborative activities. In present day classroom, educational needs and approaches are changing and educators need to explore various approaches, methods and pedagogies to address these changing needs in their teaching and learning. Implementing a collaborative environment in the writing classroom (as opposed to mere group work) is not without its challenges. Factors such as class size, time constraints, and teachers' ability to facilitate and guide students in the process of collaborative composition writing are some of the concerns that would need to be addressed. In spite of the fact that there is a lack of interest and ability in the Iranian EFL learner's writing skill, a collaborative approach is a practical alternative to the traditional method of teaching composition writing.

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INVESTIGATING THE IMPACT OF CONSTRUCT IRRELEVANT FACTORS ON DEPENDABILITY OF WDCT AND ODCT PRAGMATIC TESTS

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ABSTRACT
THIS STUDY EXPLOITED GENERALIZABILITY THEORY TO INVESTIGATE AND COMPARE THE IMPACT OF TEST TAKERS, ITEMS, RATERS, AND RATING TRAIT ON THE DEPENDABILITY OF THE SCORES FROM WRITTEN DISCOURSE COMPLETION TEST (WDCT) AND ORAL DISCOURSE COMPLETION TEST (ODCT) PRAGMATIC TESTS. TO THIS END, THREE RESEARCH QUESTIONS WERE POSED; 1) WHAT ARE THE RELATIVE ESTIMATED VARIANCE COMPONENTS FOR TEST TAKERS, RATERS, ITEM, RATING TRAIT, AND THEIR INTERACTIONS IN WDCT, ODCT, PRAGMATICS TESTS? 2) TO WHAT DEGREE ARE WDCT AND ODCT RELIABLE? 3) TO WHAT DEGREE DO TEST METHOD CONTRIBUTE ERROR VARIANCE? TO INVESTIGATE THE ISSUES, 55 STUDENTS MAJORING ENGLISH LITERATURE AND TRANSLATING, WERE SELECTED CONVENIENTLY AMONG ALL ENGLISH STUDENTS OF VALI-E-ASR UNIVERSITY. BOTH WDCT AND ODCT ADMINISTERED TO ALL TEST TAKERS. FOUR RATERS WERE INVITED TO SCORE TEST TAKERS PERFORMANCE IN BOTH TESTS. THE RESULT SHOWED THE DEPENDABILITY OF BOTH TESTS WERE SAME. HOWEVER, THE RELATIVE CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE FACETS WERE NOT STABLE ACROSS TWO TEST METHODS. FINDING OF THIS STUDY SUGGESTED, USING TWO TYPES OF MEASUREMENT DEVICE CAN INCREASE THE RELIABILITY OF OUR MEASUREMENT.

KEY WORDS: GENERALIZABILITY THEORY, PRAGMATICS, ODCT , WDCT

Introduction

Pragmatics is defined as 'the study of people's comprehension and production of linguistic action in context'(Kasper & Blum-Kulka, 1993: 3). Conceptually speaking ,pragmatics is related to language users, "the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction and the effects their use of language has on other participants in the act of communication" (Crystal, 1985: 240). Indeed, pragmatics enable us to relate the utterances to their meaning and interprets intended meaning in interaction between people. In the other word 'Pragmatic knowledge enables us to create or interpret discourse by relating utterances or sentences and texts to their meaning, to the intentions of language users, and to relevant characteristics of the language use setting' (Bachman & Palmer, 1996: 69).

By expending communicative competence framework, interlanguage pragmatic competence become one of the integral part of the developed model by Bachman (1990). In his model, language competence consisted of pragmatics and organizational competence. In addition, he divided the pragmatic competence in two categories: illocutionary competence and sociolinguistic competence. According to Yamashita (2008), the components under pragmatic competence in Bachman's model (1990) guided the theoretical direction for the assessment of pragmatics.

Considering language testing in general, "the primary purpose of a language test is to provide a measure that we can interpret as an indicator of an individual's language ability" (Bachman & Palmer, 1996: 23). This is also true for testing learners' pragmatic ability. In order to assess the pragmatic knowledge some studies tried to develop and validate pragmatic tests (e.g. Garcia, 2004; Grobowsky,

2008, Hudson et al., 1992, 1995; Liu, 2006; Roever, 2005; Yamashita, 1996) .However, language testing is always under influence of some irrelevant factors that are not interested to be measured .
According to Eckes(2009) some factors have immediate impact on the given score to test takers. These factors, which also compromise the factors that intended to be measured such as test takers language proficiency, can be called proximal factors. Eckes(2009) Listed other proximal factors which only may has contribution on error measurement. These factors included: raters effect, the difficulty of the test that was administered to test takers, and variability in scoring criteria. Eckes(2009) also listed some factors that he called them distel factors. Distel factors are the factors that indirectly effect the rating. these factors include: features of test takes such as gender, personality , first language, goals and belief ;features of raters such as number of forging languages spoken, professional background and educational career; features of situation such as technical and physical environment.
By Hudson et al. (1992; 1995) developing test battery for measuring interlanguage pragmatics, new field of language testing came to the center of interests of researchers. Complicated nature of pragmatic testing and different variables that may have an impact on performance on tests, made traditional analysis which only measures one variable in one time unhelpful in measuring multi variables which may have significant contribution on measurement error. Therefore, innovative statistical such as generalizability theory which can examine different factors simultaneously was introduced to estimate the precision of measures and investigate the different factors effect on pragmatic test as other parts of language assessment .

Generalizability theory

Generalizability theory (G theory) is an innovative extension of Classical Test Theory (CTT) which provides an effective tool for estimating reliability by providing opportunity to investigate the multiple source of variance that may have great impact on test takers score. The contribution of the generalizability theory is that the impact of multiple factors on test reliability can be examined simultaneously (Cardinet,Johnson, & Pini, 2010). Based on Brennan (2001)" Generalizability theory liberalizes classical theory by employing ANOVA methods that allow an investigator to untangle multiple sources of error that contribute to the undifferentiated E in classical theory.''(p.3) .These enable us "to tailor a measurement in such a way as to maximize its reliability under cost and time constraints" (Cardinet,Johnson, & Pini, 2010 , p.6)
G-theory considers the performance of any test taker as a sample from among an infinitely large number of observations that could have been made under similar conditions (Bolus, Hinofotis, & Bailey, 1982). Then, the aim of applying Generalizability theory is generalizing from sample to universe of interest.
G theory was introduced to language testing by Bolus *et al*. (1982). Afterwards researchers used G-theory in different parts of language testing (e.g., Molloy and Shimura (2005), Brown (2005b), Schooner (2005), Kozaki (2004), Lee (2006) Yamanaka (2005), Solano-Flores and Li (2006), Lee (2006), and Zhang (2006) Yoshida (2004, 2006). By increasing interest in testing pragmatics G-theory also were used in some studies during the recent years in this filed.

Statement of problem

Pragmatics assessment, like other field of language testing can be effected by some construct irrelevant factors. Although, some studies by application of innovative statistics such as G-theory examined the impact of effective factor on test takers performance (e.g. Brown, 2008; Brown and Ahn, 2010), they are few. Moreover, none of the studies has yet investigated construct irrelevant factors by applying G-theory in Iranian EFL context.

Literature review

The first effort to test pragmatic knowledge dates back to 1992 when Hudson et al tried to examine pragmatic competence by six type of tests: written discourse completion tasks (WDCT), multiple-choice discourse completion tasks (MDCT), oral discourse completion tasks (ODCT), self-assessments, role-play discourse tasks and role-play, and self-assessments. Rover (2006) described this methods as following:

- *oral DCTs, where test takers spoke their utterance into a microphone;*
- *traditional written DCTs, where they wrote 'what they would say';*

- *multiple choice DCTs, where they marked the appropriate utterance for a given situation among three response options;*
- *role plays, where they produced a request, apology, and refusal in the same interaction with a role play conductor; and*
- *Self-assessments where they evaluated their own performance on the DCTs and the role plays.*

Hudson et al(1992), only found MDCT problematic in Japanese ESL context. In an attempt to extend the devised tests by Hudson et al(1992), to Japanese as second language JSL context translated the situations to Japanese and then tried to adopt this situations to the Japanese EFL context. Other studies tried to found the reliability of devised tests. Some studies found DCT test reliable in different contexts (e.g. Bachman & Palmer,1982;Lui,2004; yamashita,1997) .However , some studies found DCT tests unreliable in different contexts.(e.g . Enochs and youshitake-Strain ,1992 ; and Brown ,2001).
Some years later, Lui (2004) developed and validated three types of test to measure Chinese EFL interlanguage pragmatics. The tests were in three formats including WDCT, MDCT and self-assessment. Finding showed all three tests were reliable.
After understanding the complicate nature of pragmatic testing which include four variables and failure of CTT to measure some variables at same time ,G-theory and other innovative statistical analysis were applied to pragmatics assessment filed to investigate the different factors impact on developed testes. G-THEORY because of the nature that they have are useful statistics to measure the impact of different factors on learners performance on testes . However, applying G-theory to investigate the impact of construct irrelevant factors in pragmatic area are few. Brown (2008) in his study investigated the impact different variables on L2 pragmatist's tests dependability. They found items, raters had significant contribution on test takers performance.

Methodology
Participant:
The study was conducted with 55 students studying at Vali-e-Asr University of Rafsanjan(VRU). The participants were composed of 40 female and 15 male English students. Their age rang were between 17 – 24 years. They were selected conveniently from English translating and English literature students who studied at least 2 semesters at VRU. Moreover four raters were invited to score the test takers. All of them had at least six years language teaching experience.

Materials
Two types of measurement were used in this study: WDCT and ODCT. Each test consisted of 10 apology situations which have been devised by Lui (2006). Moreover, the rating scale that was deviced by Hudson et al (1995), were utilized to score the WDCT and ODCT tests. The scoring included five scales, each item rated on a five-point scale, with scoring range from 1 to 5 .
Procedure
First, the Subjects were asked to do WDCT in 30 minutes. Then, two weeks later, the test takers separately were invited for ODCT administration. The DCT situations were read to the participants, and the participants were asked to respond orally to the situations. The performance of test takers in this test was audio recorded. Finally, the transcriptions of the audio file handed over to the raters.

Data analysis
In order to answer to research questions and compare two methods and examine the elements differences within each facet for both tests, EDUG software was launched three times. First analysis was conducted to the examine the impact of the mentioned factors on the dependability of WDCT , the second one was done to investigate the same factors in ODCT and finely, the third analysis was conducted to investigate how combinations of two test type may affect the dependably of measurement .

Result
Estimated variance components
First, two separated generalizability studies are conducted to estimate the relative contributions of persons, raters, items and traits to ODCT and WDCT scores. The design of two study are same. In both analysis persons are the object of study and raters, items and traits are the facets of study. In this

study, only trait facet is fixed facet. The other facets are random. The results of these generalizability studies for two method separately are summarized in table 1.

Table 1: Estimated variance components

Source	ODCT			WDCT		
	SS	VC	%	SS	VC	%
P	1281.96683	0.13593	12.7	1402.01863	0.14880	**15.2**
R	86.03894	0.01286	1.2	74.02344	0.01085	**1.1**
I	789.66635	0.10253	9.6	772.98329	0.09987	**10.2**
T	554.77740	0.06179	5.8	353.64651	0.05229	**4.0**
PR	246.38606	0.03176	3.0	246.50781	0.03432	**3.5**
PI	971.95865	0.11110	10.4	1060.28546	0.12947	**13.2**
PT	744.29760	0.09555	8.9	684.98474	0.08420	**8.6**
RI	17.70385	0.00152	0.1	19.57873	0.00234	**0.2**
RT	4.79856	0.00020	0.0	6.56839	0.00026	**0.0**
IT	259.52308	0.04134	3.9	149.85950	0.02110	**2.2**
PRI	468.12115	0.08499	8.0	328.32752	0.05961	**6.1**
PRT	200.97644	0.02272	2.1	220.82536	0.03284	**3.4**
PIT	1123.15192	0.15124	14.2	1074.94675	0.15699	**16.0**
RIT	33.14135	0.00382	0.4	43.25733	0.00733	**0.7**
PRIT	870.33365	0.21068	19.7	630.66142	0.15267	**15.6**
total	7652.84183		100	7068.47488		**100**
Coef_G RE	0.87			0.87		
Coef_G AB	0.80			0.81		
AbsoluteE V	0.03468			0.03578		
Relative E V	0.02117			0.02302		
Absolute SE:	0.18623			0.18914		
Relative SE:	0.14552			0.15171		

Estimated component variance for each facets and interactions is presented in VC column which is namely mixed estimated in EDUG output. And also, each facet and interactions contribution percentage are presented in % column . By examining main facets : person (P),raters(R) items (I) and traits (T) , we can see raters contribution is small for both method (1.1 and 1.2 respectively for WDCT and ODCT) ;items contribution is relatively high in both method. Items contribute 9.6% and 10.2% for ODCT and WDCT. And also traits contribute 5.8% and 4% for ODCT and WDCT. Examining the interaction of the facets, the interaction of person, rater, item and trait is the most significant variance component in ODCT. However, the interaction of person, item and trait is the most significant one in WDCT. Moreover, the variance component related to the persons are different in both method. The percentage of variances component of persons are 12.7 and 15.2 respectively for ODCT and WDCT. On the other hand, rater and trait interaction has less variance component among all of the facets. It is preferable that person's contribution percentage be the highest percentage. However in this study it is not the case especially because of the items contribution.

Although G theory stresses the importance of variance components and measurement error, it provides a *generalizability coefficient* that is analogous to the reliability coefficient in classical test theory(Richard and Noreen M. Webb, Richard J. Shavelson and Edward H. Haertel, 2006 . 16p.) . EDUG also provides two set of coefficients, relative and absolute G coefficients respectively for Norm reference and Criterion reference tests. Here, the test s aim are to detect the test takers relative position among all test takers. Therefore, the relative G coefficient is of interest here, because it shows how much the relative standing of the individuals are generalizable (karami .2010).

The relative G coefficient is obtained by dividing estimated variance component for persons to the total variance. Therefore the test dependability is dependent on the variance that persons as a

differentiated facet contribute to the total variance. If persons variance is high, the test reliability will be high . Following Cardinet, , Johnson, & Pini,. (2010), estimated G confections values that are equal or higher than .8 are acceptable. Here absolute and relative G coefficients are above than .80.

Single combined study by adding method facets

The final G study is conducted by adding test method as a separate facet. Here again person is the differentiate facet which help to the universe variance and test method ,raters, items and treats are the facets that contribute on the variance. In this design, items are nested in test method. Each method has 10 separated item. Test method and trait are fixed facet that we are not in interest of generalizing their contribution.

The ANOVA results are given in Table 2. As table manifests, the greatest contribution to the total score variance, at just over 16%, comes from all of the facets presented in table by PRIT:M. The next highest contribution comes from person's interaction with items within method and trait denoted in table by PIT: M. By examining the main facets, items has the greatest contribution, and test method(M) has small contribution.

Table 2: mixed design component

Source	SS	VC	%
P	1930.67037	0.10682	9.5
R	166.51460	0.01284	1.1
M	48.35391	-0.00305	0.0
I:M	1598.79147	0.10369	9.3
T	907.82903	0.05197	4.6
PR	268.92602	0.01832	1.6
PM	727.10547	0.06716	6.0
PI:M	2027.11478	0.11976	10.7
PT	1093.56160	0.07754	6.9
RM	0.27181	-0.00089	0.0
RI:M	34.32536	0.00165	0.1
RT	7.76352	0.00026	0.0
MT	15.67278	-0.00065	0.0
IT:M	417.15805	0.03197	2.9
PRM	243.95631	0.03256	2.9
PRI:M	804.44339	0.07302	6.5
PRT	147.50835	0.00690	0.6
PMT	359.50535	0.02743	2.4
PIT:M	2220.21070	0.15569	13.9
RMT	4.18900	-0.00083	0.0
RIT:M	73.41166	0.00519	0.5
PRMT	288.99537	0.04462	4.0
PRIT:M	1515.44459	0.18342	16.4
Total	14901.72350		100%

Single G-study

Following single G-study (table 3), the facet that helps to the variance of the universe is listed in first column and its contribution to the true variance is listed in second column . the other components without paying attention to their help to the true or error variance were listed in third column. Component relative and actual contribution to the relative error variance are listed in fourth and fifth column. And finally the components contribution to the absolute error variance were listed in two last columns. In these columns, the interactions of a differentiation facet with a fixed instrumentation facet are put aside: they appear between parentheses and do not contribute to either error variance (Swiss Society for Research in Education Working Group,2006 .54)

The interaction of person and item within method, denoted in table by PI:M has the greatest contribution to the relative error by having more than 52 percent of total contribution. Other great contribution on the relative error is done by the interaction of person and rater . The other high contribution is related to the PRI:M which is 8percent.

Table 3: G-study

% absolute	Absolute error variance	% relative	Relative error variance	Source of variance	Differ-entiation variance	Source of variance
	.....		.....		0.10682	P
16.1	0.00321		.....	R	.....	
0.0	(0.00000)		.....	M	.....	
26.1	0.00518		.....	I:M	.....	
0.0	(0.00000)		.....	T	.....	
23.0	0.00458	39.9	0.00458	PR	.....	
0.0	(0.00000)	0.0	(0.00000)	PM	.....	
30.1	0.00599	52.2	0.00599	PI:M	.....	
0.0	(0.00000)	0.0	(0.00000)	PT	.....	
0.0	(0.00000)		.....	RM	.....	
0.1	0.00002		.....	RI:M	.....	
0.0	(0.00000)		.....	RT	.....	
0.0	(0.00000)		.....	MT	.....	
0.0	(0.00000)		.....	IT:M	.....	
0.0	(0.00000)	0.0	(0.00000)	PRM	.....	
4.6	0.00091	8.0	0.00091	PRI:M	.....	
0.0	(0.00000)	0.0	(0.00000)	PRT	.....	
0.0	(0.00000)	0.0	(0.00000)	PMT	.....	
0.0	(0.00000)	0.0	(0.00000)	PIT:M	.....	
0.0	(0.00000)		.....	RMT	.....	
0.0	(0.00000)		.....	RIT:M	.....	
0.0	(0.00000)	0.0	(0.00000)	PRMT	.....	
0.0	(0.00000)	0.0	(0.00000)	PRIT:M	.....	
100%	0.01990	100%	0.01148		0.10682	Sum of variances
Absolute SE: 0.14105		Relative SE: 0.10715			0.32683	Standard deviation
0.90						Coef_G relative
0.84						Coef_G absolute

The greatest contribution of the components to absolute error variance is pertaining to the interaction of the person and item which has the 26 percent contribution. The next component which has great contribution relatively are : I:M, R and PRI:M which their contribution value are respectively 23%,26% and4.6 %. Considering the coefficient of the studies, the obtained G coefficients , both relative and absolute are high .

Discussion

Discussion over first research question:

What are the relative estimated variance components for examinees, raters, item functions, item types, item characteristics, and their interactions in WDCT, ODCT, pragmatics tests?

As table 1 showed , items contribution is the highest among the main facets which is 9.5% and 10 % respectively for WDCT and ODCT. Trait is the second main facet that has high contribution on total score variance , its contribution is 5.4 and 4 respectively for WDCT and ODCT. Comparing to trait and items, raters contribution is small. Raters contribute only 1.2 and 1.1 respectively in ODCT and WDCT. He found significant contribution of mentioned factors to error variance. However, in his study the highest contribution was related to the person facet.

Discussion over second research question:

To what degree are WDCT and ODCT reliable?

Both tests are dependable in this study. The reliability finding is in line with some studies that found DCT tests reliable in different context (e.g. Brown, 1992; yamashita,1997;Lui,2004; Bachman & Palmer,1982). However, the finding is not consistent with some studies that found different types of DCT tests unreliable(e.g . Enochs and youshitake-Strain ,1992 ; and Brown ,2001) . In this study, the dependability of ODCT and WDCT somehow are same. This part of this study is in line with Brown and Anh (2010) who found both test reliable in same way.

Discussion over third research question:

To what degree do test method contribute error variance?

Although the contribution of the test method on error variance is very small, but it's interaction with other facets make great contribution on error variance. Moreover the contribution of all facets in different test method are different from each other. By using tow test type, we can see that the reliability of testing is increased. This finding is in line with Brown and Ahn(2010) . They found test method do not have significant contribution to the error variance.

Conclusion

This study investigated the impact of rater, rating trait, items on test takers performance on WDCT and ODCT pragmatic tests. Two tests were administered to 55 test takers and scored by four raters. The results of generalizability studies indicated that WDCT and ODCT enjoy an acceptable reliability level. Both relative and absolute G coefficients for Both tests were above 0.8. Although the contribution of different facets ware not stable across two tests, tests reliability were somehow same. Moreover, The G coefficient of mixed study, was highest among three studies. This shows using two test types simultaneously in measuring pragmatic increases the reliability of our measurement. Thus, this study suggests to teachers and researchers to use more than one test type to measure learners' pragmatic knowledge.

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IN SEARCH FOR A SUPPLEMENTARY PATH TO ENHANCE L2 VOCABULARY RECALL AND ACQUISITION

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ABSTRACT
THE PRESENT STUDY INVESTIGATED THE IMPACT OF THREE VOCABULARY LEARNING STRATEGIES (I.E., USING KEYWORDS, GUESSING THROUGH CONTEXT, AND GIVING SYNONYMS) ON THE RECALL AND ACQUISITION OF L2 VOCABULARY. THE PARTICIPANTS OF THE STUDY WERE 45 MALE AND FEMALE INTERMEDIATE EFL LEARNERS FROM A POPULAR LANGUAGE CENTER LOCATED IN BANDAR-E ANZALI, IRAN. IN ORDER TO GET SURE THAT THE PARTICIPANTS WERE HOMOGENEOUS, THE BABEL TEST WAS USED. BESIDES, IN ORDER TO ASCERTAIN THAT THE PARTICIPANTS DID NOT HAVE ANY PREVIOUS KNOWLEDGE OF THE TARGET WORDS, THE PARTICIPANTS WERE REQUESTED TO TAKE A PRETEST. THEY ARE ASKED TO WRITE DOWN THE PERSIAN EQUIVALENTS OF A LIST OF 150 WORDS, SELECTED FROM THE 3000-WORD LEVEL OF VOCABULARY LEVEL TEST DEVISED BY NATION (1990). SUBSEQUENTLY, THE WORDS WHICH STUDENTS WERE FAMILIAR WERE EXCLUDED. FINALLY, 96 VOCABULARY ITEMS WERE INCLUDED IN THE PRESENT STUDY. HAVING CLASSIFIED THE HOMOGENEOUS PARTICIPANTS INTO THREE GROUPS OF 15 LEARNERS, THE RESEARCHERS DIVIDED THE SELECTED WORDS INTO GROUPS OF EIGHT. THE TREATMENT LASTED 3 MONTHS: 12 SESSIONS, TWO SESSIONS PER WEEK, EACH OF WHICH TOOK 20 MINUTES. THE SUBJECTS IN THE FIRST GROUP WERE TRAINED TO LEARN THE WORDS BY GIVING SYNONYMS; THE SUBJECTS IN THE SECOND GROUP WERE TRAINED TO GUESS THE MEANING OF NEW LEXICAL ITEMS FROM THE CONTEXT, AND THE THIRD GROUP TRAINED USED THE KEY WORD METHODS TO LEARN THE VOCABULARY ITEMS. LATER ON, TWO TYPES OF POST-TESTS WERE ADMINISTERED: (1) IMMEDIATE VOCABULARY RECALL POST-TEST AND (3) DELAYED VOCABULARY ACQUISITION POST-TEST. EACH TEST INCLUDED 25 ITEMS, EXCEPT THE DELAYED ACQUISITION TEST THAT INCLUDED 50 ITEMS, BOTH RECEPTIVE AND PRODUCTIVE. IN FACT, THE PARTICIPANTS' RECEPTIVE VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE WAS TESTED THROUGH 25 MULTIPLE-CHOICE QUESTIONS AND THEIR PRODUCTIVE VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE THROUGH 25 FILL-IN-THE BLANK ITEMS. HAVING GATHERED THE REQUIRED DATA, THE RESEARCHERS RAN ONE-WAY ANOVA IN ORDER TO INVESTIGATE THE IMPACT OF THE VERY STRATEGIES ON THE RECALL AND ACQUISITION OF LEXICAL ITEMS. THE RESULTS INDICATED A SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE AMONG THE THREE GROUPS.

KEY WORDS: ACQUISITION, CONTEXT, KEYWORD, MNEMONIC, RECALL, VOCABULARY

1. INTRODUCTION

Educators have long recognized the importance of vocabulary acquisition in L2. Laufer (1997) puts forth that no text comprehension is possible, either in one's native or in a foreign language, without understanding the text's vocabulary. "Perhaps the greatest tools we can give students for succeeding, not only in their education but more generally in life, is a large, rich vocabulary and the skills for using those words" (Pikulski & Templeton, 2004, p. 1). Indeed, vocabulary learning is regarded as the heart of any language learning (Laufer, 1997). Dewey (1910) states that vocabulary is critically important because a word is an instrument for thinking about the meaning it expresses. Regarding

the importance of vocabulary, Aitchison (1989) also contends that words are tools of thought, and one will often find that s/he is thinking inappropriately because he is using the wrong tool.
However, recent research shows that vocabulary instruction might be problematic (Bintz, 2011) since many teachers are not "confident about the best practice in vocabulary instruction and at times do not know where to begin to form an instructional emphasis on word learning" (Berne & Blachowicz, 2008, p. 315). More importantly, lack of needed vocabulary has become the most important cause of pupils' inability to express what they mean in communicative activities. Thus, poor vocabulary has become one of the learners' sources of complaint in second language acquisition.
Undeniably, one of the basic issues that Iranian EFL learners face is how they can learn lexical items efficiently. Regardless of the vocabulary importance, little emphasis has been placed on vocabulary teaching. Nonetheless, studies in vocabulary learning are considered as a "promising area of inquiry" (Ellis, 1990, p. 214), and there is a consensus among scholars that "lexical competence is at the heart of communicative competence" (Tavakoli & Gerami, 2013, p. 300). Henceforth, the current work is aiming at giving learners and teachers some insights into finding a supplementary method to enhance learners' recall and acquisition of L2 vocabulary.

2. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

Although vocabulary teaching was ignored to a great extent in the past, there is now a widespread agreement that L2 learners need to increase the range of vocabulary substantially (Shakouri & Mehrgan, 2012). Since the range of vocabulary has a tremendous effect on the production and comprehension of vocabulary, Gass (1999) claims "learning a second language means learning its vocabulary" (p. 325). Nevertheless, students usually experience considerable difficulty with the acquisition of L2 vocabulary. Thereupon, it is necessary for teachers to explore effective ways that contribute to learners' effective vocabulary acquisition.
It is evident that teaching vocabulary should not only consist of teaching specific words but also aim at equipping learners with strategies necessary to expand their vocabulary knowledge (Hulstijn, 1993) because one of the biggest problems with L2 vocabulary acquisition is that what is learned today is often forgotten quickly. The primary reason for forgetting is that vocabulary acquisition is challenging (Lessard-Clouston, 2013) because lexical items, as to Ur (2012, cited in Lessard-Clouston, 2013) are considered as an open system constantly being added to.
In this regard, to tackle the problem of word studying, numerous learning strategies are suggested. In a study conducted by Nemati (2009), she found out that giving synonyms and mini-contexts exert positive effects on the long-term and short-term retention of vocabulary acquisition. However, although giving synonyms is respected as a popular strategy in teaching vocabulary, it results in a shallow level of word knowledge; moreover, only giving synonyms does not increase comprehension of the text containing the instructed words (Amirian & Momeni, 2012).
Incompatible with a definition-based learning in vocabulary teaching, scholars argue for the perspective that "words do not exist as isolated items in a language" (Yu-Ling, 2005, p. 11). Put differently, as to Yu-Ling, "words are interwoven in a complex system in which knowledge of various levels of a lexical item is required in order to achieve adequate understanding in listening or reading or produce ideas successfully in speaking and writing" (p. 11).
Henceforth, over the last two decades, several scholars (Laufer, 1997; Schmitt, 2000) have suggested a variety of vocabulary acquisition strategies in order to improve learners' vocabulary knowledge. Laufer (1997) proposes a guessing strategy based on clues extracted from context. Accordingly, Yu-Ling (2005) puts forth that guessing from context is held to be the most useful one. Meanwhile, Sariçoban and Balaman (2008) assert that context has a significant effect on the long-term retention of the words for a long time. Bowen and Marks (1994), in the same line, contend that there are two important reasons for presenting vocabulary in context. First of all, the context can present an association for the learners conducive to triggering the recall of vocabulary items. Secondly, contextualizing vocabulary presents learners with a means of physical storing of the vocabulary items under a topic category. Indeed, when a word is taught, it is necessary to show how the word is used in context. In other words, when students are asked to check the meaning of the word in a dictionary, they might pick up the incorrect definition, while when they are requested to see how the word is used in context, they can connect to the appropriate meaning (Graves, 2006). In fact, seeing a lexical item in context produces robust vocabulary acquisition.

Mnemonic techniques have also been supported by several scholars (e.g., Atkinson & Raugh, 1975). Keyword method, as a mnemonic technique for foreign language vocabulary study, was earlier introduced by Atkinson (1975). In keyword method, sounds and images are combined so that learners can more easily remember what they hear or read in the new language (Thompson, 1987). As put by Sariçoban and Balaman (2008), in the given method, there are two steps to follow: (a) identifying a familiar word in one's own language that sounds like the new word and (b) generating a visual image of the new word and the familiar one interacting the same way. Put differently, the keyword method has two important features: it should be familiar to the students, and it should be selected according to its acoustic resemblance to the target word (Avila & Sadoski, 1996). Gaul (2004) refers to the same method as a paired-associated strategy that entails the use of an acoustically similar word and the creation of a visual image. In effect, keyword method is a facilitating way to link the form of the new word to its meaning (Nation, 2001) and enhance retrievability of the word taught (Snowman, McCown, & Biehler, 2012).

One recommended procedure for teaching the keyword method to students is using the steps of recoding, relating, and retrieving (Mastropieri, 1988). Recoding involves selecting that part of the target word that looks like or sounds like a word that students are familiar with. For example, for the word *apex*, a student might select the word *ape*. Then, the students relate the recoded word to its target definition using imagery. For example, the word *apex* denotes a very high point. The student relates the word *ape* to a very high point, reminding himself of *King Kong* on the Empire State Building. Finally, students are requested to recall or retrieve the meaning of the word. In sum, when students see the word, the first step is to think of the keyword (e.g., *ape*). Next, an image related to that word is pictured (e.g., the ape at a high place). Finally, the image must be linked to the definition (Wyra, Lawson, & Hungi, 2007).

In the long run, although keyword method appears to be highly effective, it also has some limitations. In practice, providing an association between the key word and the target word is highly time-consuming. Moreover, although abstractness is also supposed to be a limitation to keyword method, scholars (e.g., Higbee, 2001) hold that by substituting concrete vocabulary for an abstract, one can help solve the problem. However, it is undeniable that forming an image for an abstract word demands a great deal of time (Clark & Paivio, 1987, cited in Al-Zahrani, 2011).

Purpose and Research Questions

Concerning what has been brought in the literature, the present research is an attempt to search for a supplementary path to enhance L2 vocabulary recall and acquisition. Henceforth, the following research questions were raised:

1. Is there any significant difference in the effects of using synonym, context, and keyword method on Iranian EFL learners' vocabulary recall?
2. Is there any significant difference in the effects of using synonym, context, and keyword method on Iranian EFL learners' vocabulary acquisition?

Based on the abovementioned research questions, two hypotheses were raised:

1. There is no significant difference in the effects of using synonym, context, and keyword method on Iranian EFL learners' vocabulary recall.
2. There is no significant difference in the effects of using synonym, context, and keyword method on Iranian EFL learners' vocabulary acquisition.

3. METHOD

3.1. Participants

Participants included three groups of 15 learners studying at the intermediate level of a popular language center located in the north of Iran, Bandar-e Anzali. To make sure that the selected groups were homogenized in terms of their language proficiency level, BABEL English Language Placement Test was used. The participants' age ranged from 16 to 29, from both genders.

3.2. Instrumentation and Materials

In the following research, the present study made use of the following instruments and materials:

3.2.1. BABEL test

To make sure that the participants were homogeneous, the researchers made use of BABEL test. The rationale behind using such a test was to curtail the effect of subject selection on the outcome of the study.

3.2.2. Pre-test of target words

To ascertain that the target words were unfamiliar to the students, a vocabulary test was used prior to the experiment. The test battery was composed of 150 items; each item was provided with a blank and the students were asked to write the meaning of the words in L2. The words were chosen from *the 3000-word level of Vocabulary Level Test (VLT)* by Nation (1990). According to Nation, the 3000 word levels contain the high-frequency words that all learners need to know in order to function effectively in English. To make sure that the selected words were the most frequent, Cobuild Advanced Dictionary (2015) was also used. Based on Cobulid Advanced Learner's English Dictionary, less frequent words were also discarded; moreover, those words which the students were familiar with are also excluded. Finally, 96 items were included in the present study. To suit the purpose of the study, the words had to meet two criteria: first, they had to be appropriate for the students' level, and second, words that had a phonological similarity with an L1 (here Persian) were preferred. Finally, 54 words were discarded out of 150.

3.2.3. Immediate vocabulary recall post-test

To measure the participants' short-term memory recall, the researchers designed one achievement test of L2 vocabulary recall, based on Nation's (1990) 3000-word level of Vocabulary Level Test. The test consists of two halves of 15 items. In the first half, the participants were required to choose the correct letter for each meaning and write the letter of that word next to its meaning. In the second half, the learners were requested to choose the right letter for each definition and write the letter of that word next to its definition. To determine the reliability of the very test, the Cronbach's alpha formula was used and an acceptable reliability of 0.81 was reported.

3.2.4. Delayed vocabulary acquisition post-test

To measure the participants' vocabulary acquisition, two months after the treatment, a list of 50 vocabulary items were given to the students. The items were made up of both receptive and productive items. The participants' receptive vocabulary knowledge was tested through 25 multiple-choice test and their productive vocabulary knowledge through 25 fill-in-the blank items. The reliability of the test was reported using Cronbach's alpha as 0.79.

To insure the content validity of the tests, two scholars examined the tests meticulously and made some modifications. Moreover, to guarantee the reliability of tests, the teacher-made tests were piloted with some students similar to the participants of the target group in terms of English background. Having calculated the item difficulty, item facility, and item distribution, ineffective and malfunctioning items were either removed or modified.

Having divided the homogeneous participants into three groups of 15, the researchers classified the selected words (i.e., 96 items) into groups of eight. The rationale for exposing students to 8 words each session lies in Finocchiaro and Bonomo's (1973) claim that students should not be exposed to more than 8 words each session because they are not capable of managing them. The treatment lasted 3 months: 12 sessions, two sessions per week, each of which took 20 minutes.

4. RESULTS

4.1. Testing the First Null Hypothesis

There is no significant difference in the effects of using synonym, context, and keyword method on Iranian EFL learners' vocabulary recall.

The first research question sought to investigate which vocabulary learning strategy is conducive to the learners' vocabulary recall. To this end, an ANOVA procedure was used. Descriptive statistics for the ANOVA on L2 vocabulary recall are presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1

Descriptive Statistics for the Immediate Vocabulary Recall Post-test

Descriptive Statistics								
Vocabulary Recall								
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Min	Maxi
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Keyword	15	23.6667	.89974	.23231	23.1684	24.1649	22.00	25.00
Synonym	15	14.2000	1.20712	.31168	13.5315	14.8685	13.00	17.00
Context	15	20.2667	2.21897	.57293	19.0378	21.4955	16.00	24.00

Total	45	19.3778	4.23883	.63189	18.1043	20.6513	13.00	25.00

Based on the results in Table 4.1, the group instructed through the keyword method has the highest mean, followed closely by the group instructed through context. The group instructed through giving synonyms has the lowest mean which is noticeably lower than that of the other groups.

Table 4.2 shows the output of the ANOVA analysis. One-way ANOVA was conducted to assess if there is a significant difference between the means of the three groups after instruction, and which of the three groups performed better regarding their vocabulary recall level.

Table 4.2

One-way ANOVA for Immediate Recall Post-test

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between G	689.911	2	344.956	143.922	.000
Within G	100.667	42	2.397		
Total	790.578	44			

As Table 4.2 show, the *p*-value is 0.00, which is smaller than 0.05 level of significance (.000<0.05). Since the observed F(143.9) is higher than critical F(3.21), therefore, the difference between the three groups was significant. So, the first null hypothesis, stating there is no significant difference between using synonym, context, and keyword method in developing EFL learners' vocabulary recall, was rejected.

To locate the differences, Scheffe post-hoc comparisons on the significant differences were conducted, results of which appear in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3

Multiple Comparisons for Delayed Vocabulary Acquisition Post-test

(I) Group	(J) Group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Keyword	Synonym	9.46667*	.56531	.000	8.0321	10.9013
	Context	3.40000*	.56531	.000	1.9654	4.8346
Synonym	keyword	-9.46667*	.56531	.000	-10.9013	-8.0321
	context	-6.06667*	.56531	.000	-7.5013	-4.6321
Context	keyword	-3.40000*	.56531	.000	-4.8346	-1.9654
	synonym	6.06667*	.56531	.000	4.6321	7.5013

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

The multiple comparisons of the results show that there is a significant difference (sig=0.00) between the three groups.

4.2. Testing the Second Null Hypothesis

There is no significant difference in the effects of using synonym, context, and keyword method on Iranian EFL learners' vocabulary acquisition.

The second research question investigated which vocabulary learning strategy is conducive to the learners' vocabulary acquisition. Thereupon, an ANOVA procedure was used. Descriptive statistics for the ANOVA on L2 vocabulary acquisition are presented in Table 4.4.

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Table 4.4
Descriptive Statistics for the Delayed Vocabulary Acquisition Post-test

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Min	Maxi
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Keyword	15	44.0000	3.29502	.85077	42.1753	45.824	39.00	49.00
Synonym	15	29.2667	2.93906	.75886	27.6391	30.894	23.00	33.00
Context	15	39.3333	2.79455	.72155	37.7858	40.880	34.00	45.00
Total	45	37.5333	6.88080	1.0257	35.4661	39.600	23.00	49.00

Based on the results in Table 4.4, the mean scores show that the group instructed through the keyword method did much better than the other two on the delayed vocabulary acquisition post-test. In addition, the second experimental group exposed to context in learning vocabulary performed better on the same post-test than the group which learn the words through using synonyms.
Table 4.5 reports the results of the ANOVA analysis in order to investigate if there is a significant difference between the means of the three groups after instruction, and which of the three groups performed better regarding their vocabulary acquisition level.

Table 4.5
One-way ANOVA for Delayed Vocabulary Acquisition Post-test

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Gs	1700.933	2	850.467	93.442	.000
Within Gs	382.267	42	9.102		
Total	2083.200	44			

As Table 5 illustrates, there is a significant difference among the three groups regarding the vocabulary scores at the end of the instruction period. As is clearly depicted in Table 4.5, since Observed F (2, 42) is greater than the Critical F (3.21), therefore the difference between the groups was significant. So, the second null hypothesis, stating there is no significant difference in the effects of using synonym, context, and keyword method on developing EFL learners' vocabulary acquisition, was also rejected.
To locate the differences, Scheffe post-hoc comparisons on the significant differences were conducted, results of which appear in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6
Multiple Comparisons for Delayed Vocabulary Acquisition Post-test

(I) Group	(J) Group	Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval

		(I-J)			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Keyword	Synonym	14.73333*	1.10161	.000	11.9378	17.528
	Context	4.66667*	1.10161	.001	1.8711	7.4622
Synonym	Keyword	-14.73333*	1.10161	.000	-17.5289	-11.937
	Context	-10.06667*	1.10161	.000	-12.8622	-7.271
Context	Keyword	-4.66667*	1.10161	.001	-7.4622	-1.871
	Synonym	10.06667*	1.10161	.000	7.2711	12.862

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

As Table 4.6 demonstrates, the differences among the three groups are statistically significant.

5. CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

In order to measure whether students have acquired the words taught or not, the present study inspired by the work of Gu (2003) makes a distinction between two dimensions of knowing a word: knowledge dimension and skill dimension. The knowledge dimension refers to the learner's ability to recall the form and meaning of the word, whereas the skill dimension is related to the learner's ability to use the word in context. Similarly, Oxford and Scarcella (1994) maintain that the knowledge of L2 vocabulary is not limited to its recall and recognition, but to judicious use of the words in appropriate context with the aim of meaningful negotiation.

The first research question of this study was whether there is any significant difference between presenting synonyms, guessing through context, and using keyword method in developing EFL learners' L2 vocabulary recall. The results of the present study indicated there was a significant difference among the three vocabulary acquisition strategies on the Iranian intermediate EFL vocabulary recall. The findings of the present research are at variance with Richards (1976) who claims keyword method is not conducive to the production of words. Nevertheless, the current work, in contrast, suggested that students trained through the keyword technique recalled more in comparison with the words taught in context or through giving synonyms.

Compatible with Ashouri and Yazdani Moghadam (2015), the current paper shows that the instructions of mnemonics to Iranian EFL learners will boost their vocabulary knowledge. In the same line, Baleghizadeh and Ashoori (2010) concluded that the keyword method performed better on recall compared to the word list method.

The delayed vocabulary acquisition test was the second post-test that was used two months after the instruction in order to investigate whether the three methods of vocabulary instruction have any impact on Iranian EFL vocabulary acquisition. Results of one-way ANOVA indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between the three groups. Thereupon, the second null hypothesis, claiming that there is no significant difference between presenting synonyms, guessing through context, and using keyword method in developing EFL learners' L2 vocabulary acquisition, was also rejected.

The findings of this study are also consistent with Nation (2001). Nation maintains that keyword method has positive effects on both immediate retention and long-term retention (one week to ten years), whereas several studies indicate that keyword method does not have any influential effect on vocabulary acquisition. Carney and Levin's (2000) study on the keywords also indicates that the long-term effects of the keyword method are not as strong as the immediate effects. Accordingly, Takac (2008) contends that the keyword method is not conducive to long-term retention. As to Richards (1976), the production of a word in a natural context is not achieved through the keyword method.

Besides, in a study on memory vocabulary learning strategies and long-term retention, Nemati (2009) came to hold that presenting synonyms and using the word in short contexts have positive effects on the long-term and short-term retention of vocabulary acquisition.

Incorporating the keyword method into the students' regular language learning schedule is highly recommended. This, however, does not mean that all foreign language vocabulary items should be learned using the keyword procedure because it is difficult to apply this method to all lexical items, particularly abstract words. In such cases, the students are suggested other strategies, including

guessing through context and presenting synonyms. However, although the long-term effects of the keyword method are not as strong as the immediate effects (Carney & Levin, 2000), "mnemonic devices are tricks for committing words to memory" (Nunan, 1991, p. 135). Similarly, mnemonic techniques are supposed to function as facilitation of learning process. Nonetheless, mnemonic techniques are not respected as a substitution for other techniques because it is very time-consuming. In other words, it is worth combining them with other techniques to fulfill immediate and long-term aids. As Hulstijn (1997) states, the retention of words learned incidentally from context is greater than that in which inferential clues such as multiple-choice synonyms are provided. In sum, the general recommendation is that teachers should take advantage of a variety of strategies while teaching vocabulary to their students.

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COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS BETWEEN CONSONANTS IN ENGLISH AND PERSIAN FROM POINT OF VIEW MANNER AND PLACE OF ARTICULATION

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ABSTRACT
THIS PAPER COMPARES THE CONSONANTS OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE WITH THE CONSONANTS OF PERSIAN LANGUAGE. CONSONANT SOUNDS HAVE THREE BASIC FEATURES IN THEIR ARTICULATION: PLACE OF ARTICULATION, MANNER OF ARTICULATION, AND VOICING. CONSONANTS PRODUCE SOUNDS THAT ARE MORE CONSISTENT AND EASIER TO IDENTIFY THAN VOWELS. CONSONANTS ARE SPEECH SOUND THAT ARE PRODUCED BY PARTIALLY OR COMPLETELY BLOCKING THE PASSAGE OF AIR THROUGH MOUTH. VOWELS ARE SPEECH SOUNDS THAT ARE PRODUCED BY RELEASING AIR THROUGH MOUTH WITHOUT CLOSING ANY PARTS OF MOUTH OR THROAT.

: THE GOALS OF PAPER ARE

1. ANALYSIS AND SCRUTINY HISTORY OF PHONETICS.

2. EXPLANATION AND STUDYING THE ORGANS OF SPEECH, ALSO THE MECHANISM OF ARTICULATION.

3. A COMPARISON BETWEEN CONSONANTS IN ENGLISH AND PERSIAN.

KEY WORDS: PHONETICS, CONSONANTS, PLACE OF ARTICULATION, MANNER OF ARTICULATION, VOWEL.

Introduction

What is phonetics? When you hear this word, what do you think about it? Phonetics has different aspects, and one of them is articulation of sounds .Each sound produced in different and various manners and places. Before, explaining about manner and place of articulation, we discuss about phonetics and a brief history of phonetics, and also an explanation about speech organs .Language was described as an inner body of knowledge about meaning, syntax, and pronunciation. of course, something as abstract as a body of knowledge is useless for the communication of meaning without some way of changing this abstract information in to a concrete form of expression.

For all human languages, sound is the concrete means of expression. More than 2000 of the world's languages have no writing system, but all have a sound system.(Falk, Julia S,1978,p.77). Human beings, as well as other animals, are equipped with certain physical properties that make possible the activities of breathing, sucking, biting, and swelling. Originally the same parts of the anatomy that take part in these functions also serve as a sound- producing mechanism, called the vocal fold. Although the physical properties of the human mouth, nasal passage, throat, and lungs are basically similar to those of certain animals, such as the ape, only human beings utter sound in the consistent and systematic manner characteristics of language. Why this is so is not fully understood at the

present time, but the unique role of sound in the behavior of all normal human beings is undoubtedly due to special characteristics of the man nervous system, including the brain. All sounds, whether musical notes, animal noises, or man speech, are patterns or waves of energy that move through air. (Falk, Julias, 1978, p.79).

Linguistic is one of the empirical sciences, because language is understandable through senses.How to hear Speech, how to see the gestures and activities of the organs of speech directly or indirectly, how to understand the concepts and meanings of speech, and how to see and read the line of language. Among different fields of linguistic, phonetics is important because, it describes and studies phones of language. "The sound structure of a language is phonology of that language, and the physical manifestation of the actual sounds is the phonetics of that language". (Mccully, 2009, p.9).Phonology is the branch of linguistics which studies the use of sound in human language. Phonetics is the study of the physical nature of speech sounds and speech production. (Rubba, 2011).The relationship between phonetics and phonology is a complex one, but we might initially approach phonology as narrowed down phonetics.(McMahon,April,2007,p.3).

Phonetics is divided in to three basic branches:

1. Articulatory phonetics:

Sounds may also be studied in terms of their origin, that is, how they are produced. When the means of production is the human vocal apparatus, the study is called articulatory phonetics.

2. Acoustic phonetics:

The field of study devoted to the investigation of sound waves is known as acoustic phonetics. Since both acoustic and articulatory investigation deal directly with physical phenomena-sound waves in the former case, the human vocal tract in the latter-they may be grouped together under the general term physical phonetics. Human beings are capable of producing an infinite variety of sounds, but no language makes systematic use of this variety. In fact study of many of languages of the world has indicated that language users, in their dual role of speaker and listener, pay no attention to many of the properties of sounds that can be described in physical phonetics. Certain properties of sounds are important for language and others are not. For example, a child and an adult could both pronounce the English word fire. The actual sounds each produces would be quite different in concrete, physical terms; for example, the pitch or tone of the child's sound would be higher than that produced by the adult, or the child might speak more loudly. Yet to a listener, these very real differences would be irrelevant; the listener would probably not even notice them. In spite substantial physical differences, the listener would identify the produced by each speaker as the same.(falk,1978,p.800).

3. Auditory phonetics

The study of the reception and perception of speech sounds by the listener. Phonetics has obtained of Greek word ἠνωφ means sound. The history of phonetics is divided to four eras: The first era is ancient period. The second era is between the years of 1770-1920.The third era, since 1920 until 1950, and the fourth era, since 1950 until now. In the ancient era, attention about phonetics turned to Indian linguistic, 150-800 before Christ. they explored the articulatory mechanism ,worked on glottis mechanism, and understood the concepts of assimilation.(Martin,James H,2007).Panini,400 years before Christ, had studied in his grammar about the rules of articulation and description of sound .The Indian researchers were master in speech mechanism, including organs of speech and articulatory processes. European science could not arrive to Indian phonetics until 19th century. Greeks had only elementary learning about phonetics for example they recognized consonants from vowels, or stops from continuous.(Martin, James H,2007).The element of sounds is divided to three branches by aphlaton:1.Tones:vowels.2.sounds:closed consonants.3.Middles:[l-m-n-r-s-d-z-k-p-s].Since 1770 until 1920,is invented elementary tools about sound, such as the machine produced vowels in (1723-1795).Another invention was a speaker machine. This machine produced laconic sentences and words. (The same).laryngoscope was invented in 1829,the first observations of the vocal cords were made in 1852,gramophone was invented in 1877,International Phonetic Association (IPA) was founded in 1886 in the late 19th century.

The international system of phonetics was for oral languages and for pedagogical purposes. IPA describe sounds from all languages. The system allows linguistics to explain the pronunciation of any

language with one writing system. International Phonetic Association had formulated six principles for the development of the alphabet in 1888.These principles were: Each sign should have its own distinctive sound.The same sign should be used for the same sound across all languages. As many ordinary Roman letters should be used as possible, and the usage of new letters should be minimal. International usage should decide the sound of each sign. The look of the new letters should suggest the sound that they represent.

This paper compares the consonants of English language with the consonants of Persian language. Consonant sounds have three basic features in their articulation: place of articulation, manner of articulation, and voicing. Consonants produce sounds that are more consistent and easier to identify than vowels. Consonants are speech sound that are produced by partially or completely blocking the passage of air through mouth. Vowels are speech sounds that are produced by releasing air through mouth without closing any parts of mouth or throat.

There is a research question for this paper, what is the differences and similarities between consonants in Persian and consonants in English?

Literature Review

Hall (2007), investigated about phonological features of Persian speakers of English interfere with their intelligibility when they communicate with first language Australian English speakers. Participants of study were 4 female Persian speakers of English and 6 Australian English speakers, one female and five males. Results of study indicate that Persian speakers of English, have difficulties in pronunciation that have an effect on their intelligibility when they interact with L1 English speakers. According to Lado (1957, p.2), "The student who comes in contact with a foreign language will find some features of it quite easy and others extremely difficult. Those elements that are similar to his native language will be simple for him, and those elements that are different will be difficult".

According to Windfuhr(as cited in Hall, 2007,p.6), Persian is a syllable-timed language and English is a stress-timed language. Persian syllables always take one of these patterns (i.e., CV, CVC, or CVCC) which identifies that Farsi syllables cannot be initiated with vowels, even words that start with a vowel include the glottal stop. The sound system of Persian is based on Arabic.

According to Windfuhr (1979, as cited in Hall, 2007, p.12),"English is characterized as a stressed-timed language. In stress-timed languages, the amount of time it takes to say a sentence depends on the number of syllables that receive stress". The alphabet of sound system of English is based on Latin which contains twenty six letters.

Alimorad (2014), studied about Contrastive Phonological analysis of English and Persian of an Iranian EFL learner. Participants of study was an intermediate–level Persian learner of English. Spontaneous and elicited procedures were used for data collection procedures. Results of study revealed that the learner had difficulties in some areas of English phonology.

Methodology

Contrastive Analysis is concerned with the comparison and contrast of two languages; hence, it conveys insights to the differences and the similarities of languages being compared. The aim of this paper is to compare consonants in Persian and English from manner and place of articulation so, this study only compare these consonants and speak about organs of speech.

The organs of speech is speaking the default modality for language in all cultures .Our first resource is to encode our thoughts in sound – a method which depends on sophisticated capacities for controlling the lips, tongue and other components of the vocal folds. The organs of speech, everyone agrees, evolved in the first instance not for speech but for more basic bodily functions such as feeding and breathing.(wikipedia.org).So function speech organs for articulation of phones is a second function not first. The organs of speech including: nasal cavity, lips, teeth, alveolar ridge, hard palate, velum(soft palate),uvula, tip of tongue, front of tongue, back of tongue, oral cavity,pharynx, epiglottis, larynx, vocal cords, trachea, esophagus. Most of speech organs are in the chest ,throat, and head.

Tongue

The word 'language' derives from the Latin lingua, 'tongue'. Phoneticians agree that the tongue is the most important speech articulator, followed by the lips. A natural language can be viewed as a particular way of using the tongue to utter thought. The human tongue has an unusual shape. In most mammals, it's a long, flat structure contained largely within the mouth. It is attached at the rear to the hyoid bone, situated below oral level in the pharynx. In humans, the tongue has an almost circular sagittal (midline) contour, much of it lying vertically down an extended pharynx, where it is attached to a hyoid bone in a lowered position. Partly as a result of this, the horizontal (inside-the-mouth) and vertical (down-the-throat) tubes forming the supra laryngeal vocal tract (SVT) are almost equal in length whereas in other species, the vertical section is shorter). As we move our jaws up and down, the tongue can vary the cross-sectional area of each tube independently by about 10:1, altering formant frequencies accordingly.(wikipedia.org) . Tip of tongue settles back of lower teeth. It comes between the upper and lower teeth as in/θ/ think. Front of tongue settles under hard palate, between tips of tongue a middle of tongue and it touches the palate, when produce the sound /y/.Back of tongue settles under soft palate. It touches the back part of palate, when produce the sound /k,g./

Lips and Teeth

In humans, the lips are important for the production of stops and fricatives, in addition to vowels. They are most important speech organs and with their muscle construction are able to move in all directions. Teeth are divided two section, upper teeth and lower teeth. Upper teeth are fixed and lower teeth are movable, because of moving lower jaw. The lower teeth with the upper teeth can make a point of articulation for sound, called interdental such as/θ/,/ð/.when the tip of tongue comes between the two sets of teeth.

Palate

The palate is pulled from back of upper teeth till uvula and it consists of three parts. Hard palate, it touched the front of the tongue to produce sound that is called, palatals such as /y/ in yes.it is bony and without movement. Soft palate or velum, it touched the back of the tongue to produce sound that is called velars such as /k,g/.it is fleshy and movable. velum movement towards up is caused to close airstream through nasal cavity, but when it comes down, the nasal cavity, mouth, and throat are related to each other. Uvula, it is soft and fleshy at the end of soft palate.

Some organs are breath-stream such as trachea, larynx, pharynx, mouth, and nose. The trachea is joined to throat and it is an air passage between the lungs and the larynx.it is also called windpipe. The thickness of windpipe is about 2 centimeter and the long of trachea is about 11 centimeter .The larynx settles at the top end of the trachea, consists of four parts such as, the base, Adam's apple, vocal cords, the glottis.it is also called voice box.

Vocal cords

They are inside of thyroid and on the cricoid, at the time of breathing, the vocal cords part with each other and the air passage is open completely and when the vocal cords stick with each other, the air passage is closed. The men's cords are longer and thicker than the women's cords .The responsibility of vocal cords is for voice and voicelessness of speech sound. If the vocal cords vibrate, the sound is voice, and if the vocal cords do not vibrate, the sound is voiceless. Pharynx, it is a cavity between larynx and the mouth.it is divided in to three sections: 1.throat, 2.pharynx, and 3.Upper pharynx .

Nasal cavities are on the upper throat. The nasal cavities in front is related to nostrils and in back to pharynx. if the passage of air is blocked in mouth, while vocal cords vibrated, the air passes through nasal cavities this mechanism is called nasal like /m/,/n/ in Persian and /m/,/n/,/ŋ/ in English .Mechanism of articulation the language phones are physical waves with various characteristics. These waves are produced with passing airstream in the speech organs. Different mechanism are used to produce airstream in speech passage .The speech parameters are divided to three parts. Pulmonic airstream, Glottalic airstream, and Velaric airstream.

Pulmonic mechanism

In most languages speech sounds are produced through passing airstream out of the lungs. There are two airstream in pulmonic mechanism. The egressive airstream and ingressive airstream .Pulmonic aggressive airstream are used by the most languages. Some languages use non-pulmonic sounds. These include: Ejectives like [p],[t],[k],and Clicks.

Glottalic mechanism

There are two glottalic airstream; glottalic egressive airstream and ingressive airstream coming up the pharynx and existing the air of lungs, create glottalic egressive mechanism. Coming down of the pharynx and entering the air to lungs create glottalic ingressive mechanism. The glottalic egressive mechanism is ejective and the glottalic ingressive mechanism is impulsive. The impulsive mechanism are used in some languages such as American red skins languages, some of the Ghaphghazian languages, and some of the Africans languages.

Velaric mechanism

There are two velaric mechanism, the velaric egressive airstream, and velaric ingressive airstream. Going back of the velar and coming in the air to the mouth is called velaric ingressive airstream, and pushing forward the velar and coming out the air of the mouth is called velaric egressive airstream. Velaric egressive airstream is not used for sound articulation, but this mechanism is used in many languages such as African Bushman Languages, Zulu, and Hottentot. Velaric ingressive airstream is used for sound articulation the sounds that are produced by velaric ingressive airstream is called click. The sounds like [noch-noch] in Persian and [tut-tut or tsk-tsk] in English are click.

Place and Manner of Articulation

The phones of English are divided two basic types: consonants, vowels phones (phonetic segments or Speech sounds): Speech sounds depending on whether they are vowels or consonants, are characterized different dimension of articulation.

[ ] ,/ /=phonology/phonetics symbols

{ }=phonics symbols

< > = English spelling letters

Consonants: are produced with narrowing in the vocal tract .Vowels: they are sounds that produced relatively open vocal tract. They involve vibration of the vocal folds, hence they are voiced (by definition).

In English there are 25 consonants including:

/l/,/r/,/j/,/w/,/h/,/ʍ//p/,/b/,/f/,/v/,/θ/,/ð/,/t/,/d/,/s/,/z/,/ʧ/,/ʤ/,/ʃ/,/ʒ/,/k/,/g/,/m/ ,/n/,/ŋ./

The phones of Persian are devided two basic types:

The first group are sounds that settle at the first, middle, and end of the word, these sounds are called consonants. The second group do not settle at the first of the words these sounds are called vowels. Vowels are only at the middle and at the end of the words.

In persian there are 23 consonants and 8 vowels. Consonants including:

/.y/,/ʧ/,/ʤ/,/ʃ/,/ʒ/,/j/./b/,/p/,/t/,/d/,/s/,/z/,/k/,/g/,/q/,/r/,/x/,/v/,/f/,/h/,/m/,/n/,/l./

Consonant sounds have three basic features in their articulation: voice, place of articulation,and manner of articulation.

Voice

Put your thumb and index (or second) finger lightly on either side of your Adam's apple utter a continuous 'zzzz' sound You should feel a vibration, a buzz ,inside the Adam's apple. If this vibration isn't immediately tangible, now try producing a continuous 'ssss' sound, and then switch from 'ssss' to zzzz', then back from 'zzzz' to 'ssss' again. You should feel vibration under your fingers when you articulate the continuous 'zzzz', but not when you produce 'ssss'.Now try the same exercise again, but this time switch from a continuous 'ffff'to 'vvvv', and then from 'vvvv' to 'ffff'. You should once more feel vibration under your fingers as you utter 'vvvv', but not when you

articulate 'ffff'.What you've just done is identify, and gain empirical evidence for, a feature of articulation that linguists call voicing".(McCully,CHris,2009,p.35).

There are these features in Persian language too and there is no need to explain it again for Persian. The voiceless sounds are called tense (Fortis) and the voice sound are called lax (lenis).Therefore voicing refers to the buzzing that we feel under our fingers.IT is a vibration of the vocal cords

Pairs of consonants in English

Voiceless:/s/,/f/,/θ/,/ʧ/,/ʃ/,/p/,/t/,/k/./ʍ/,/h/

Voice:/z/,/v/,/ð/,/ʤ/, /ʒ/ ,/b/,/d/,/g/,/n/,/m/,/ŋ/,/l/ ,/r/,/j/,/w./

Pairs of consonants in Persian

Voiceless:/p/,/t/,/k/,/ʧ/,/s/,/ʃ/,/f/,/x/,/h,/?/,/

Voice:/b/,/d/,/g/,/q/,/z/,/ʤ/,/v/,/ʒ/,/r/,/m/,/n/,/l/,/y./

Manner and place of articulation:

Manner of articulation refers, how to produced phones, and the degree of stricture Consonants are recognized by their manner of articulation, including: stops, fricative, affricates, nasals, and approximants.Place of articulation refers to the location of the narrowest part of the vocal tract in producing a sound. Where the sounds are produced.

Stop consonants

Stop sounds also called plosive sounds, which are produced by blocking the air in the mouth and then suddenly this air released, or by closing the lips. For this reason, phonemes such as:
/ p/,/b/,/t/,/d/,/k/,/g/,in English and Persian, and /q/,/?/ In Persian are classified as plosive or stops.
/ p/ is produced, when vocal cords are apart ,therefore this sound is voiceless.
/b/ is produced ,when vocal folds are closed or near together ,therefore this sound is voice.
/p/and /b/ are produced by close of the two lips and suddenly release the air, therefore they are bilabial. Consonant /p/ is aspirated in both English l and Persian language./p/ in Persian like [por], [separ] and /p/ in English like [pin], [nip], [pea].

Place of articulation

The lips can be parted, or closed together. if they are closed, the airstream is block into the oral cavity from the lungs, and if the lips are parted, we have explosive release of air. Therefore /p/and /b /are produced by close of the two lips and suddenly release the air, so they are bilabial.
So consonant /p/ in English and Persian is egressive, voiceless, plosive, and bilabial .
Consonant /b/ in English and Persian is egressive, voice, plosive, and bilabial.

Consonants /t,d/

Stoppage settled in the tip of the tongue and upper teeth. The tip of the tongue is pressed onto the bony structure behind the upper teeth and, therefore, the passage of the air is blocked and at the time of opening stoppage, the air suddenly released.

Place of articulation

On the upper part of the oral cavity, immediately behind your upper teeth, you'll find a small , bony ridge. This important place of articulation is known as the alveolar ridge. If you think about the utterance of /t/ and /d/, you'll understand that the airstream is modified once again by stoppage: the apex of tongue lies on the alveolar ridge, and the sides of the tongue are sealed against the top teeth. Therefore, the stoppage may be modified if the apex of tongue is momentarily retracted from the alveolar ridge. The result is a rapid, explosive release of air. And therefore, /t/ and /d/ may confidently be classified as alveolar plosives. (McCully, 2009, p.42).

So the phonetic description of /t/ in English: aspirated, egressive, voiceless, plosive, and alveolar.
Phonetic description of /t/ in Persian: aspirated, egressive, voiceless plosive, dental.
/t/ in English like:[teacher],[test]./t/ in Persian like:[tut],[parastu].
The phonetic features of /d/ in English: egressive, voice, plosive, alveolar.
The phonetic features of /d/ in Persian: egressive, voice, plosive, dental.
/d/ in English like:[desk],[duck]./d/ in Persian like:[bandar], [moddat].
An important destinctive between /t/ and /d/ is aspiration./t/ is aspirated but /d/ not. The same principal is observed for the pair of consonants /k/ and /g./

Place of articulation

/k/and /g/ are palatal. Palatals are produced by the front of the tongue, which raise towards the hard palate. (April McMahon, 2002, p.32).The place of articulaion for /k/ and /g/ is velum or soft palate.

/k,g/:The stoppage is on the center of soft palate, then back of the tongue moved up and pressed to center of velums. The blades of the back of tongue, is connected to the molar teeth.At the time of breaking stoppage, pressed air is released suddenly, and then result is an explosive release of air.
The phonetic description of /k/ in English and
Persian: egressive, voiceless, aspirated, plosive, and velar.

/k/ in English as:[king],[kind]./k/ in Persian as:[kar],[kudak].

The phonetic description of /g/ in English and Persian: egressive, voice, aspirated, plosive, and velar.
/g/ in English as:[go],[god]./g/ in Persian as:[sigar],[garm].
Consonants /q/ and /?/are also plosive in Persian and these sounds there are not in English .Persian has two phones more than English in stop or plosive consonants.

Therefore, in English there is 6 phones that are plosive, and in Persian 8 phones, which are plosive.
Manner and place of articulation for /q/ and/?/
The /q/ sound: this sound is produced at the end of the back of tongue and at the end of velum.The last part of back of the tongue that is faced with uvula, raise and stick to the end of the velum. The passage of air is blocked, when the back of tongue comes down, pressed air release suddenly. forexample. [noqte نقطه],
/?/Sound, is produced by vocal cords and pharynx.e.g.[sa?i.ساعي]
The phonetic characteristic of /q/:egressive, voice, plosive, uvula.
The phonetic characteristic of /?/:egressive, voiceless, plosive, glottal.

Manner of articulation of fricative consonants:

Fricative sounds are produced with friction in the glottis or in the oral cavity, they belong to a class of sounds, are called fricative .Fricative phones in English, including:
/f/,/v/,/θ/,/ð/,/s/,/z/,/ʃ/,/ʒ/,/h/,/ʍ./
Fricative sounds in Persian ,including:/s/,/z/,/ʃ/,/ʒ/,/f/,/v/,/x/,/h/.
In English there is 10 fricative sounds, and in Persian there is 8 fricatives. In English there is not a sound like /x/, and in Persian there is not sounds like /θ/, /ð./
Place of articulation for /s/, /z/
Alveolar sounds are produced by the tip or blade of the tongue moving up towards the alveolar ridge ,the bony protrusion you can feel if you curl your tongue back just behind your top front teeth.(McMahon,April,2002,p.32).
The phonetic explanation of /s/:egressive, voiceless, fricative ,alveolar.
The phonetic explanation of /z/:egressive, voice, fricative, alveolar.

Place of articulation for /ʃ/, /ʒ/

These sounds are made by tongue and palate. the tip of tongue or blade of tongue move up behind alveolar ridge and touch the hard palate, and then move back, and impact to the soft palate. There is a little distance between upper and lower teeth .Friction is produced by passing air from this space.

The phonetic description of /ʃ/:egressive. Voiceless, fricative, palato-alveolar.
The phonetic description of /ʒ/:egressive. Voice, fricative, palato-alveolar.
The phonetic description of /ʃ/ in English: egressive. Voiceless, fricative, palatal.
The phonetic description of /ʒ/ in English: egressive. Voice, fricative, palatal.
There is only one different between them, that is,/ʃ/ in English is palatal but in Persian is palato-alvealar, and also for /ʒ ./

Place of articulation for /f/,/v/

Behind the lips there are teeth./f/ and /v/ are produced by interaction of lower lip and upeer teeth.They are labio-dental. Vocal cords are apart in producing /f/, so this sound is voiceless, and /v/is voice, because of, vibration in vocal cords.
Phonetic analysis of /f/:egressive, voiceless, fricative, labio-dental./f/ in English like:[foot],[food]./f/ in Persian like:[sarf],[fut].
Phonetic analysis of /v/:egressive, voice, fricative, labio-dental./v/ in English like:[vital],[verb]./v/ in Persian like:[vazn],[hava].They are same in Persian and English /θ/ and /ð/,they are in English language. They are produced through tongue and teeth. The tip of tongue impact with upper front teeth. For example /θ/ in [thin],/ð/ in [they.[
Phonetic interpretation of /θ/:egressive, voiceless, fricative, dental.
Phonetic interpretation of /ð/:egressive ,voice ,fricative ,dental.
/x/,is in Presian. It is produced by end of back of the tongue and last part of soft palate. Vocal cords are apart in producing /x/, so this sound is voiceless,e.g.[saxt.سخت] .
Phonetic description of /x/:egressive, voiceless, fricative, uvula.
/h/,in English and Persian, is produced by vocal cords and it is glottal.
Phonetic feature of /h/:egressive, voiceless, fricative, glottal.
Phonetic feature of /ʍ/ in English: fricative, voiceless, labio-velar.
Manner and place of articulation of affricates consonants:

Affricates are really combined a plosive and a fricative .The air is blocked, and then released through a narrow way like a fricative. English has two affricates, the initial sounds in cheap and jeep/ʧ/ and /ʤ/, and Persian has two affricates too. /ʧ/ and /ʤ/, like English, the initial sounds in chera and jurab. These are usually classified as palato-alveolar. Affricates are made in a position half way between the alveolar ridge and the hard palate.

Phonetic specification of /ʧ/:egressive, voiceless, plosive-fricative, palato-alvealar.
Phonetic specification of /ʤ/:egressive, voice, plosive-fricative, palato-alvealar .
Manner and place of articulation of nasal consonants

When a nasal sound is produced, the air is released through the nose .There are three nasals in English: /m/, /n/, /ŋ/, and two nasal in Persian:/m/,/n/./m/ is bilabial, /n/ is alveolar in English and Persian, and /ŋ/is velar in English.
Phonetic features of /m/: egressive, voice, nasal, bilabial.
Phonetic features of /n/: egressive, voice, nasal, alvealar.
Phonetic features of /ŋ/: egressive, voice, nasal, velar.
Manner and place of approximants consonants

Sounds like /r/,/l/,/j/,/w/,are classified as approximants in English./r/ red,/l/ let,/j/ yes, and /w /wet .All these approximants are voiced. In Persian /r/, /l/,/y/,are different. There are different kinds of /r /in English .In north of England is uvular ,in Scots English the sound is an alveolar trill, in Indian English the sound is tap, and in Northern British English the sound is post-alveolar. It is produced by tongue. The tongue is raised, and tip of tongue is held behind of the alveolar ridge. In Persian, /r/ is produced by tip of tongue and top gum, so tip of tongue is impacted

with alveolar ridge, but this contact is very soft. In Persian, the sound /r/ is trill or roll, like [ruz]. In English ,the sound /l/ is produced by the sides of the tongue ,that are sealed against the upper teeth, so there is not lateral air, therefore /l/ is classified as lateral alveolar like [lip].In Persian, the sound /l/ is produced by tip of tongue and top gum. The sides of tongue is contacted with incisors like [lab].In English ,the sound /j/ is produced by the body of tongue and hardpalate.in this case ,the body of tongue is raised ,and approaches the hard palate ,and there is no contact or friction like [yes]. In Persian, the sound /y/ is produced by the tongue and palate. There is no friction like [guya].In English, the sound /w/ is produced by the body and back of tongue toward velum, and the lip is rounded like [wet].

Phonetic features of /r/, in English: egressive, voice, approximant, post-alveolar.
Phonetic descriptions of /r/, in Persian: egressive, voice, trill, alveolar.
Phonetic analysis of /l/, in English: egressive, voice, lateral approximant, alveolar.
Phonetic explanations of /l/, in Persian: egressive, voice, lateral, alveolar.
Phonetic interpretations of /j/, in English: egressive, voice, approximant, palatal.
Phonetic features of /j/, in Persian: egressive, voice, glide, palatal.
Phonetic specifications of /w/, in English: egressive, voice, approximant, labio-velar.

Results

In this section is illustrated the phonetics properties of consonants in table. The classification of Persian consonants according to place of articulation (horizontal column) and manner of articulation (vertical column) is given in Table 1.

	Bilabial	Labiodent.	Dental	Postalv.	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Plosive	p b		t d			k g	ʔ
Nasal	m		n				
Fricative		f v	s z	ʃ ʒ		x ɣ	h
Affricate				tʃ dʒ			
Trill			r				
Approximant					j		
Lateral Approximant			l				

Table 1:Persian Consonants in International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA), 1999, p. 124

The Persian vowels are given in Table 2.

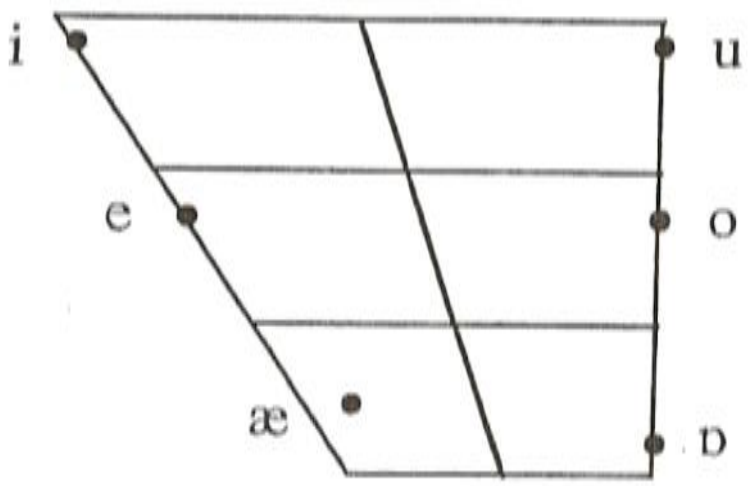

Table 2: (Persian Vowels), International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA), 1999, p. 124

The classification of English consonants according to place of articulation (horizontal column) and manner of articulation (vertical column) is given in Table 3 below:

	Bilabial	Labio-dental	Dental	Alveolar	Post-alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Plosive	p b			t d			k g	
Affricate					tʃ dʒ			
Nasal	m			n			ŋ	
Fricative		f v	θ ð	s z	ʃ ʒ			h
Approximant				r		j	w	
Lateral Approximant				l				

Table 3: (English Consonants), International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA), 1999, p. 41

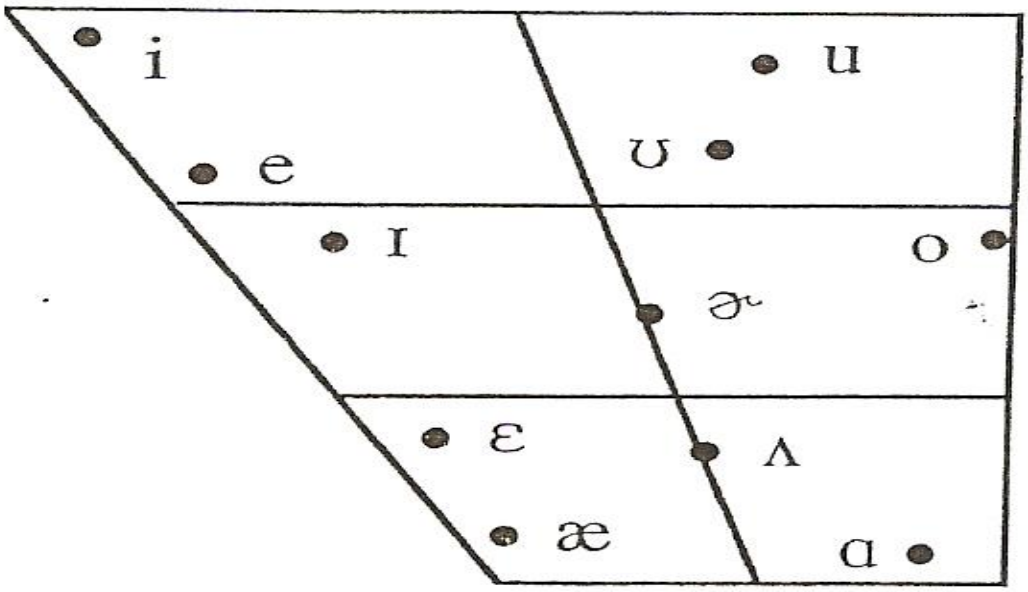

Table 4: (English Vowels), International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA), 1999, p. 42

Consonant	*Voice*	*Manner*	*Place*
/p/	-	*plosive*	*bilabial*
/b/	+	*plosive*	*bilabial*
/f/	-	*fricative*	*labio-dental*
/v/	+	*fricative*	*labio-dental*
/θ/	-	*fricative*	*dental*
/ð/	+	*fricative*	*dental*
/t/	-	*plosive*	*alveolar*
/d/	+	*plosive*	*alveolar*
/s/	-	*fricative*	*alveolar*
/z/	+	*fricative*	*alveolar*
/ʧ/	-	*affricate*	*palato-alveolar*
/ʤ/	+	*affricate*	*palato-alveolar*
/ʃ/	-	*fricative*	*palatal*
/ʒ/	+	*fricative*	*palatal*
/k/	-	*plosive*	*velar*
/g/	+	*plosive*	*velar*
/m/	+	*nasal (stop)*	*bilabial*
/n/	+	*nasal (stop)*	*alveolar*

/ŋ/	+	nasal (stop)	velar
/l/	+	lateral (approximant)	alveolar
/r/	+	approximant	post-alveolar
/j/	+	approximant	palatal
/w/	+	approximant	labio-velar
/h/	-	fricative	glottal
/ʍ/	-	fricative	labio-velar

Table 5: Consonant phonemes: an inventory and diagnostic in English

Consonant	Voice	Manner	Place
/p/	-	plosive	bilabial
/b/	+	plosive	bilabial
/f/	-	fricative	labio-dental
/v/	+	fricative	labio-dental
/t/	-	plosive	dental
/d/	+	plosive	dental
/s/	-	fricative	alveolar
/z/	+	fricative	alveolar
/ʧ/	-	affricate	palato-alveolar
/ʤ/	+	affricate	palato-alveolar
/ʃ/	-	fricative	palato-alveolar
/ʒ/	+	fricative	palato-alveolar
/k/	-	plosive	velar
/g/	+	plosive	velar
/m/	+	nasal	bilabial
/n/	+	nasal	alveolar
/l/	+	lateral	alveolar
/r/	+	trill	alveolar
/y/	+	glide	palatal
/x/	-	fricative	uvula
/h/	-	fricative	glottal
/q/	+	plosive	uvula
/ʔ/	-	plosive	glottal

Table 6: Consonant phonemes: an inventory and diagnostic in Persian

Discussion and Conclusion

The aim of this paper is a comparison between the consonants in English language, and consonants in Persian, and similarities and differences between them from point of view manner and place of articulation. Similarities between consonants in Persian and English are more than the differences. These both language are alike, but not completely. Because some consonants there are not in Persian like/ ŋ/, /ʍ/, /ð/, /θ/, and some in English like /?/,/q/,/X/.Although, English and Persian have some similarities in place and manner of articulation but the system of pronunciation in both languages are different of each other, for example, in intonation, stress, and so on. According to Alimorad (2014), "pronunciation is the most difficult aspect of an L2 to learn English and Persian phonological systems differ in their range of sounds as well as in their stress and intonation patterns. Therefore, Persian speakers have great difficulty in perceiving and articulating the full range of English vowels and diphthongs". Also, according to Hall (2007,p.i)," Many students who are learning English within Iran, as well as Farsi speakers of English abroad, have difficulties in pronunciation that have an effect on their intelligibility when they interact with L1 English speakers". There for, the similarities between consonants in Persian and English is not caused correct pronunciation of words in English. All consonants are egressive, and the shape of lips impact onto the production of sounds like [warm] the lips are rounded.Also, this paper explained about organs of speech that are important in the sound mechanism, because without knowing speech organs, we cannot understand about manner and place of articulation of consonants. Also, phonetics is divided three basic parts, 1.Articulatory phonetics.2.Acoustic phonetics 3.Auditory phonetics. Researchers can compare consonants and vowels in various shapes .

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THE EFFECT OF USING SHORT STORIES AND SONGS ON THE SECOND LANGUAGE ACHIEVEMENT OF IRANIAN YOUNG LEARNERS

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ABSTRACT
THE PRESENT STUDY WAS AN ATTEMPT TO INVESTIGATE THE EFFECT OF USING SHORT STORIES AND SONGS ON THE SECOND LANGUAGE ACHIEVEMENT OF IRANIAN YOUNG LEARNERS. TO DO SO, SIXTY IRANIAN YOUNG LEARNERS WHO WERE STUDYING IN THE KINDERGARTENS AND PRESCHOOL CENTERS WITH THE AGE RANGE OF 5 TO 7 WERE SELECTED AS THE PARTICIPANTS OF THE STUDY AND WERE DIVIDED INTO TWO EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS. THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP WAS EXPOSED TO A LOT OF ACTIVITIES ENRICHED WITH SHORT STORIES AND SONGS, WHILE THE CONTROL GROUP WAS ENGAGED IN THE ORDINARY PROGRAM OF THE CLASSROOM. AFTER 24 SESSIONS OF TREATMENT, THE POSTTEST OF YLE WAS ADMINISTERED. THE OUTCOME OF THE POSTTEST DATA ANALYSIS SHOWED THAT THE PARTICIPANTS RECEIVING THE TREATMENT SIGNIFICANTLY OUTPERFORMED THE CONTROL GROUP ON THE TOTAL ACHIEVEMENT TEST. SECONDLY THE DATA ANALYSIS REVEALED THAT THAT THERE WERE SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE TWO GROUPS' MEANS ON THE COMPONENTS OF SPEAKING TEST IN THE TWO GROUPS. THEREFORE, IT WAS CONCLUDED THAT IN ALL FOUR SUB-SKILLS OF SPEAKING TEST, NAMELY, PRONUNCIATION, FLUENCY, GRAMMAR, AND VOCABULARY, AND THE TOTAL TEST OF SPEAKING, THE LEARNERS OF THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP OUTPERFORMED THE ONES IN THE CONTROL GROUP. ALTHOUGH THE BENEFITS OF EMPLOYING SONGS, MUSIC, AND STORIES HAVE VASTLY BEEN CONFIRMED IN THE ELT RESEARCH, THE PRESENT STUDY EMPHASIZES THE IMPORTANCE OF EXPOSING EFL YOUNG LEARNERS TO SUCH ACTIVITIES AND SHOWS THAT THE COMPONENTS OF SPEAKING ALSO WILL BE AFFECTED IN THE PROCESS OF THEIR DEVELOPMENT BY THE PRESENTATION OF SONGS AND STORIES TO THE LEARNERS.

KEYWORDS: YOUNG LEARNERS, SECOND LANGUAGE ACHIEVEMENT, SHORT STORIES, SONGS

1.1 Introduction

Teaching of English to young learners requires special training, something which has never been part of the curriculum of elementary school teacher education program in our country (Iran). In some famous universities of the world TEYL is a specialist field within the area of TESOL and the MA TEYL courses designed for training teachers for the same purpose are concerned with the special language and learning needs of young learners (Mart, 2012).
There is an extensive empirical literature on the differences between child and adult language learners. Ludke (2010) pointed to some of these points that can be summarized in five areas: (1) attention span, (2) concreteness, (3) playfulness, (4) phonic acuity, and (5) affective points. Teaching a Foreign Language (FL) to young learners at early age is different from teaching adults; it is definitely not easier. It is rather more challenging and interesting. The Critical Period Hypothesis suggests that early exposure to the target language is more effective than later stages at adulthood (Cameron, 2001).

Žigárdyová (2006), as well, commented that the earlier learners are introduced to a FL, the better they learn it. The present study is an attempt to investigate the effect of using short stories and songs on the second language achievement of Iranian young learners

1.2 Literature Review

Teaching of English to young learners requires special training, something which has never been part of the curriculum of elementary school teacher education program in our country (Iran). In some famous universities of the world TEYL is a specialist field within the area of TESOL and the MA TEYL courses designed for training teachers for the same purpose are concerned with the special language and learning needs of young learners (Mart, 2012).
Mart (2012) noted that teaching a FL to young learners involves stimulating their early interest towards the language and developing their awareness of rich language uses. Cameron (2001, p. 1) differentiates young learners from adults in the following terms:

1. Children are often more enthusiastic and lively as learners;
2. they also lose interest more quickly and are less able to keep themselves motivated on tasks they find difficult;
3. they do not have the same access as older learners to meta-language that teachers can use to explain about grammar or discourse; and
4. they seem less embarrassed than adults at talking in a new language.

Among the various types of genres, stories are the most widely used in educational settings (Wajnryb, 2003). Since their early childhood, children have opportunities to listen to various types of stories (Loukia, 2006). Songs can also be used for a number of purposes in the young learners' English classrooms and there are many reasons why songs can be considered a valuable pedagogical tool. Songs can help young learners improve their listening skills and pronunciation; therefore, they potentially help learners to improve their speaking skills (Murphey, 1992). Songs can also be useful tools in the learning of vocabulary, sentence structures, and sentence patterns, not to mention their reflectivity of mother tongue culture (Murphey, 1992). Perhaps the greatest benefit to using songs in the classroom is that they can be fun.

Le Roux (2002) also supported the theory that ESL students can relax and feel good about themselves while singing because that is a form of an expression that they are familiar with. It can also appeal to students who already have negative attitude towards learning a new language or the traditional methods that are commonly used.
Moreover, teaching English as a foreign language to young learners varies in many ways from teaching adults. One of the major differences lies in course design and the kind of tasks and activities covered in the books (Yousofi & Yousefvand, 2012). More varieties of activities are needed to be used in the classroom in order to teach young learners and make the lesson an attractive process as well as making learning effective by making use of various intelligences and engaging different competences in the process of learning (Rahimy & Asaei, 2012).

Considering the unofficial voluntary-based introduction of Teaching English to Young Learners (TEYL) in the Iranian context and its presence in the kindergartens and elementary schools, the Iranian ELT and SLA researchers have focused on various aspects of this initiative: Abadi and Marzban (2012) focused on teachers' beliefs and teaching English writing to children and adolescent learners in Iran. Nazeryan, Jahandar, and Khodabandehlou (2013) studied the effectiveness of dramatization in teaching English to kids while Rahimy and Asaei (2012) discussed audio texts and English speaking ability of young learners. Yousofi and Yousefvand (2012) concentrated on the role of arts in teaching English to young learners. Meanwhile to the knowledge of the of present researcher, accounts of studying the effect of songs and short stories on the second language development of young learners has not been properly documented in the literature.

Therefore, as Teaching English to Young Learners (TEYL) in the Iranian context is almost a new project, it suffers a lot of problems. Though TEYL in Iran was originally targeted towards the development of the ability to understand simple oral and written language, the efforts seem to have encountered various obstacles. In specific, we can point to two big concerns, i.e., instructional materials and teachers of English.

Research in this area is also poor and specific techniques of teaching English to kids require specially designed studies. Second language development of young learners in the Iranian kindergartens and primary schools could be energized through using various techniques, methods and materials such as songs and short stories. Concerning instructional techniques, there has been little professional attempt yet to conduct research on these techniques. Therefore, designing a study to meet the needs of young learners is of paramount importance. The present study was an attempt in this direction to provide empirical evidence for the effectiveness of the above-mentioned materials and the techniques of teaching them to young learners. Considering the problems stated above the following research questions were formulated:

RQ1: Does using short stories and songs significantly affect the second language achievement of Iranian young learners?
RQ2: Does using short stories and songs significantly affect the second language oral achievement (components of speaking) of Iranian young learners?

1.3 Method
Design
The present study adopted a quasi-experimental design in which the effect of using short stories and songs as the independent variable on second language achievement of Iranian young learners as the dependent variable was researched. Also the components of speaking such as pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, and fluency were considered as dependent variables. The control variables of the study were the participants' gender and age.

Subjects
The participants of the study were sixty Iranian young learners; the students studying in the kindergartens and preschool centers who were between 5 to 7 years of age. These learners were selected from among the young learners of conversation classes in Salam and Roshd preschool centers where the researcher's friends taught. The participants were at the early stages of second (foreign) language development and their English background knowledge was almost the same.
The participants, who were both girls and boys, were randomly divided into two different groups shaping the control and experimental groups of the study and then the treatment was initiated for one semester (about 8 weeks, three 90-minute sessions per week).

Instruments
In order to carry out this study only one instrument was used. This instrument was a standard YLE test (2007) which was used as the posttest and was conducted at the end of the treatment phase. To score the learners' speaking performance in the two experimental and control groups, the researcher used the YLE speaking scale developed and presented by University of Cambridge ESOL examinations released in 2013. The scoring was done by two raters (the researcher, herself and one of her colleagues who was a TEFL M.A. holder with almost ten years of experience in teaching and testing kids) scored. The agreement between the raters was estimated and it turned out to be .78.
The fact is that the students' speaking performance on the (Young Learners English) YLE test were also rated by the two raters (researcher herself and her colleague). A Pearson correlation was run to probe the inter-rater reliability and the results (Pearson $R = .78$, $P = .000 < .05$) indicated significant agreement between the two raters. Table 1 shows the inter-rater reliability of the speaking test.

Table 1
Inter-Rater Reliability of the YLE Speaking Test

		Speaking R 1
Speaking R 2	Pearson Correlation	.785**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	60

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

Procedure

The learners in both experimental and control groups received the same materials and time of teaching. Each session of the classroom was the same except that the students in the experimental group were exposed to songs and short stories for 20 minutes every session of the classroom (see appendix III for samples of songs and short stories used in the classroom instructions).

The experimental group received various short stories which were consistent with the subjects of each lesson taught based on the course book. The experimental group went through the activities and songs as follows: (a) the teacher provided the learners with instructions related to each short story or song in Persian; (b) the learners were informed of the way(s) they were going to be involved in the story or repeating the songs; (c) the learners were trained how to take turn, correct each other, and continue retelling the stories and songs; (d) the learners were trained to encourage cooperation among themselves and enjoy learning as they were developing their knowledge and speaking ability in the classroom. The songs and stories presented were thematically related to the course book topics selected and taught each session and were in line with the units of their lessons from the book. (e) The learners' participation in the classroom activities were taken into consideration and the teacher presented each learner with the feedback required via employing recast, correction, restatement, and the like to emphasize learner's miss-production. The learners in the experimental group were trained to listen to the recorded stories and songs when they were at home; they were encouraged to listen to the recorded material of the class and their own voices and pay attention to the teacher's comments concerning each person's mis-productions as well. The teacher provided them with new comments, in turn. It was assumed that this would gradually help them to improve their abilities in the foreign language development while having fun.

The control group, on the other hand, was engaged in the ordinary program of the classroom. The concepts were both implicitly and explicitly taught throughout the course book and explicit grammar experiences were also touched upon in the lessons presented. Both the control and experimental groups listened to the conversations, worked with dialogues, covered the short texts given in the book, discussed the new points in the class, took part in the Question and Answer activities, individual and group writing development, and developed conversations based on the new topics given in each section of the course book. Students in both groups worked on grammar exercises in their course book as well. The instructional hours consisted of 24 sessions spread out over eight weeks. Each class session was 90 minutes held three times a week. It is worth mentioning that the participants in both groups were taught by the same instructor.

1.4 Results

Data Analysis

After the 24 sessions of treatment via employing short stories and songs were over, the posttest of YLE was administered. The results of the posttest in the form of scores (the average of the two score given by the two raters) for the speaking section were analyzed and compared through SPSS version 21. An independent t-test was run to compare the mean scores of the experimental and control groups on the YLE posttest to probe the effect of the treatment on the second language achievement of the learners. This test was used to probe the effect of teaching English through short stories and songs on the general second language achievement of the learners. A MANOVA was run to compare

the two groups' means on the four components of speaking, i.e. pronunciation, fluency, grammar and vocabulary in order to probe the effect of the treatment and intervention on the speaking achievement of the YLE learners and the components of speaking. The inter-rater reliability of the speaking section of the test was computed by Pearson correlation. Reliability of the YLE posttest was computed using K-R21 method. Construct validity of the test used in the study was also computed by running a factor analysis which was run through the Varimax rotation in order to probe the underlying constructs of the components of the achievement test.

Testing the Normality Assumption

This study has gathered the data based on the YLE test including three sections of listening comprehension, writing and reading comprehension, and specking part. The last part itself includes the subcomponents of speaking such as pronunciation fluency grammar and vocabulary.
The research questions posed in this study were analyzed through the independent t-test and multivariate ANOVA (MANOVA) both of which have a common assumption, i.e. normality of the data. That is why the assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variances were checked.
As displayed in Table 2 the ratios of skewness and kurtosis are within the ranges of +/- 1.96, hence the normality of the present data is approved. It means that the data enjoyed normality and the analyses of the results could be fairly conducted. The specific assumptions related to independent t-teat and MANOVA will be reported within the main discussion.

Table 2
Testing Normality Assumption

		N	Skewness			Kurtosis		
Group		Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Ratio	Statistic	Std. Error	Ratio
Experimental	LC	30	-.254	.427	-0.59	-.741	.833	-0.89
	WRRC	30	.512	.427	1.20	-.836	.833	-1.00
	Pronunciation	30	-.065	.427	-0.15	-1.355	.833	-1.63
	Fluency	30	-.218	.427	-0.51	-.476	.833	-0.57
	Grammar	30	-.329	.427	-0.77	-.461	.833	-0.55
	Vocab	30	-.455	.427	-1.07	-.123	.833	-0.15
	SP	30	-.515	.427	-1.21	.091	.833	0.11
	Total	30	-.210	.427	-0.49	-.351	.833	-0.42
Control	LC	30	-.076	.427	-0.18	-.828	.833	-0.99
	WRRC	30	-.657	.427	-1.54	.010	.833	0.01
	Pronunciation	30	.247	.427	0.58	-1.141	.833	-1.37
	Fluency	30	-.232	.427	-0.54	-.862	.833	-1.03
	grammar	30	-.334	.427	-0.78	-.187	.833	-0.22
	Vocab	30	-.139	.427	-0.33	-.933	.833	-1.12
	SP	30	.112	.427	0.26	-1.043	.833	-1.25
	Total	30	.144	.427	0.34	-.886	.833	-1.06

Research Question One

The first research question of the study aimed at investigating whether using short stories and songs significantly affect the second language achievement of Iranian young learners. An independent t-test was run to compare the experimental and control groups' means on the total achievement test in order to probe the major research question posed in this study. The results displayed in Table 3 show that the experimental group (M = 39.13, SD = 5.13) had a higher achievement than the control group (M = 30.64, SD = 5.93).

Table 3
Descriptive Statistics; Total Achievement Test by Groups

	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean

Achievement	Experimental	30	39.13	5.130	.937
	Control	30	30.64	5.933	1.083

The results of the independent t-test (t (58) = 5.92, p = .000, r = .61, representing a large effect size) (Table 4) show that there is a significant difference between the two groups' means on the total achievement. Thus, the first, null-hypothesis as "using short stories and songs does not significantly affect the second language achievement of Iranian young learners" was rejected. In fact, the experimental group, after receiving short stories and songs significantly outperformed the control group on the total achievement test.

Table 4
Independent Samples Test, Total Achievement Test by Groups

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	1.186	.281	5.929	58	.000	8.489	1.432	5.623	11.355
Equal variances not assumed			5.929	56.815	.000	8.489	1.432	5.621	11.356

It should be noted that the assumption of homogeneity of variances was met (Levene's F = 1.18, p = .281).

Research Question Two

The second research question of the study aimed at investigating whether using short stories and songs significantly affected the second language oral achievement (components of speaking) of Iranian young learners.

A MANOVA was run to compare the two groups' means on the four components of speaking, i.e. pronunciation, fluency, grammar and vocabulary in order to probe the second research question and its four parts embedded. Before discussing the main results, it should be mentioned that the assumptions of homogeneity of variances and homogeneity of covariance matrices were met. As displayed in Table 5 the probabilities associated with the Levene's tests were all higher than .05, hence homogeneity of variances assumption.

Table 5
Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances

	F	df1	df2	Sig.
Pronunciation	.030	1	58	.864
Fluency	1.067	1	58	.306
Grammar	.822	1	58	.368
Vocabulary	.195	1	58	.660

The assumption of homogeneity of covariance matrices was also met (Box's M = 21.30, p > .001).

Table 6

Box's M	21.301
F	1.971

df1	10
df2	16082.869
Sig.	.032

Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices

Note. Box's M should be tested at an alpha level of .001

The results of MANOVA (F (4, 55) = 10.63, p = .000, partial η^2 = .43, representing a large effect size) (Table 7) indicated that there were significant differences between the two groups' means on the components of speaking test. Thus the second null-hypothesis is rejected. It means that the learners in the experimental group outperformed the learners of the control group and could achieve higher command in the second language speaking ability following the treatment. Table 7, below represents the multivariate tests of speaking assessment by groups.

Table 7
Multivariate Tests; Speaking Test by Groups

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.984	866.393	4	55	.000	.984
	Wilks' Lambda	.016	866.393	4	55	.000	.984
	Hotelling's Trace	63.010	866.393	4	55	.000	.984
	Roy's Largest Root	63.010	866.393	4	55	.000	.984
Group	Pillai's Trace	.436	10.631	4	55	.000	.436
	Wilks' Lambda	.564	10.631	4	55	.000	.436
	Hotelling's Trace	.773	10.631	4	55	.000	.436
	Roy's Largest Root	.773	10.631	4	55	.000	.436

Based on the results displayed in Table 8 and Table 9 it can be concluded that; A: The experimental group (M = 37.70) significantly outperformed (1, 58 = 30.04, p = .000, partial η^2 = .341 representing a large effect size) (Table 8) the control group (M = 24.03) on the pronunciation test.

Table 8
Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Group	Pronunciation	2801.667	1	2801.667	30.040	.000	.341
	Fluency	1771.267	1	1771.267	25.062	.000	.302
	Grammar	608.017	1	608.017	21.079	.000	.267
	Vocabulary	336.067	1	336.067	5.177	.027	.082
Error	Pronunciation	5409.267	58	93.263			
	Fluency	4099.133	58	70.675			
	Grammar	1672.967	58	28.844			
	Vocabulary	3764.867	58	64.911			
Total	Pronunciation	65376.00	60				
	Fluency	73608.00	60				
	Grammar	98201.00	60				
	Vocabulary	102678.00	60				

B: The experimental group (M = 39.03) significantly outperformed (1, 58 = 25.06, p = .000, partial η^2 = .30 representing a large effect size) (Table 8) the control group (M = 28.16) on the fluency test.

Table 9
Descriptive Statistics; Components of Speaking by Groups

Dependent Variable	Group	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval

				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Pronunciation	Experimental	37.700	1.763	34.171	41.229
	Control	24.033	1.763	20.504	27.563
Fluency	Experimental	39.033	1.535	35.961	42.106
	Control	28.167	1.535	25.094	31.239
Grammar	Experimental	43.167	.981	41.204	45.129
	Control	36.800	.981	34.837	38.763
Vocabulary	Experimental	42.900	1.471	39.956	45.844
	Control	38.167	1.471	35.222	41.111

C: The experimental group (M = 43.016) significantly outperformed (1, 58 = 21.07, p = .000, partial η^2 = .26 representing a large effect size) (Table 8) the control group (M = 36.80) on the grammar test.
D: The experimental group (M = 42.90) significantly outperformed (1, 58 = 5.17, p = .027, partial η^2 = .082 representing a moderate effect size) (Table 8) the control group (M = 38.16) on the vocabulary test. Although the results should be interpreted cautiously due to the moderate effect size value of .082.

KR-21 Reliability
The K-R21 reliability index for the YLE in total and posttest of speaking were .86 and .82. Table 10 below represents the KR-21 reliability.

Table 10
K-R21 Reliability Index

	N of Items	Mean	SD	K-R21
YLE	60	34.36	5.53	.82
Speaking	16	11.95	1.26	.86

Inter-Rater Reliability
The results of Pearson correlations (Table 11) indicated that there were significant agreements between the raters who rated the subjects' performance on pronunciation (r (58) = .89, p = .000, representing a large effect size), fluency (r (58) = .84, p = .000, representing a large effect size), grammar (r (58) = .83, p = .000, representing a large effect size) and vocabulary pronunciation (r (58) = .87, p = .000, representing a large effect size).

Table 11
Pearson Correlations; Inter-Rater Reliability Indices

		PRR2	FLR2	GRR2	VOCR2
PRR1	Pearson Correlation	.892**			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000			
	N	60			
FLR1	Pearson Correlation		.848**		
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000		
	N		60		
GRR1	Pearson Correlation			.837**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)			.000	
	N			60	
VOCR1	Pearson Correlation				.878**
	Sig. (2-tailed)				.000
	N				60

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

Construct Validity

A factor analysis was run through the varimax rotation in order to probe the underlying constructs of the components of the achievement test. The SPSS extracted one factor which accounted for 68.65 percent of the total variance (see Table 12, below).

Table 12
Total Variance Explained

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.806	68.659	68.659	4.806	68.659	68.659
2	.941	13.447	82.106			
3	.547	7.818	89.924			
4	.355	5.066	94.990			
5	.286	4.082	99.072			
6	.065	.928	100.000			
7	.000	.000	100.000			

Since all components of the achievement test loaded on a single factor, it can be claimed that they all measured the same underlying construct, i.e. achievement in English.

Table 13
Component Matrix

	Component
	1
SP	.988
LC	.950
fluency	.886
pron	.875
Vocab	.702
grammar	.688
WRRC	.639

1.5 Discussion

Findings of the present study revealed that the experimental group, after receiving short stories and songs as the intervention, significantly outperformed the control group on the total achievement test. Secondly the data analyses revealed that that there were significant differences between the two groups' means on the components of speaking test in the two groups. It means that in all four sub-skills and the total test of speaking, namely, pronunciation, fluency, grammar, and vocabulary, the learners of the experimental group outperformed the ones in the control group. Both of these findings show the positive effective of the treatment, that is offering short stories and songs to the young language learners.

Both of these findings are in line with those of the previous research in this area. Within the theoretical features and the criteria Smallwood (1988, p. 66) recommended for the selection of children's literature for language learners one can see "age-appropriate theme; simple language; limited use of metaphor and unfamiliar experiences; use of rhyme; unambiguous plot; realistic but simple dialogue; potential for reading aloud; brevity; and good illustrations". All these feature were embedded in the songs and stories the students received in the present study. Brown (2004) claims that appropriate songs and stories give students exposure to new, illustrated vocabulary in context, provide repetition of key words and phrases that students can master and learn to manipulate, and provide a sense of accomplishment. Ratnasari's (2007) study which focused on the effect of songs to improve students' achievement in pronouncing English words revealed that music had a great effect on Indonesian students' pronunciation.

Chang (2007) argued that songs and stories developed for children can increase their second language achievement in case the concept of 'simple language' is taken into consideration. Moreover, Tavil and Soylemez's (2008) study on the effect of short stories on the learners' participation in the classroom

discussions revealed that stories were helpful since they gave the chance of participation to the students.

In line with the previous studies, Razmjoo et al. (2012) found that story telling is a powerful instructional tool as it makes students familiar with the target culture. This is significant as individuals must relate and communicate with each other within cultural contexts.

Abadi and Marzban's (2012) findings also revealed that stories provide a network of associations which allow children to connect their personal experiences to the outside-world. The same thing was found in the present study as the learners of the experimental group could present a better performance while talking about different issues following the treatment. Moradi and Shahrokhi (2014) tried to find out whether children learning English by music can improve their ability in segmental and suprasegmental pronunciation or not. The results of comparing the pretest and the posttest showed that music had a better effect on pronunciation and intonation and stress pattern recognition; that is, the students in the experimental group had a better performance in these areas than the control group. Therefore, it was concluded that using music could push students to learn suprasegmentals better.

The present findings support the findings of the previous research concerning the effect of being exposed to songs and achieving better pronunciation. Fischler (2009) found that teaching stress patterns to English language learners through rap music was highly successful. Gonzàlez (2010) also reported that teaching English through stories is a meaningful and fun way for children to learn the language.

Theoretical support for the present findings could be found in the literature: Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) discussed that motivating language learners through songs and music has fruitful and positive effects on the emergence of motivational strategies for young learners of English. Further support in this regard can be found in Dornyei and Clement's (2001) discussion of 'motivation and second language acquisition' where they consider songs and short stories as prime motivational tools energizing the learning of different target languages. Also, Dornyei and Csizer (1998), in their empirical study over factors motivating language learners, concluded that songs facilitated second language achievement.

Theoretical and Practical Implications of the Study

The present study demonstrated that employing short stories and songs can influence the Iranian young learners' EFL achievement. EFL learners need to know lexical items, idiomatic expressions, phrasal verbs, grammatical points, preferences, dictions, and the like for a native like performance. Therefore, according to the results of the present study, some implications for teaching and learning of English as a foreign language through employing short stories and songs can be suggested:

The positive impact of using short stories and songs in the ESL/EFL classrooms paves the way for providing an atmosphere in which learners can improve their second language skills eagerly in a less stressful and friendly situation (Loukia, 2006). Employing user-friendly tasks aiming at facilitating the participation of learners in classroom discussions have also yielded positive effects (Mart, 2012). The motivation developed in the classroom and among the students through music, songs, and short stories can create an encouraging situation and atmosphere where the young learners can feel in ease to learn (Rukanuddin, 2014).

English songs and short stories accompanied with CDs and DVDs, could be employed by second language teachers to make the learners more interested in what is going on in the classroom. The assumption is that songs and short stories can facilitate learning (Gaskari & Azari, 2013), and learners can enjoy a cooperative mode in the language classroom and can pay attention to their peer's development (Slavin, 2000). This way cooperation and collaboration will be energized and competition will be minimized. Through taking part in the classroom discussions supported by songs and more specifically, short stories, the learners practice language and some social and cultural features (Yousofi & Yousefvand, 2012).

English teachers and learners could employ short stories and songs in their classes to facilitate learning. This way the classroom interactions could be enriched and would help subsequent L2 development of the learners. Khoshsima and Bajool (2015) assert that short stories and songs can be introduced to the EFL classroom through task-based approach in an attempt to enhance EFL students' speaking fluency.

Materials developers in the ELT domain can also employ the findings of the present study and those of the similar ones to present tasks in which learners' awareness toward learning is enhanced. Such tasks may help the learners move towards cooperative learning, peer and self-evaluation, cognitive learning, cultural literacy, and meaningful learning.

To sum up, a replication of the present study is needed to investigate the effects of employing songs and short stories on the development of speaking achievement, pronunciation development, grammatical refinement, and fluency of young language learners of English in the Iranian context. If the results of this study are supported by further research, then it can safely be argued that songs and short stories are of great use and importance to the achievement process of English by the Iranian EFL learners.

The main aim of the present thesis was to use songs, music, and short stories in the EFL classroom in order to enhance learners' achievement. The researcher hopes that the results of the present study could shed more light on this area, and teachers would hopefully take what has been presented here and apply it to their own situations in order to improve their students' SL speaking in the target language they are developing.

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THE IMPACT OF SIMPLIFIED VS ORIGINAL TEXT PRACTICE ON IRANIAN PRE-INTERMEDIATE EFL LEARNERS' READING COMPREHENSION ABILITY

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ABSTRACT
THIS STUDY INTENDED TO COMPARE THE EFFECTS OF USING SIMPLIFIED VERSUS ORIGINAL READING PASSAGES ON IRANIAN PRE-INTERMEDIATE EFL LEARNERS' READING COMPREHENSION ABILITY. TO THIS END, A TOTAL OF 60 FEMALE IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS WHOSE AGE RANGED FROM 18 TO 25 YEARS OLD WERE SELECTED THROUGH CONVENIENCE SAMPLING. AFTERWARDS, THE PARTICIPANTS WERE RANDOMLY DIVIDED INTO TWO GROUPS, GROUP 1: EXPERIMENTAL GROUP (SIMPLIFIED TEXT) AND GROUP 2: CONTROL GROUP (ORIGINAL TEXT). AS DATA ANALYSIS INDICATED, THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN GROUP 1 AND GROUP 2 ON THE POSTTEST WAS MEANINGFUL ($T = -3.79$, $DF = 48$, $P = .000$, $P < 0.05$). IN FACT, EMPLOYING SIMPLIFIED TEXT HAD SIGNIFICANT EFFECTS ON THE PARTICIPANTS' READING COMPREHENSION ABILITY. THE MAIN PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATION OF THIS STUDY IS FOR LANGUAGE TEACHERS TO INTRODUCE SIMPLIFIED ACTIVITIES WHICH CAN HAVE POSITIVE EFFECTS ON THEIR LANGUAGE LEARNERS' READING ABILITY AS WELL AS MOTIVATION.

KEY WORDS: READING COMPREHENSION, TEXT, ORIGINAL TEXT, SIMPLIFIED TEXT

1. Introduction

Reading as an active receptive language skill is one of the most complicated cognitive activities (Pour-Mohammadi & Abidin, 2011a). Our understanding of the processes and factors involved in text comprehension is quite impressive, but it also is fragmented, with a proliferation of mini-theories for specific components that in reality are intertwined and interact with one another. Reading comprehension is made of many different skills. These skills are created and developed by using a variety of reading strategies to encourage students to interact with text in meaningful ways. Common core requires a wider population of students to read more nonfiction than ever before; content area

classrooms are a great place to develop this new practice. Fortunately, many traditional reading comprehension strategies work well in content area classrooms.

There is a growing consensus among several current researches that reading comprehension is one of the most important skills for educational and professional success. According to Brantmeier (2002), Hadley (2001), Saricoban, (2002), and Singhal, (2001), it has become the main focus of attention by both research and practical application since in the last two decades. Noor (2006, p. 66) points out, "Without doubt, in any academic or higher learning context, reading is perceived as the most prominent academic skill for university students."

Reading comprehension can be defined as the ability to understand information in a text and interpret it appropriately. Grabe and Stoller (2002) describe reading comprehension according to a set of necessary processes. The last but not the least significant process is that of reading comprehension as a linguistic process. According to Carrell and Eisterhold (1983, p. 554), "EFL/ESL reading theory has been influenced during the past decades by Goodman who views reading as a "guessing game" in which the reader reconstructs, as best as he can, a message which has been encoded by a writer." Grabe (1991) explains that in Godman's perception reading is viewed as an active process of comprehending in which students need to be taught strategies to read more efficiently (e.g., guess from context, define expectations, make inferences about the text, skim ahead to fill in the context, etc.). In Goodman's view, reading is an activity involving constant guesses that are later rejected or confirmed. This means that one does not read all the sentences in the same way, but one relies on a number of words –or 'cues'– to get an idea of what kind of sentence (e.g., an explanation) is likely to follow. The current research investigated the effectiveness of simplified vs. original texts practice on Iranian pre-intermediate EFL learners' reading comprehension ability. In brief, it tried to answer the following question:

- Do simplified texts vs. original ones have any statistically significant effect on Iranian pre-intermediate EFL learners' reading comprehension ability?

2. Literature Review

Reading has been clarified in different ways by different researchers. Alyousef (2006) believes that reading can be seen as an interactive process between a reader and a text which leads to automaticity or (reading fluency). In this process, as Pour-Mohammadi and Abidin (2011b) declared, readers dynamically interact with the text as they try to elicit the meaning and while they apply different types of knowledge: linguistic or systemic knowledge (through bottom-up processing) as well as schematic knowledge (through top-down processing).

Reading strategies reveal how readers come up with a task, what textual cues they attend to, how they make sense of what they read, and what they do when they do not find out. Reading strategies range from simple fix-up strategies such as simply rereading difficult segments and guessing the meaning of an unknown word from context, to more comprehensive strategies such as summarizing and relating what is being read to the reader's background knowledge. By and large, researchers maintain that strategy use is different in more and less skilful readers, in that they use the strategies in different ways (Carrell, 1989). As a matter, reading comprehension strategies separate the passive, unskilled reader from the active reader. Proficient readers don not just read but they interact with the text.

Recently, research has concentrated not only on examining the effects of teaching approaches in the classroom, but also on how to engage learners in reading a large quantity of texts. In middle and high schools and specially universities, an important number of students struggle with the complex academic and literacy tasks they face in their classes. In a way, Alliance for Excellent Education, nearly 8 million students in grades 4-12 read well below grade level (Heller & Greenleaf, 2007). Of those struggling secondary readers, almost 70% struggle with reading comprehension (Biancarosa & Snow, 2006).

The academic importance of reading comprehension cannot be figured out, and this point leads researchers to state that, the most significant thing about reading is comprehension (Gambrell, Block, & Pressley, 2002). It is so clear that reading comprehension instruction is highly beneficial for pupils of all levels. When teachers explain and model a single comprehension strategy or multiple strategies, as well as provide guided and independent practice with feedback until students begin to utilize the strategy independently, there are levels of middle and high school students to enhance (Biancarosa & Snow, 2006; Schorzman & Cheek, 2004)

Although it is generally clear that reading plays an important role in a language, reading comprehension remains a young field that merits greater research attention. In addition, knowledge about reading comprehension regarding learning strategies has been devoted to those involving in listening, writing and speaking. The main reasons for reading challenges are: ineffective reading instruction, auditory perception difficulties, visual perception hardships, language processing difficulties. For many students reading is a difficult process. For these struggling readers, reading does not come naturally. Pupils have not been capable of decoding words, read fluently and identify basic sight words. Much of the reading which we do occurs near our hands. Former research has revealed that spatial processing is enhanced near the hands, potentially benefiting the couple of processes involved in reading; however, it is unknown whether semantic processing is affected near the hands (Wu, 2009).

3. Method

3.1. Participants

For the present study a total of 60 female Iranian EFL learners whose age ranged from 18 to 25 years old were selected through convenience sampling. According to Oxford Quick Placement Test (QPT), the students whose scores fell within the range of pre-intermediate level of proficiency were selected as the participants of the study. These EFL learners were studying English at pre-intermediate level in Beinol-melal Language Institute, Bandar Anzali, Iran. They were randomly divided into two groups; Group 1: experimental group (simplified text), and Group 2: control group (original text).

3.2. Procedure

To homogenize the participants of the present study, QPT was administered. Taking the results of QPT into account, 60 participants were selected as pre-intermediate level, according to QPT scale. After homogenizing the participants, the pretest was administered. Next, the participants were divided into two groups as control and experimental.

In the first session, reading comprehension test was conducted as pretest to both groups. Aftewards, the participants were informed about the aim of the study. Then, the treatment began. In experimental group, the teacher gave a reading passage every session to the participants. They read the text and answered comprehension questions. Then the teacher explained vocabulary and grammatical points to them. In control group, the teacher followed the same procedure. The only difference between the treatments of the two groups was in the selection of the text. In the control group, original texts were given to the participants whereas in the experimental group, simplified texts were given to the participants. In the last session, reading comprehension as posttest was given to the participants. Having collected data, data analysis was conducted through running an independent samples t-test on the posttest scores.

4. Results

To answer the research question, two independent samples t-tests were run, one for pretest scores and another for posttest scores. The result of independent t-test has been presented in Table 1.

Table 1. The independent samples t-test for group 1 and group 2 in the pretest

					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
t	**df**	**Sig. (2-tailed)**	**Mean Difference**	**Std. Error Difference**	**Lower**	**Upper**

t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower	Upper
.116	48	.908	.20	1.72	-3.29	3.66

As illustrated in Table 1, the difference between group 1 and group 2 in the pretest is not meaningful (t = .116, df = 48, p = .908, p > .05). Therefore, it can be concluded that there was no meaningful difference between group 1 and group 2 students in pretest. In fact, the researcher can say that the two groups of students were in the same level of reading comprehension ability before inclusion of simplified text in teaching reading. The result of the second independent samples t-test is presented in Table 2.

Table 2. The independent samples t-test for group 1 and group 2 in the posttest

t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower	Upper
-3.794	48	.000	-5.48	1.44	-8.384	-2.57

As illustrated in Table 2, the difference between group 1 and group 2 in the posttest is meaningful (t = -3.79, df = 48, p = .000, p < .05). Thus, it can be concluded that there was a meaningful difference between the first and the second groups in the posttest. In fact, employing simplified text had significant effect on Iranian pre-intermediate EFL learners' reading comprehension ability.

5. Discussion

This study sought to see effectiveness of simplified vs. original texts practice on Iranian pre-intermediate EFL learners' reading comprehension ability. As the data analysis indicates, the difference between the two groups in the posttest is meaningful (t = -3.79, df = 48, p = .000, p < 0.05). Consequently, there is a meaningful difference between the two groups in the posttest. In fact, the employment of simplified text had statistically significant effect on Iranian pre-intermediate EFL learners' reading comprehension ability.

The findings of this study are not completely in line with those of Branden (2000), and Baleghizadeh and Borz (2007), however. They found just a selective beneficial effect for input simplification on reading comprehension. Branden (2000) observed that linguistic elaboration worked more effectively for the high proficient students than for the low-proficient students. Baleghizadeh and Borz (2007), however, found that the low-proficiency students benefited from linguistic modifications, but the more proficient students did not. In fact, the results of this study suggest that for reading purposes the use of authentic unmodified texts can be more beneficial than the use of simplified text provided that the former is accompanied with meaning negotiation through collaborative reading.

6. Conclusion

By the emergence of new academic fields, reading skill has gained an important position among other language skills and elements. The reason of this point is laid in the nature of academic studies which are reported in written form. Therefore, reading comprehension skills play a crucial role in students' comprehension and learning. This study indicated that simplified text does statistically significantly affect Iranian pre-intermediate EFL learners' reading comprehension ability. Furthermore, the findings show that involving learners in reading-for-pleasure activities can enhance their motivation, too.

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INVESTIGATING THE IMPACT OF GENDER ON FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING ANXIETY OF IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS

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ABSTRACT
THIS STUDY AIMED AT INVESTIGATING THE IMPACT OF GENDER ON FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING ANXIETY. TO THIS END, A QUESTIONNAIRE NAMED FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASSROOM ANXIETY SCALE WAS ADMINISTERED TO STUDENTS. IN TOTAL, 305 STUDENTS OF JAHROM, KAZERUN, AND SHIRAZ UNIVERSITIES PARTICIPATED IN THIS STUDY, 74 MALE STUDENTS AND 231 FEMALE STUDENTS RANGING FROM 18 TO 30 YEARS OF AGE. THE DATA WERE ANALYZED USING STATISTICAL PACKAGE FOR THE SOCIAL SCIENCES (SPSS) VERSION 19. STANDARD MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS WAS CONDUCTED TO INVESTIGATE WHETHER STUDENTS' GENDER CAN PREDICT THEIR FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING ANXIETY. THE RESULTS SHOWED THAT THERE WAS NO STATISTICALLY SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MALES AND FEMALES REGARDING FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING ANXIETY. THEREFORE, GENDER COULD NOT PREDICT FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING ANXIETY. THE IMPLICATIONS ARE DISCUSSED AT THE END OF THE STUDY.

KEYWORDS: GENDER, FOREIGN LANGUAGE ANXIETY, ANXIETY SCALE

1. Introduction

Since foreign language learning is a stressful activity (Hewitt & Stefenson, 2011), many researchers have investigated the role of anxiety in learning a foreign language (e.g., Phillips, 1992). Foreign language anxiety has been defined as negative emotional reaction that is caused when using or learning a foreign or a second language (MacIntyre, 1999). Several studies have been carried out on language anxiety. Although few of them have revealed that there is a positive relationship between language anxiety and language achievement (e.g., Liu, 2006; Oxford, 1999), most of them have shown that language anxiety and language achievement are negatively related (e.g. Horwitz, 2001, MacIntyre, 1999, MacIntyre, Noels, Clement, 1997). Put it another way, learners who are more proficient in a foreign language, experience less anxiety in learning it in comparison with other learners who are not that proficient. Foreign language learning anxiety is a great barrier to foreign language achievement (Young, 1991), so the low achievement of learners can be attributed to negative effects of anxiety (Horwitz, 2000, 2001; MacIntyre, 1999, 2002; Tóth, 2007).

1.1 The role of gender

Gender has been considered as a significant factor in SLA. There are some discrepancies between men and women with regard to second language learning which cannot be fully erased through education. According to gender theory proposed by Baumeister and Sommer (1997), gender stereotypes are the expectations which are shared culturally for gender appropriate behaviors. Individuals learn the appropriate behaviors from the culture and the family they grow up with. Therefore, non-physical gender differences are the result of socialization (Eagly, 1987). Also, males and females differ biologically with regard to their learning style and cognitive ability. These differences result from their differences in their brain and their higher-order cortical functions (Keefe, 1982). In terms of lateralization, there are differences between males and females, with males having more left-hemisphere dominance than females (Banich, 1997). Research studies have shown that gender differences affect students' academic interest, needs, and achievements (Halpern, 1986).

Anxiety, as an important affective factor, influences second language learning particularly speaking skill. Males and females have different levels of anxiety and it might delay the development of their speaking ability. Therefore, learners have to make use of some learning strategies to overcome this problem. Oxford (1990) maintains that learning strategies are the specific actions which are taken by the learners to make learning easier, faster, more effective, more enjoyable, and more transferable to new situations (p. 8). Language teachers try to find the main sources of students' language learning anxiety in order that they organize their class in a way which minimizes their students' anxiety. Gender is one of the factors that affect the anxiety in second language learning particularly second language speaking skill.

1.2 Causes of foreign language anxiety

Although all aspects of using and learning a foreign language can cause anxiety, listening and speaking are regularly cited as the most anxiety provoking of foreign language activities (MacIntyre and Gardner, 1994; Horwitz, Horwitz & Hope, 1986).

The causes of foreign language anxiety have been broadly separated into three main components: communication apprehension, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation. Communication apprehension is the anxiety experienced when speaking to or listening to other individuals. Test-anxiety is a form of performance anxiety associated with the fear of doing badly, or indeed failing altogether. Fear of negative evaluation is the anxiety associated with the learner's perception of how other onlookers (instructors, classmates or others) may negatively view their language ability.

Sparks and Ganschow (1991) asked a question which drew attention to the fact that anxiety could either be a cause of poor language learning or a result of poor language learning. If a student is unable to study as required before writing a language examination, the student could experience test anxiety. In this context anxiety could be viewed as a result. In contrast, anxiety becomes a cause of poor language learning when due to anxiety that student is unable to adequately learn the target language. There can be various physical causes of anxiety (such as hormone levels) but the underlying causes of excessive anxiety whilst learning are fear and a lack of confidence. Lack of confidence itself can come from various causes. One reason can be the teaching approach used.

1.3 Effects of foreign language anxiety

The effects of foreign language anxiety are particularly evident in the foreign language classroom, and anxiety is a strong indicator of academic performance. Anxiety is found to have a detrimental effect on students' confidence, self-esteem and level of participation (MacIntyre & Garnder, 1994).

Anxious learners suffer from mental blocks during spontaneous speaking activities, lack confidence, are less able to self-edit and identify language errors, and are more likely to employ avoidance strategies such as skipping class (Gregerson, 2003). Anxious students also forget previously learned material, volunteer answers less frequently and tend to be more passive in classroom activities than their less anxious counterparts (Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986). The effects of foreign language anxiety also extend outside the second language classroom. A high level of foreign language anxiety may also correspond with communication apprehension, causing individuals to be quieter and less willing to communicate (Liu & Jackson, 2008). People who exhibit this kind of communication reticence can also sometimes be perceived as less trustworthy, less competent, less socially and physically attractive, tenser, less composed and less dominant than their less reticent counterparts.

This study attempts to answer the following question:

Can foreign language learning anxiety be predicted by students' gender?

2. Literature Review

Over the past decades, several researchers have investigated the relationship between language learning anxiety and beliefs about language learning (e.g. Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986; Lan, 2010; Wang, 2005; Young, 1991). Studies have shown that most language learners experience anxiety in the process of language learning (e.g. Andrade & William, 2009; Marwan, 2007). Having realized the existence of foreign language anxiety in the process of language learning, researchers have endeavored to decrease its harmful effects. For instance, Young (1991) suggested that learners' beliefs about language learning can contribute to foreign language learning anxiety.

In another study, Wang (2005) found that students who had a higher aptitude in language learning tended to have a lower level of language learning anxiety. Also, Lan (2010) in her study found that there was a significant negative correlation between language learning beliefs and foreign language learning anxiety.

In the Iranian context, Toghraee and Shahrokhi (2014) conducted a similar study and found a positive and statistically significant correlation between Iranian university students' beliefs about language learning and their level of language learning anxiety.

2.1 Anxiety in Second Language Acquisition

In second language research, anxiety is considered as an affective variable (Dörnyei, 2005; Horwitz et al, 1986). Anxiety is composed of some parts which have different features (Dörnyei, 2005). According to Dörnyei (2005), there are different categorizations for anxiety. Two of the most popular classifications of anxiety are debilitating-facilitating (Scovel, 1978) and state-trait (Speilberger, 1983) views of anxiety. In the former dichotomy, the facilitating or beneficial anxiety does not hinder performance but it can facilitate it whereas debilitating anxiety can deter performance when an individual is under excessive worry. In the latter classification, trait anxiety is rather stable with the passage of time, whereas state anxiety is a transitory and changing feeling (Dörnyei, 2005).

Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) identified three types of foreign language anxiety: test anxiety, communication apprehension, and fear of negative evaluation. In order to measure foreign language classroom anxiety, they developed a 33-item questionnaire. Several studies have been done on language anxiety most of which have shown a negative relationship between language learning anxiety and language achievement (e.g., Horwitz, 2001; MacIntyre, 1999;; MacIntyre, Noels, Clement, 1997) and only a few of them have shown that language achievement is positively related to language learning anxiety (e.g., Liu, 2006a; Oxford, 1999). Put it another way, the more proficient the learners, the less anxious they become.

According to Dornyei (2005), trait anxiety is related to an individual's anxiety in different situations. He maintains that this is because of the disposition of the individual. MacIntyre (1999) believes that situation-specific anxiety is similar to trait anxiety for both of them refer to the possibility of being anxious in a specific situation. For example, language learners might have situation-specific anxiety when a teacher calls them to speak English in the classroom. Another kind of anxiety is state anxiety which is the emotional reaction to the present situation and is considered as a moment-to-moment experience (MacIntyre, 1999; Dornyei, 2005). MacIntyre (1999) differentiates situation-specific anxiety and trait anxiety from state anxiety. Situation-specific anxiety and trait anxiety refer to the possibility of getting anxious in a specific situation, while state anxiety refers to the way an individual experiences anxiety. MacIntryre (1999) suggests that state anxiety has impacts on cognition, emotions, and behavior. An example for state anxiety can be a person who tries to abandon a situation and the bodily effects including a rapid heartbeat and a seating palm. This might result when making a speech in front of a large number of people. Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) maintained that language anxiety is an identifiable variable in foreign language learning. Krashen (1988) discussed the influence of affective filter in second language acquisition with regard to input. He suggested that when the affective filter is high, an individual is less likely to process the input. The affective filter involves emotional reactions like language anxiety.

Many studies have been done investigating the relationship between anxiety and language learning indicating that anxiety can have an adverse effect on the performance of those who speak English as a foreign language (e.g., Chen & Lee, 2011, Stroud & Wee, 2006). Some studies related to the scope of the present study are reported here. In a study by Liu (2006b), it was revealed that students who had advanced English language proficiency had less anxiety. In a recent study, Chakrabarti and Sengupta (2012) studied the language learning anxiety of Indian students. They found that the students' test anxiety was high among other components of anxiety.

Rezazadeh and Tavakoli (2009) conducted a study in Iran investigating the relationship among academic achievement, gender, years of study, and levels of test anxiety. One hundred and ten Iranian EFL students participated in that study. The findings showed that the female students had a higher level of anxiety. And there was no relationship between years of study and test anxiety. In another study by Sadighi, Sahragard and Jafari (2009) on eighty Iranian EFL learners, it was found that there was no statistically significant relationship between years of study and the level of anxiety. In a recent study by Mesri (2012a), it was shown that there was a statistically significant relationship between gender and Foreign Language Class Anxiety (FLCA). According to these studies, language learning anxiety of EFL learners was on a high range. However, since the number of participants in the Iranian context is low (n=52), more research on this issue should be done.

2.2 Gender and Second Language Acquisition

Gender has been considered as a significant factor in SLA. Males and females are biologically different in terms of their mental abilities and their learning styles. These differences arise from the development of brain and also from higher order cortical functions (Keefe, 1982). Regarding lateralization, males are more left brain dominant than females (Banich, 1997). Research shows that gender differences affect students' needs, academic interests, and achievements. SLA theorists believe that females have superiority in their L2 process (Ehrlich, 2001).

As Jiménéz-Catalán (2000) states, individual differences such as learning style, age, motivation, aptitude, learning style and motivation are well discussed in many SLA research studies. However, little attention has been paid to gender in the field of second language learning and teaching (Catalan, 2003; Nyikos, 2008; Sunderland, 1994). In addition, as Ehrlich (1997) and Sunderland (2000) mention in their studies, in research studies on gender and SLA, the role of gender is discussed in an oversimplified manner.

2.3 Studies on Gender in Second Language Acquisition

Ellis (2008) in his scholarly work The Study of Second Language Acquisition has allocated just a few pages on gender and second language acquisition. First, he explained the distinction between gender and sex. Then, he mentioned some studies conducted on this issue. Two of the studies belong to Burstall (1975) and Boyle (1987) showing that female students outperform their male counterparts in the examinations applied. However, Ellis does not reach any conclusive results regarding these findings. He maintains that such generalizations may be misleading as Boyle's study showed that male students had a higher achievement in listening tests and the findings of Bacon and Finnemann (1992) indicated that there was no significant difference between females and males. Ellis discusses learning strategies and attitudes towards learning which are directly related to gender. Regarding the attitude, he refers to some studies which are related to motivational orientations. For instance, Ludwig (1983) found that male students were more instrumentally motivated than females, and based on a study done by Gardner and Lambert (1983), female students of French were more motivated than males. According to Ellis (2008), there was no unanimity in research studies regarding gender differences in SLA in terms of attitudes, achievement, and strategy use at that time. Therefore, he concludes that sex interacts with other variables in determining second language proficiency. So, it is not always the case that female students perform better than males.

In another study, Coates (1986) showed that girls acquire language better than boys. However, Xin (2008) maintained that several factors influence the acquisition of a language among which she lists the personality of the learners from which motivation is derived. She mentions that the role of gender in language acquisition has been played down by researchers. Therefore, it is too difficult to perceive the distinctions between men and women in learning a foreign language. Findings of the study showed that girls tend to learn English better than boys. The girls gave some explanations for their tendency to learn English. They said that they learn English to acquire knowledge, improve their communicative ability, and to improve their social status. On the other hand, just a small number of boys acknowledged that English is important for them. The analysis revealed that girls are more motivated than boys in learning English as a foreign language.

2.4 Gender and Language Learning Anxiety

Some studies have been done regarding the relationship between gender and language learning anxiety. Chang (1997) concluded that females had higher level of anxiety than males. In another study, Ezzi (2012) investigated the relationship between FL anxiety and gender among male and female students with regard to their educational level, age and residence and found that females had a higher level of anxiety than males.

In the Iranian context, Rezazadeh and Tavakoli (2009) investigated the relationship between gender and language learning anxiety and found that females have a higher level of test anxiety in comparison with their male counterparts. In another study in Iran, Mesri (2012a) arrived at the same conclusion. However, Fariadian, Azizifar and Gowhary (2014) investigated the role of gender in speaking anxiety of EFL Iranian learners and found that boys showed higher levels of language learning anxiety in comparison with female students.

In another study, Aida (1994) found no statistically significant relationship between language learning anxiety and gender. Tahernezhad et al. (2014) investigated the degree of anxiety among Iranian intermediate EFL learners and its relation to their motivation and reached the same result.

3. Method

3.1 Participants

In order to collect the required data, three Iranian universities were selected using cluster sampling. The universities included Shiraz, Jahrom, and Salman Farsi Universities in Shiraz, Jahrom and Kazerun, respectively. The participants were female and male students of English language. In total, 305 students participated in this study, 74 male students and 231 female students ranging from 18 to 30 years of age. All of them were native speakers of Persian studying English as a foreign language at university.

3.2 Instruments

A questionnaire was used in this study namely, Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) The items were scored on a 5-point Likert scale from Strongly Disagree (1) to Strongly Agree (5). This questionnaire was designed by Horwitz et al. (1986) consisting of 33 items on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from strongly agree (1) to strongly disagree (5). It aimed at examining students' anxiety pertaining to foreign language learning in classroom contexts. One of the reasons for using this scale was that it has been one of the most comprehensive and valid instruments for measuring students' anxiety in classroom contexts. Another reason was that it showed favorable reliability coefficients with the samples of population to which it had been administered (Horwitz, 1991). Nowadays, it is a frequently used scale which is often shortened or adapted in studies which are concerned with similar purposes. This scale is a self-report measure which assesses the level of anxiety, as indicated by social comparisons and negative performance expectancies, psycho-physiological symptoms and avoidance behaviors.

Nakayama (2007) reported the Cronbach's alpha of this questionnaire as follows: Future Use Anxiety (a= .929) and In Class Anxiety (a= .770). The reliability coefficient of the FLCAS in this study was .918.

3.3 Data Collection and Analysis Procedure

First, the students were informed about the objectives of the study. Then, they were given the instructions regarding how to answer the items of the questionnaire. They were asked to answer open-ended questions such as gender and academic level as well. They were also assured about the confidentiality of the information that they were supposed to provide.

Having received the questionnaire from the students, the researchers scored, and entered the data into a spread sheet in the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 19. Then, descriptive statistics were computed and reported. The data underwent some descriptive statistics such as frequencies, mean, and standard deviation together with correlational analyses. Then, further inferential analyses were performed to find answers to the research question.

4. Results

Standard multiple regression analysis was conducted to investigate whether students' gender can predict their foreign language learning anxiety. The results are presented in Table 4.9. As observed in the table, only 0.1 % of variance is explained by the model (R2 = .001). Hence, gender does not predict language learning anxiety because no statistically significant relationship was found between gender and language learning anxiety (B = -.033, t = -.583, Sig = .560). This finding is in contrast to that of Öztürk and Gürbüz (2012) who found that female students had a higher level of anxiety than their male counterparts while speaking English in the class. However, it is in line with the finding of Nahavandi and Mukundan (2013) who investigated the effect of gender on Iranian EFL learners' anxiety and found that gender did not affect learners' anxiety significantly.

Table 1. Model Summary for Standard Multiple Regression

Model	R		R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.033[a]		.001	-.002	.47589

	a. Predictors: (Constant), Gender

Table 2. ANOVA[a] Results for Standard Multiple Regression

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	.077	1	.077	.340	.560[b]
	Residual	68.620	303	.226		
	Total	68.697	304			
a. Dependent Variable: Language Learning Anxiety						
b. Predictors: (Constant), Gender						

Table 4.11 Coefficients[a] for Standard Multiple Regression

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.987	.114		26.252	.000
	Gender	-.037	.063	-.033	-.583	**.560**
a. Dependent Variable: Language Learning Anxiety						

5. Conclusion

Thus far, an overall picture of the study has been presented. Now, it is time to recapitulate briefly on the research questions and the findings derived from the data. Regarding gender difference in terms of language learning anxiety, it was found that there was no statistically significant difference between males and females with respect to their language learning anxiety. Although this finding is contrast to the findings of previous studies (e.g. Chang, 1997; Felson & Trudeau, 1991) who found that females had higher levels of language learning anxiety than their male counterparts, it is in line with that of Aida (1994) and Tahernezhad (2014). Examining these conflicting studies shows that some other intervening variables may account for such inconsistency. For example, in different studies, in addition to gender variable which is the major focus of studies, there are some discrepancies in the type of language the students are acquiring; moreover, the participants come from different cultures.

9. Implications

Findings of this study can be beneficial for teachers and learners as well as educational psychologists. The findings of this study can prove helpful for teachers to pay more attention to the affective factors of learners. These findings can also help instructors to predict their learners' anxiety, beliefs, and behaviors. Teachers can adjust their teaching plans according to their students' characteristics to facilitate their learning.

10. Limitations and suggestions for further research

There were some limitations to this study. Inferences drawn from the results of this study cannot be generalized to other contexts because of cultural differences. Another limitation was that the sample was not evenly distributed since there were 74 males and 231 females and this could affect the results of the study. Therefore, generalizing the findings of this study to other contexts and situations should be exercised with caution. Since this study was a quantitative one and just made use of questionnaires, more longitudinal and qualitative studies with in-depth interviews are needed to understand individual differences in greater detail.

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Appendix

Appendix I: Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale

		SA	A	N I	D	SD
1	I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my foreign language class.					
2	I don't worry about making mistakes in language class.					
3	I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on in language class.					
4	It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in the foreign language.					
5	It wouldn't bother me at all to take more foreign language classes.					
6	During language class, I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do with the course.					
7	I keep thinking that other students are better at languages than I am.					
8	I am usually at ease during tests in my language class.					
9	I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in language class.					
10	I worry about the consequences of failing my foreign language class.					
11	I don't understand why some people get so upset over foreign language classes.					
12	In language class, I can get so nervous when I forget things I know.					
13	It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my language class.					
14	I would not be nervous speaking in the foreign language with native speakers.					
15	I get upset when I don't understand what the					
16	Even if I am well prepared for language class, I feel anxious about it.					
17	I often feel like not going to my language class.					
18	I feel confident when I speak in foreign language class.					
19	I am afraid that my language teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.					
20	I can feel my heart pounding when I'm going to be called on in language class.					
21	The more I study for a language test, the more confused I get.					
22	I don't feel pressure to prepare very well for language class.					

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THE SUPERIORITY OF LINGUISTIC, PSYCHOLOGICAL, OR SOCIAL FRAMEWORKS IN SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

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ABSTRACT
BESIDES THEIR MOTHER TONGUE, A VAST NUMBER OF PEOPLE ALL AROUND THE WORLD POSSESS A GOOD COMMAND OF ANOTHER LANGUAGE. THEY ALL REACH FULL MASTERY OF THEIR FIRST LANGUAGE, BUT THE LEVEL OF THEIR SECOND LANGUAGE MASTERY VARIES DEPENDING UPON THE SORT OF REQUIREMENT, THE ENVIRONMENT, THE AFFECTIVE FACTORS, ETC. THESE VARIANT CONDITIONS MAKE IT ALMOST IMPOSSIBLE TO ACHIEVE NATIVE-LIKE COMPETENCE. THE PRESENT STUDY, THUS, INTENDED TO IDENTIFY THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORKS INVOLVED IN SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION (SLA) FROM LINGUISTIC, PSYCHOLOGICAL, AND SOCIAL PERSPECTIVES. ACCORDING TO SAVILLE-TROIKE (2006), ALTHOUGH THESE APPROACHES HAVE DIFFERENT FOCAL POINTS OF EMPHASIS AND PRIORITY, THEY ALL ATTEMPT TO PROVIDE AN ADEQUATE RESPONSE TO THE FUNDAMENTAL QUESTIONS RELATED TO WHAT THE L2 LEARNER KNOWS, HOW THE LEARNER ACQUIRES THIS KNOWLEDGE, AND WHY SOME LEARNERS ARE MORE SUCCESSFUL THAN OTHERS. THE STUDY ALSO AIMED AT INVESTIGATING THE PRIORITY OR PREDOMINANCE OF ONE OF THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORKS OVER THE OTHERS; IN OTHER WORDS, IT ENDEAVORED TO FIND OUT IF SOME FRAMEWORKS COULD BE REGARDED AS MORE PRIVILEGED AND ADVANTAGEOUS THAN THE OTHERS IN SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING AND TEACHING. THE STUDY CONCLUDED THAT NO APPROACH CAN BE CONSIDERED AS SUPERIOR TO THE OTHER AND THAT ALL ARE EQUALLY SIGNIFICANT AND ESSENTIAL IN SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION.

KEY WORDS: SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION, SLA, LINGUISTIC PERSPECTIVE, PSYCHOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVE, SOCIAL PERSPECTIVE, THEORETICAL FRAMEWORKS

Introduction

Arising from a variety of individual and contextual factors, SLA is regarded as a complicated phenomenon. Contrary to popular belief, it is different from FLA. The reason behind this variation can be attributed to the fact that second language learners have less cognitive ability than first language learners. The other reason is that SLA is influenced by the knowledge they have already possessed of their first language. Many other factors associated with affective factors, linguistic factors, and social settings can also change the way second language is acquired. According to Saville-Troike (2006), SLA can be regarded as a as a field of study that mainly originates from disciplines

such as linguistics and psychology and subdisciplines, namely applied linguistics, psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, and social psychology.

Although attention to second language acquisition arose hundreds of years ago (McCarthy, 2001), 1960s was the first time researchers started to organize their hypotheses and patterns with regard to the main issues in the area of second language acquisition. These issues are associated with following questions:

(1) What exactly does the L2 learner know?
(2) How does the learner acquire this knowledge?
(3) Why are some learners more successful than others?

As the above questions indicate, various methods utilized in the SLA research can be classified fundamentally on the basis of three perspectives, namely linguistic (Q1), psychological (Q2), and social (Q3). In spite of the fact that these frameworks are vastly interconnected, every one of them is by itself as pervasive as a whole chapter of a book.

Owing to the significance of linguistic, psychological, and social factors in the acquisition of second language, the present study seeks to introduce and describe these factors as the main ones affecting SLA. The focal points of each factor as well as the frameworks associated with them are presented in this study as described by Saville-Troike (2006). The extent to which the above mentioned perspectives contribute to the successful learning of the second language is also under scrutiny in this study; that is to say, the study aims at investigating whether different approaches enjoy similar efficacy and contribution in acquiring the second language or they are of considerable differences in efficacy and one is considered to be more efficient than the other in ASL.

Review of Literature

As SLA is a complex and multidimentional phenomenon, various factors are involved in L2 learners' achievement. Psychologically speaking, the best predictors for success in SLA according to Aptarashvili and Tsereteli (2013) are:

- General interest in the foreign languages
- parents' involvement in learning process
- instrumental motivation
- self-confidence in the process of language acquisition

Lightbown (2013) and Macaro (2010) classified the factors that account for the variation in speed and easiness of second language acquisition into internal and external factors as follows:

Internal: Age, personality, motivation(intrinsic), experiences, cognition, and native language
External: curriculum, instruction, culture and status, motivation (extrinsic), Access to native speakers

The social variables that have received the most attention in SLA study according to Ellis (1994) are found out to be: 1) age, 2)sex, 3)social class , and 4) ethnic identity. These factors affect second language learners' attitudes and lead to different levels of second language proficiency.

Saville-Troike (2006), on the other hand, has identified SLA from linguistic, psychological, and social perspectives with their relevant foci. She has also presented a number of frameworks for each focal point. The classifications and subclassifications of the perspectives along with their related descriptions are presented as follows:

1.Linguistic perspective

From linguistic point of view, according to Saville-Troike (2006), second language learning has been of two sorts of focal points since 1960: The internal focus, which mainly depends upon Chomsky and his supporters' work, is aimed at the intrinsic and fundamental data speakers have about language, namely linguistic competence. It doesn't account for the outside structure under the focus of primary structuralism. The external data, on the other hand, has given priority to making use of the language involving a variety of roles which can be delineated in various levels of language expansion.

Internal focus

The three frameworks proposed by Chomsky (1957,1965) that exerted considerable influence on the linguistic theory are listed as follows:

a) Transformational-Generative Grammar
b) Principles and Parameters Model
c) Minimalist Program

The emergence of the first framework thoroughly altered linguistic theory and intensely influenced the way researchers investigate both first and second languages. Chomsky disapproves of the behaviorist theory concerning language learning for its incapability to account for the linguistic creativity of the language acquirers. While referring to the "logical problem of language acquisition", Chomsky insisted on the inevitability of accepting the fact that children are naturally granted an inborn ability. Chomsky's linguistic idea about second language acquisition remained the most dominant one up to the present time.

In order to account for more abstract aspects of general principles and restrictions constituting the Universal Grammar, Chomsky revised his previous model and developed the second framework, namely "the Principles and Parameters Model" shared by all human languages.

Functional category development is touched upon in Chomsky's third model; that is, The Minimalist Program. This framework gives more priority to how feature specification is acquired which is regarded as a part of lexical knowledge.

External focus

The most remarkable linguistic frameworks which externally focus on the acquisition of second languages are classified with regard to Functional approach originated in the early twentieth century. Functionalism emerged in the Prague School of Eastern Europe for the first time. The frameworks with external focus are dissimilar to the frameworks proposed by Chomsky regarding two aspects: a) focusing on the message expressed via speech, and b) regarding language mainly as a means of exchanging information. Some of these frameworks pay more attention to the similarities and dissimilarities of the human languages and correlate them to succession and comparative hardness of language learning; some, on the other hands, consider language learning as a means of relating linguistic functions and forms based upon speech requirements; and some others account for the process whereby learners organize their data while producing the second language as well as the way this leads to language acquisition. Functional approaches have been predominantly applied in SLA research throughout Europe and then extensively pursued in other parts of the world.

2. Psychological perspective

According to Saville-Troike (2006) the psychological aspect of SLA research contains three foci: languages and the brain, learning processes, and learner differences.

a) Languages and the brain

Since the nineteenth century, the position and delineation of language in the brain attracted the attention of biologists and psychologists. The developing discipline of Neurolinguistics had a great impact on cognitive aspect of SLA in 1960 with the onset systematic and well-organized research.

As Lenneberg (1967) puts it, children go through a critical period in their language learning which is grounded in neurology. Many of the SLA studies which are age-dependent are largely based on this framework. The development of investigative processes related to brain operation on multilingual patients in addition to the evolution of up-to-date imaging technologies have lead to the expansion of information in this domain.

b)Learning processes

Processes of language learning can be investigated in terms of information processing, b) processability, and c) connectionism.

In 1960s, computer-based Information Processing (IP) constituted in cognitive psychology has extensively affected language learning processes. On the basis of this model, SLA processes can be described by accepting two facts: a) second language learning is an extremely intricate phenomenon, and b) second language learning is not basically dissimilar to other excessively complicated abilities. It is supposed that language learning can result from mere processing, so SLA approaches based upon IP can be notably creative regarding the way language acquirers obtain information about second language and the way events are arranged and sequenced in language learning processes.

The second cognitive framework named processability is a more newly formed lexical aspect of language that expands IP notions of language learning and makes use of them while teaching second languages.

The other cognitive framework, connectionism, emerged in the 1980s and became progressively important and powerful. Based on this framework, language learning takes place as a consequence of growing stimulus-response relationship and it has nothing to do with "inborn capacity" or "principles and parameters" model. As input recurrence is regarded as an important element of language

learning according to this framework, it can be utilized as a hypothetical origin for language teaching study.

c) Learner differences

Differences between second language learners can be inspected in order to find out the reason why learners vary in learning achievement; that is, some are better learners than others. Their success is supposed to originate from humanistic psychology that has greatly affected second language education as well as SLA study since the 1970s (Williams and Burden, 1997). This framework takes learners' sensational attitudes such as apprehension and incitement into account. Physical variations regarding age and sex are also given special consideration; in addition, how second language learners deal with the data they are exposed to is the other factor that is aimed at within this framework.

3. Social perspective

A number of frameworks classified by Saville-Troike within a social perspective can also be regarded as linguistic, owing to the fact that they are associated with language structure and function. A number of other frameworks can be employed in order to investigate language processing or affective factors, so they can also be classified as cognitive. With regard to the significance of social factors in second language acquisition, they are restated in this section.

SLA study is concerned with two foci from social perspective: microsocial and macrosocial

a)Microsocial focus

With regard to second language learning, microsocial focus is associated with instantaneous social conditions of explanation, creation, and interaction. The first two frameworks with microsocial focus; that is, Variation Theory and Accommodation Theory relate to investigation of systematic variations in learners' input that are based on the circumstances in which language is used; in addition, they place emphasis on why SLA objectives are dissimilar even inside groups that are apparently learning one language. Sociocultural Theory proposed by Vygotsky (1962, 1978) which is considered as the third framework of microsocial focus, regards interchange of ideas or as he puts it "interaction" as the basic origin of language learning.

Macrosocial focus

With regard to second language acquisition, macrosocial focus is concerned with wider environmental conditions such as cultural, educational, and political contexts. One of the three frameworks with macrosocial focus is the Ethnography of communication. It spreads out the concept of SLA materials beyond linguistic and cultural situations and embraces social and cultural information considered necessary for the purpose of employing the language properly. Within this framework second language learners are regarded as members of groups or societies with sociopolitical and linguistic restrictions. The next two frameworks, namely Acculturation Theory and Social Psychology, provide more widespread perception regarding the way personality, position, and moral standards relate to the SLA consequences.

Conclusion

SLA is categorized by Saville-Troike (2006) from linguistic, psychological, and social perspectives as an attempt to provide an appropriate response to the what, how, and why questions. In spite of the widespread interrelations that exist among them, each perspective is classified based on their focal points to which a number of frameworks are attributed. With respect to the interdisciplinary and multidisciplinary perspectives of SLA, Saville-Troike concludes his survey by stating that it is important to bear in mind that none of the above-mentioned perspectives or frameworks can be regarded as the ultimate response. It is also important to note that no one perspective can be considered as more advantageous than the other; in other words, in order to have a better perception of SLA, all three perspectives, namely linguistic, psychological, and social along with their relevant frameworks are required in SLA with no considerable variation among them.

It is crystal clear that as each discipline makes use of different frameworks for analyzing data in SLA, it obtains different results in this respect. Saville-Troike compares this phenomenon to the story of three blind men who were asked to describe an elephant. All the descriptions were right, but none was adequate enough to provide a precise picture of the whole animal. Likewise, the three perspectives, namely linguistic, psychological, and social, cannot separately account for the perfect comprehension of SLA study and must be integrated in order to provide a complete description of the multifaceted phenomenon of second language learning. Thus, regarding the multidisciplinary and multidimentional aspect of SLA, all the conditions in which learners acquire their second language

must be taken into account in SLA research in the same way; that is, the three different perspectives are of the same importance with no priority given to one over the other. It is the integration of the factors rather than their separation that results in successful second language learning and teaching.

Implications for second language learning and teaching

In order to gain second language knowledge, something more than learnable and teachable materials are required. SLA, in other words, can be achieved through purposeful and conscious attempt which is greatly under the influence of certain factors whether social or individual. Although the majority of these factors cannot be brought under control, identifying and realizing them can be of great assistance in effectively developing second language. The following guidelines are presented by Saville-Troike based on SLA findings which are important to be taken into consideration by L2 teachers and learners:

1. Pay attention to the purpose of L2 learners for learning another language.
2. Determine the learning and teaching preferences that suit those purposes.
3. Assign the exercises while taking the linguistic, psychological, and social aspects into account.
4. Consider the strong and the weak points of the learners and the learning situations and employ them in teaching as well as learning processes.
5. Be careful when taking part in any educational program with confined or opinionated view. No method can be regarded as the most successful in L2 learning and teaching.
6. Consider SLA accomplishment as a developing process. Be uncomplaining. Language acquisition is time-consuming.

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MJLTM

EXPLORING PRE-SERVICE ENGLISH TEACHERS' LANGUAGE ASSESSMENT LITERACY

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ABSTRACT
THERE IS A PREVALENT MISCONCEPTION AMONG LANGUAGE TEACHERS THAT THE ABILITY TO TEACH READILY COMES WITH THE ABILITY TO APPROPRIATELY AND EFFECTIVELY ASSESS LANGUAGE LEARNERS' PERFORMANCE AND PROFICIENCY IN THE TARGET LANGUAGE (SCARINO, 2013). IN FACT, TEACHERS' ASSESSMENT LITERACY HAS A GREAT IMPACT ON VALID AND RELIABLE ASSESSMENT OF CLASSROOM LEARNING OUTCOMES. WITH TEACHERS' LIMITED EXPERTISE AND A WIDE THEORY-PRACTICE GAP (LAM, 2014), THE INTERPRETATION OF TEST RESULTS AND THEIR USAGE MIGHT NOT BE APPROPRIATE AND MAY FAIL TO REFLECT LEARNERS' ACTUAL LEARNING OUTCOMES. THIS STUDY ATTEMPTED TO ALLEVIATE THE DEARTH OF RESEARCH INTO THIS ANOMALY BY EXPLORING THE ASSESSMENT LITERACY OF PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS DOING THEIR PRACTICUM AT PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN BANGKOK, THAILAND. AN ASSESSMENT LITERACY SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE AND A SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW PROTOCOL WERE USED TO ELICIT DATA ON THE PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS' UNDERSTANDING OF ASSESSMENT LITERACY, THEIR PREVIOUS ASSESSMENT TRAINING, THEIR CURRENT ASSESSMENT PRACTICES AND PROBLEMS, AND THEIR NEEDS FOR FURTHER TRAINING AND ASSISTANCE. IN THIS PAPER, SHORTCOMINGS IN THE LANGUAGE ASSESSMENT LITERACY OF PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS ARE REPORTED AND SUGGESTIONS ON HOW THIS MAY BE ADDRESSED THROUGH REMEDIAL ACTION BY EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS TO ENSURE THE EFFICIENCY AND EFFECTIVENESS OF NEWLY GRADUATED LANGUAGE TEACHERS AS LANGUAGE ASSESSORS ARE PROVIDED.

KEYWORDS: PRE-SERVICE ENGLISH TEACHER, LANGUAGE ASSESSMENT LITERACY

1. Introduction

In the past, there was the disregard of language assessment in relation to language learning and teaching. These two concepts were considered separately, and the main focus was primarily on pedagogy. Lately, the concept of language assessment literacy was brought up by Stiggins in 2008 and since then teachers' awareness of the significance of assessment has been raised. Stiggins points out that the major problem that schools are facing is that language teachers do not have opportunities to develop their assessment knowledge in order to apply it in their classrooms. Recently, according to Stoynoff (2012), the recognition of the role of language assessment literacy of English teachers has become more significant as it has been more widely understood that it may affect "individuals, teaching and learning, and society" (p. 527). In fact, teachers' assessment literacy has a great impact on valid and reliable assessment of classroom learning outcomes. With teachers' limited expertise and

a wide theory-practice gap (Lam, 2014), the interpretation of test results and their usage might not be appropriate and may fail to reflect learners' actual learning outcomes.

Scarino's (2013) study has shed light on teachers' belief that the ability to teach is related to the ability to assess language learners' performance and proficiency in the target language. As a matter of fact, regardless of their teaching experience, Bachman (2013) emphasizes that teachers can still be inexperienced and require some training, although there are a lot of assessment and language tests resources available for them.

With regard to language assessment situations in Thailand, there are few studies focusing on assessment literacy of both pre- and in-service English language teachers. Since the reformed English language curriculum in 2008 emphasizes the significance of English as a language for communication, English is taught as a compulsory subject for students in all levels. Regarding the reform, the purposes of language learning has been shifted from memorization and grammar translation (Prapphal, 2008) to communicative purposes (Office of the Basic Education Commission, 2008). However, due to the higher stakes of university admission examination which maintains the use of a multiple-choice test, assessment in the language classroom has been overlooked by teachers who are directly forced by many stakeholders such as school administrators, parents, and students to teach solely for test preparation (Prapphal, 2008).

Similar to Bachman's (2013) statement, Prapphal (2008) agrees that teachers who lack knowledge about language testing, assessment, and evaluation are a challenge for language testing reform in language classrooms. Thus, the next-generation English teachers should be equipped with the ability to maximize the utilization of assessments, both formative and summative. Pre-service English teachers were the main interest in the present study because pre-service teachers are becoming the next-generation teachers who need to possess assessment literacy in order to function effectively as language instructors and assessors.

Therefore, the purposes of the study were to explore pre-service English language teachers' belief and practices about language assessment literacy and to analyze training needs on language assessment literacy of these pre-service English teachers.

2. Literature Review

Language assessment literacy (LAL) has been mentioned in several studies such as those undertaken by Davies (2008), Jeong (2013), Malone (2013), Newfields (2006), and Stiggins (2008), in which two key questions are discussed: What is the definition of LAL? and To which level the stakeholders should know about LAL?

In the field of language testing, the teaching profession requires the conjugation of skills and knowledge, as well as principle (Davies, 2008). Taylor (2009) elaborates the LAL issues, contending that teachers should understand the principles of assessment, be able to apply theory into practice, choose and evaluate assessment appropriately, make use of data collected from the assessment, interpret test results accurately, and integrate assessment in to their pedagogical process effectively. Pill and Harding (2013) define LAL as "a repertoire of competences that enable an individual to understand, evaluate, and in some cases, create language tests and analyze test data" (p. 2). Thus, LAL should cover language assessment knowledge to a certain degree in order to equip language teachers with these necessary skills, knowledge, and principle.

Newfields (2006) categorizes assessment knowledge into four main parts which are terminology, procedures, test interpretation, and assessment ethics. On the other hand, Jeong (2013) classifies assessment literacy into six topic areas: test specifications, test theory, basic statistics, classroom assessment, rubric development, and test accommodation. Though topics concerning LAL are identified, the degree of need-to-know knowledge has yet to be determined for each stakeholder. Because there is no way to claim that every stakeholder should acquire the same degree of assessment knowledge, Newfields (2006) views assessment knowledge in different "three contrasting views: the perspectives of professional test developers, high school foreign language instructors, and incoming university undergraduates" (p. 50). Moreover, he identifies the degree of assessment literacy teachers need to possess which varies according to their necessity. Supporting Newfield's belief, Malone (2013) has discussed the different perspectives between language test developers and language instructors. Even though they agree that definitions of testing and testing concepts are major themes, the former seems to focus on "appropriate test use" (p. 342), whereas the latter seems to focus more on "ease of use with regard to presentation and delivery, as well as clarity of definitions" (p. 342). Recently,

Jeong's (2013) study also presents the differences of assessment literacy definitions between language testers and non-language testers on assessment-course design. According to him, different professionals have different views of assessment. For language testers, theories and definitions are major concerns; however, for non-language testers, practical approaches and classroom-based approaches seem to receive more attention.

More precisely, Taylor (2013) has divided LAL into eight categories and specified degrees of LAL for each stakeholder as shown in *Figure 1*. For classroom teachers, language pedagogy seems to receive the most importance; meanwhile, knowledge of theory, principle and concepts, and scores and decision making seem to receive the least.

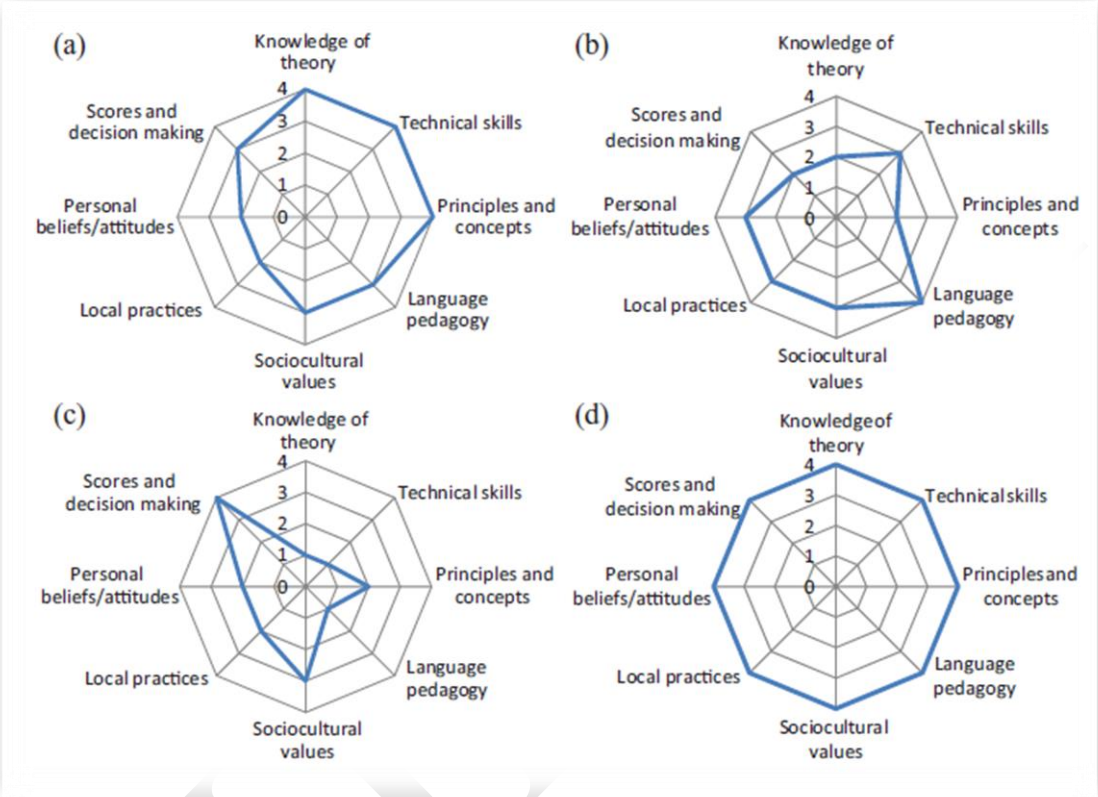

Figure 1. Differential AL/ALA profiles for four constituencies (Taylor, 2013)

(a) Profile for test writers
(b) Profile for classroom teachers
(c) Profile for university administrators
(d) Profile for professional language testers

In this study, several conceptual frameworks (Bachman & Palmer, 2004; Brown, 2004; Coombe, Davidson, O'Sullivan, & Stoynoff, 2014; Green, 2014; Jeong, 2013; Plakans & Gebril, 2015; Stoynoff & Chapelle, 2005) have been analyzed in order to identify LAL content necessary for classroom teachers. Seeing that several studies have mentioned insufficient support (Lam, 2014) and misconception on LAL for teachers (Pill & Harding, 2013), this study aimed to explore belief and practice of pre-service teachers, identify how support plays a significant role in LAL understanding and development in classroom practice, and also identify what assessment knowledge teachers need to be equipped with.

3. Methodology

Participants

The population of this study included pre-service English teachers who were doing their practicum (teaching the English language) in secondary education levels in both public and private schools in Bangkok, Thailand, so their actual teaching experience in school was not longer than a year. Generally, they taught at least three classrooms with 45-50 students per class. During their practicum, the pre-service teachers were primarily responsible for lesson planning, teaching, developing English tests for the courses, and giving grades. As they were studying at the Faculty of Education, all

teachers had taken some courses concerning educational assessment and evaluation, English language teaching and evaluation, and English language assessment and evaluation.

The sample, recruited by means of purposive sampling, consisted of 46 pre-service English teachers with 16 males and 30 females. The participants for the interview (N = 5) were selected through convenience sampling as this was deemed most feasible for these teachers who had a lot of responsibilities at their practicum schools and were required to participate in a weekly educational seminar for practicum teachers at the university sharing their problems at schools.

Instruments

The questionnaire was composed of four parts. Part one elicited data of the participants with focus on the English courses, levels of students they were responsible for, and assessment courses they had previously taken. Using a five-point Likert scale, the second part focused on language assessment literacy and the participants' practices in five areas: Testing Principle, Test Choice, Test Usefulness (eight subtopics), Assessment Approach, and Grading. The third part aimed to identify previously training topics and training needs about LAL in six areas: Content and Concept of LAL, Classroom-focus in LAL, Assessment Approach, Purpose of Testing, Designing the Test, and Grading. The fourth part highlighted supports received and needed supports for professional development, as well as the overall level of assessment literacy. The questionnaire was validated to ensure content validity and language appropriateness by experts in the field of language teaching and language assessment (*See* Appendix A.)

Semi-structured interviews were conducted to gain more in-depth information. The guiding questions intended to probe more details on test purposes, test development, testing language skills and sub-skills, and needed supports. The interview protocol was examined and revised in accordance with comments and suggestions of experts in the field of language teaching and language assessment (*See* Appendix B.)

Data Collection and Analysis

Participants were asked to complete the questionnaire after their seminar. After finishing the questionnaire, the interviews were audio-recorded with the informed consent from the volunteered participants. The recordings were transcribed and sent back to the interviewees for verification, using the member check technique (Creswell, 2012) to ensure accuracy of data.

Data collected from the questionnaire were computed using descriptive statistics of means, percentage, and standard deviation. The interpretation of mean scores were as follows:

4.51-5.00 Strongly knowledgeable
3.51-4.50 Knowledgeable
2.51-3.50 Neutral
1.51-2.50 Unknowledgeable
1.00-1.50 Strongly unknowledgeable

On the other hand, data collected from the interviews were coded and analyzed by means of content analysis.

4. Results and Discussion

Belief and Practices of Pre-service English Teachers' LAL

The finding revealed that pre-service English teachers had overall acquired LAL at satisfactory levels. They had gained enough knowledge about language assessment to use it in their practicum. Still, they could not apply and utilize principles and theories in practicum schools due to a number of restrictions.

Table 1. Self-rating Levels of LAL

	N	Mode	Median	Mean Score	S.D.
Self-rating Level	46	5	6.00	6.04	1.192

The results from the questionnaire showed that pre-service teachers had understanding of general concepts of language assessment. As shown in *Figure 2*, the component with the highest average score was test choice, followed by grading, assessment approach, test usefulness, and test principle respectively.

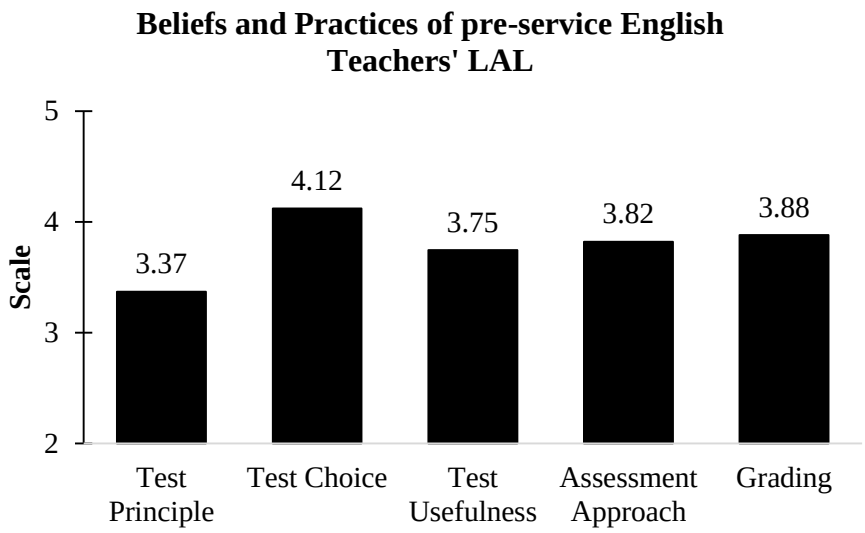

Figure 2. Beliefs and Practices of Pre-service English Teachers' Language Assessment Literacy

The results from the interview showed pre-service teachers had misunderstanding on the concept of validity and validation process, reliability, and especially test principle, as can be seen in the following statements:
"I don't think that I have the ability to design the test, so I look at a standardized sample such as the TOEFL. I then simplify it to suit my students."
"I think sometimes test cannot assess students' knowledge."
"Tests are always in the forms of multiple-choice, fill-in-the-gap, or short-answer tests."
"I believe in my test, but I consult the previous versions of tests as well."

Test Choice

According to the findings, most pre-service teachers considered the congruence course objective(s) and purpose(s) of the test when choosing tests. Also, they realized several types of assessment and their authenticity of test types and test tasks; however, they seemed to be obstructed by other factors. For example, one of the interviewees pointed out that *"students' language proficiency is not good enough to do such authentic tasks or any alternative assessments."* Thus, they had to continue using traditional assessment test types such as multiple-choice, cloze and fill-in-the-gap tests. It could be explained that the teachers may have misconception that alternative assessment could be applied for learners only with high proficiency levels. Similar to Leung (2013), it can be assumed that the way teachers teach and test are influenced by the way they believe in language teaching and testing and their students.
Instead of being encouraged to use assessment in classrooms, the participants had to adhere to their practicum schools' requirements. One interviewee explained that she was not able to try a new test format because *"the school policy indicates that all teachers have to do this [multiple-choice] test."* However, other assessment approaches had been stated occasionally like *"role play"* and *"pronunciation"*. Interestingly, one interviewee discussed her situation that *"It does not matter for me if they can write or read. If they can talk, they can understand what they are talking about, then they can use English, so they can use that language in their real life."* Being influenced by her belief, she usually assesses listening and speaking skills through conversation task she mentioned during the interview. Apparently, these pre-service teachers showed little triumph applying other types of the test in the classroom. This is an important finding because, in relation to the explanation of Plakans and Gebril (2015), formative assessment such as conversation test task and role play and summative assessment such as midterm and final examinations should be aligned in language classrooms.

Grading

The average score on grading (3.88) showed the participants' understanding of principles of grading. They had the abilities to use rubric scoring for performance-based tests, use statistics, calculate points, and assign grades to students. As mentioned above, these pre-service teachers were responsible for calculating scores and giving grades to their students, and grading appeared to be less problematic to them. Such a finding was interesting because, according to Brown (2004), for in experienced teachers,

grading could be major problems as the principles of grading play an important role in the educational system.

Assessment Approach

The participants recognized several approaches on assessing receptive skills (reading and listening), productive skills (speaking and writing), and microlinguistic skills (grammar and vocabulary). However, when asked which skills they frequently assessed, they indicated that microlinguistic skills including grammar and vocabulary were most often assessed. They explained *"I teach fundamental English, so mainly it deals with grammar, some speech acts, and some functions that are prescribed in the syllabus."* In contrast to their responsibility for teaching fundamental English courses which emphasize the use of four skills of English, these pre-service teachers had not been much exposed to other approaches on assessing receptive and productive skills. As pointed out by Brown (2004), there is no such tests that could be claimed to assess only microlinguistic skills, so speaking, listening, reading, or writing skill is always involved within the test. Therefore, these pre-service teachers should be trained to be able to integrate more than one skill into a test.

Test Usefulness

The findings revealed that pre-service teachers who were the study participants had understanding of test usefulness at a satisfactory level. There are two main concepts which play significant roles on the quality of a test: validity and reliability (Brindley, 2003; Farhady, 2012). The participants showed a high level of recognition on the importance of relevance between course objectives and test contents. To be more precise, validity concerns not only the congruence between course objectives and test content, but the appropriateness of the approaches used in the test (Brindley, 2003; Brown, 2004). However, these participants seemed to have misunderstanding of test validity and test validation process. These pre-service teachers believed that if they checked the test content with the textbook, it meant that the test was valid, as one of them described:

"Actually, the book itself holds the content I would like to test, so I use it as a criteria on my test."

Furthermore, when asked about test quality, participants seemed to believe that by writing a test in the same way the tests had previously been written, it meant the test was valid:

"I look for the previous tests and then I kind of make a test that has the same purpose as the previous one."

"I believe in my test, but I also consult the old version of tests. I try not to make it so different from the old version."

When these pre-service teachers were required to design test, it was acceptable that they referred to the format of previous tests because they needed something to rely on such as test contents, test types and skills to be assessed. Undoubtedly, test specification should be offered to these pre-service teachers to give then guideline in decision-making about the test. According to Brown (2004), test specifications for classroom should provide at least three main topics: test outline, test skills, and test items or test tasks. Minimally, these teachers should be advised by their teacher mentors or supervisors on how to design a test.

Moreover, some teachers simply adapted their test item from standardized tests with the belief that it could be as good as the original:

"I don't think that I have the ability to design the test, so I look at a standardized sample such as the TOEFL. I then simplify it to suit my students."

These pre-service teachers stated their inexperience in designing the test, so they would find safer ways they could depend on. Although they trusted standardized tests such as the TOEFL, they should be aware that such tests were not designed for classroom-based assessment, but for large-scale assessment and were considered high-stake tests, which means their adaptation may not be suitable for their purposes after all. Once again, test specification should be provided as a guideline for these pre-service teachers designing the test.

Even though the participants understood that their test should be designed based on the objectives of the course, the validation process has not been mentioned elsewhere during the interview. These pre-service teachers may ask for their classmates who were required to design the test, consult teacher mentors at their practicum schools, or contact their professors at the Faculty. In fact, they should learn how to collect evidences to prove that their test is valid and suitable for their students and their purposes.

One of the most important concepts of test usefulness is reliability. Although the results from the questionnaire showed that the participants understood the principle of reliability, it was not mentioned in the interview. Thus, it could be interpreted that these pre-service teachers might have

not had experience examining the reliability of their own test. Reliability is defined as the consistent results of the test considering "fluctuations in the student, in scoring, and in test administration, and in the test itself" (Brown, 2004, p. 21). Green (2014) also mentioned that test will be reliable if its test results are consistent every time the test was used. Therefore, evidence of reliability should be collected in order to ensure the confidence of these pre-service teachers when using the tests.

Overall, pre-service teachers seemed to lack awareness of validity and reliability of the test, so they could not conduct the validation process on both concepts which are important for confirmation of test quality. Instead of conducting the whole validation process, Brown (2004) suggests that if teachers can argue that test content is relevant to course objectives, validity of the test has been observed. As mentioned in Green (2014), due to the lack of resources and time constraint, teacher-made assessments may lead to the misinterpretations of test results.

Test Principle

The results showed that test principle received the lowest mean score (3.37), meaning that pre-service teachers' knowledge of this topic was not satisfactory. However, pre-service teachers seemed to realize the importance of testing as a part of teaching and did not concern only students' achievement scores, but the learning process as well. Interestingly, these pre-service teachers used assessment mainly for achievement purposes. When asked about the main purpose of their assessment, their responses were as follows:

"I test what I teach."

"It is to test what they know at that point, how well that they learn in class"

One interviewee suggested he used pre-test to diagnose his students.

"I think I know my student from a test, like some background knowledge and their weaknesses."

These pre-service teachers seemed to mainly find out whether their students understood what they had learned in classrooms well enough to pass the course or not. Although there are several testing purposes: achievement, diagnostic, placement, and proficiency (Brown, 2004), it is believed that achievement tests are most frequently used by classroom teachers (Plakans & Gebril, 2015). Thus, these teachers could be encouraged to use assessment for other purposes such as to identify strengths and weaknesses of their students prior to preparing teaching methodology (diagnostic) and to identify students' levels of proficiency (placement), so that they would be better able to help their students master the target language.

Training Received and Training Needs of Pre-service English Teachers

The results from the questionnaire, as shown in *Figure 3*, pointed out that pre-service teachers had received some trainings on LAL. The levels of training received were varied. Designing the Test received the lowest mean score (1.99), while Content and Concept of Assessment received the highest mean score (2.16). Even though the average scores of training needs did not greatly vary, remarkably, they were higher than average scores of training received.

Similarly, the results from the interviews revealed that the participants felf they needed to be trained because they were not confident enough when designing tests for their students.

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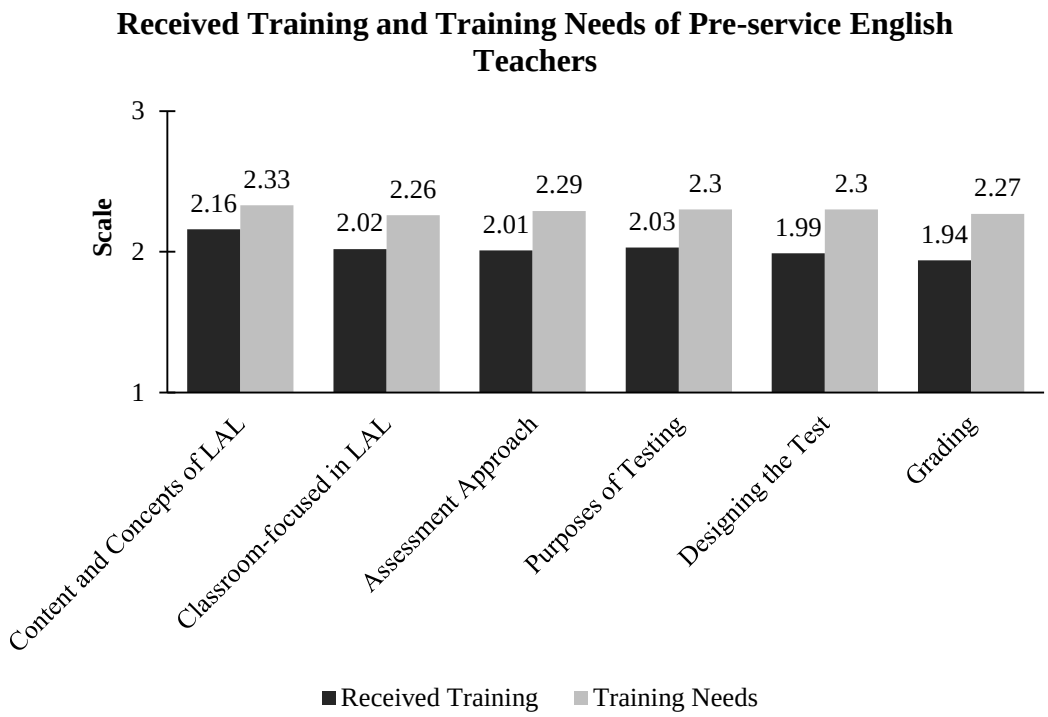

Figure 3. Received Training and Training Needs of Pre-service English Teachers

One of the areas that the participants seemed to require further training was designing the test, as one participant explained that she did not understand the main goal of using assessments in the classroom and, as well as how to apply these concepts into their classrooms.

"I think I need [support] because sometimes I do not know how to use the right assessment for the right activities."

Another participant explained that *"I don't think that I have a good ability to design the test…"*

The responses above revealed the reason why pre-service teachers could not apply assessment into their classroom. Pre-service teachers seemed to possess uncertainty about which assessments were appropriate. While the others felt afraid to design the test on their own. Similar findings have been reported by Lam (2014) in Hong Kong that there were some theory-practice gaps among per-service teachers. Once again, if these teachers lack know-how of test application, as mentioned in Green (2014), their assessment might not be able to reflect actual performance of students and the interpretation of test results may be misleading or inaccurate as it was inappropriately designed. It is suggested that these topics, together with their practices, should be emphasized in the assessment and evaluation courses. Pre-service teachers should have opportunities to experience the process of designing the test and implementation of using alternative assessment in language classrooms before doing the practicum.

Pre-service teachers had tried to find other resources in order to solve their problems at hand. As shown in *Table 2*, the percentage of support needed, in consistent with support received, had shed light on the support needed from several resources such as the Faculty and practicum schools.

Table 2. Support Received and Need of Pre-service English Teachers

	Support Received (%)	**Support Needed (%)**
Faculty	41.35	46.15
Practicum schools	20.20	42.31
Expert/Trainer	0.00	7.69
yourself	15.38	0.00
other – book	8.65	0.00
other – google/Internet	14.42	0.00
Ministry of Education	0.00	3.85

Total	**100.00**	**100.00**

The interviews also confirmed the insufficient supports, as can be seen in the following excerpts:
"I think maybe teacher in school can help me."
"I think the school should support me the most."
"If there are some persons who can give some support, it would be immediate support."
Moreover, pre-service teachers tended to compensate for their lack of training needed by learning from other resources such as:
"read some books"
"look for standardized tests from ETS or the TOEFL, IELTS, or CU-TEP from CULI, TU-GET from Thammasart University."
"look at the former test"

Clearly, these pre-service teachers needed to get more support from the Faculty and practicum schools. Otherwise, they would have to seek for self-support such as surfing the Internet, reading relevant books, and looking at the former tests and standardized tests. As a matter of fact, they needed more useful and helpful resources which they could depend on and easily access if they were required to design or choose appropriate tests, or were to solve problems concerning the use of language assessment. Such finding yielded support to what Lam's (2014) and Vogt and Tsagari's (2014) found out about insufficient support. In addition to self-support, it could be possible that these pre-service teachers may find useful resources online, but without sufficient guidance, the resources they chose may cause misunderstanding or misconception instead of assisting them with test development.

5. IMPLICATION OF THE FINDINGS

The results suggested that even though pre-service teachers had undergone training that enabled them to acquire some language assessment knowledge, they seemed not to be able to apply it in their classroom. There were still some misconceptions on test choices, assessment approaches, test usefulness, and test principles that affected their actual practices of language assessment in the classroom. Moreover, a number of pre-service teachers faced some restrictions that prevented them from translating their knowledge into actual practice during their practicum. Firstly, pre-service teachers were required to choose the test formats according to the school policy which limited their choice to traditional test types such as multiple-choice tests. Secondly, they had misunderstanding that skills could be assessed separately and they tended to focus mainly on grammar and vocabulary. Thirdly, even though they acknowledged that validity and reliability were important to ensure accuracy of test results, they still had misconceptions about how to achieve validity and reliability when designing the tests. Lastly, pre-service teachers seemed to mainly employ assessment for achievement purposes. Based on such findings, it could be concluded that pre-service teachers need to be equipped with more language assessment literacy. The findings helped identify the scope of assessment knowledge that should be provided to these pre-service teachers in order to equip them with a necessary tool to function effectively as language assessors. Corresponding to the study of Lam (2014), there is a gap between theory and practice of pre-service teachers that should be seriously filled out. This can be done by conducting pre-practicum workshops for them. The most immediately needed training topics are test design and test usefulness because pre-service teachers will have to be assigned to write the midterm and final examinations at schools as part of their practicum. Moreover, as it was found that pre-service teachers mostly used only traditional assessment, pre-practicum training should include the topic of classroom-based assessment to make these pre-service teachers learn about alternative assessments that are also useful tools to assess students' learning process. Curriculum designers and course developers should put more emphases on the preparation of pre-service teachers and increase practical activities in the training in order to provide more experience to these teachers. Taylor (2013) has suggested that teachers should be able to practically use assessment in their classroom, thus their choices should not be limited only to traditional forms of assessments which may not be sufficient to accurately and comprehensively assess the learners' language learning development and achievement.

It was also found in the presents study that pre-service teachers still needed more support from stakeholders, especially the Faculty of Education and practicum schools. To help them solve problems

of lack of sufficient resources and information, knowledge should be disseminated including test design, test usefulness (e.g. validity, reliability, and validation process), assessment of various language skills, basic principles of test writing, and classroom-based assessment and its application in the forms of workshops, a written manual, and online resources. The Faculty should invest in developing a practical guideline on language assessment for pre-service teachers so that they could use it as a manual during their practicum to help them solve immediate problems by themselves without having to seek consultation from their supervisors all the time. As Lam (2014) and Pill and Harding (2013) have suggested, resources on LAL should be made more easily accessible for classroom teachers. Considering that these pre-service teachers have to spend most of their time at their practicum schools, support should be made readily available even when they are far away from their advisors and supervisors at the Faculty.

6. LIMITATION AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDIES

Certain limitations of the present study are acknowledged. Firstly, the sample size of the study was small as the number of pre-service teachers majoring in English language was limited. Also, due to busy schedules of these pre-service teachers, only a few of them were conveniently selected for the interviews. To shed more light on LAL of pre-service teachers, further studies should be conducted with a larger sample size at different stages of the practicum. In addition, to gain further in-depth information to more clearly understand actual LAL of pre-service teachers, longitudinal studies with prolonged engagement and observation should be carried out.

Further studies should also be undertaken to examine pre-service English teachers' language assessment literacy in terms of test design, test usefulness, classroom-based assessment, and test principles. This is because in-depth information on teachers' assessment literacy will help raise awareness of the importance of language assessment not only at a curriculum level but also at a policy level.

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THE IMMEDIATE AND DELAYED EFFECTS OF AUTHORITATIVE VS. FACILITATIVE INTERVENTIONS ON IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS' LEVEL OF ANXIETY

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ABSTRACT
THE PRESENT STUDY SOUGHT TO INVESTIGATE THE EFFECTS OF EMPLOYING THE INTERVENTION PROVISION FRAMEWORK PUT FORWARD BY JOHN HERON, ENTITLED SIX-CATEGORY INTERVENTION ANALYSIS, ON EFL LEARNERS' LEVEL OF ANXIETY. THIS MODEL OF INTERVENTION PROVISION, HAVING ITS GENESIS IN CLINICAL SUPERVISION, CAN REGULATE THE VERBAL BEHAVIOR AND ACTUAL SENTENCES USED BY TEACHERS TO INTERVENE IN LANGUAGE LEARNING CONTEXTS. THE PRELIMINARY ENGLISH TEST (PET) AS AN ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY TEST WAS ADMINISTERED TO 60 PARTICIPANTS. BASED ON THE RESULTS OBTAINED, 36 PARTICIPANTS WERE SELECTED AND DIVIDED INTO TWO GROUPS OF 18 CATEGORIZED AS AUTHORITATIVE INTERVENTION GROUP IN WHICH THE TEACHER SUGGESTED WHAT HAD TO BE DONE, PROVIDED INFORMATION, OR CONFRONTED THE LEARNERS. THE SECOND GROUP WAS FACILITATIVE INTERVENTION, IN WHICH THE TEACHER DREW OUT IDEAS, SOLUTIONS, OR SELF-CONFIDENCE. PARTICIPANTS IN BOTH GROUPS COMPLETED THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASSROOM ANXIETY SCALE FLCAS DEVELOPED BY HORWITZ, HORWITZ, AND COPE, 1986) BEFORE AND AFTER THE TREATMENT, AS WELL AS IN THE FOLLOW-UP PERIOD. THE FINDINGS INDICATED THAT THE APPLICATION OF SIX-CATEGORY INTERVENTION ANALYSIS BROUGHT ABOUT SIGNIFICANT DECREASE IN LEVEL OF ANXIETY AND THE ENHANCEMENT OF LEARNING IN THE FACILITATIVE GROUP. THIS RESEARCH COULD HAVE SOME IMPORTANT IMPLICATIONS FOR ALL STAKEHOLDERS IN THE REALM OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING.

KEYWORDS: AUTHORITATIVE INTERVENTION, EFL LEARNERS, FACILITATIVE INTERVENTION, LEVEL OF ANXIETY

Introduction

Anxiety has been considered as one of the most important affective factors that influence second language learning (Na, 2007). Language anxiety, a type of anxiety specifically associated with learning the second language (L2), can arise from many kinds of sources (Skehan, 1989).Researchers in the field of foreign language teaching and learning have long strived to figure out the reasons for

the great complexity faced by a wide range of students when learning a foreign language whereas others find it less difficult (Ganschow, Sparks, Anderson, Javorshy, Skinner & Jon, 1994). Students who experience difficulty with foreign language learning are often described as underachievers, or lacking in motivation (Chen & Chang, 2004; Tercanlioglu, 2004; Li & Pan, 2009), or as having language learning disabilities (Grigorenko, 2002; Reed & Stansfield, 2004). Other affective variables such as attitude, motivation, anxiety and beliefs about foreign language learning have also been regarded as factors that might influence foreign language learning. Of these affective factors, anxiety has been given much attention.

In educational arenas, anxiety is usually categorized as being trait or state. Trait anxiety is a rather stable personality trait. A person who is trait anxious is likely to feel anxious in a variety of situations (Birjandi & Tabatabian, 2012). State anxiety, on the other hand, is a temporary condition experienced at a particular moment. A third type of anxiety is situation specific anxiety. This is indicative of a trait that recurs in specific situations (Spielberger, Anton, & Bedell, 1976, as cited in Birjandi & Tabatabai'an, 2012)

Conceptualizations and definitions of foreign language anxiety have reached several milestones as researchers try to understand its essence and nature (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991a; MacIntyre, 1999; Tran, 2012). However, the influential work of Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope have provided the most commonly accepted definition of foreign language anxiety. They conceptualize foreign language anxiety as a unique type of anxiety specific to foreign language learning, defining it as 'a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning process' (Horwitz,et al p. 128).

Research into the distinctive nature of foreign language anxiety has found evidence for its debilitating effects on foreign language learning. Cognitively speaking, anxious students were reported to have difficulty processing meaningful input, and to be less responsive to language output (Krashen, 1981, 1982, 1985). Anxiety has also been demonstrated to have adverse influences, both pervasive and subtle, on the three stages of cognitive processing: input, processing and output (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991b, 1994a, 1994b; Bailey, Onwuegbuzie, & Daley, 2000). With regard to achievement and performance, research has shown that both general FLA and anxieties about specific skills e.g., listening, reading, speaking and writing, have negative effects on student achievement and performance. Significant negative correlations have been reported between general foreign language anxiety and course grades (Aida, 1994;Elkhafaifi, 2005; Yan & Horwitz, 2008), between foreign language listening anxiety and listening course grades (Elkhafaifi, 2005; Bekleyen, 2009), between foreign language speaking anxiety and oral scores (Sellers, 2000), and between foreign language writing anxiety and writing achievement (Chen & Lin, 2009). For instance, more anxious students in reading tend to recall less passage content, and experience more off-task, interfering thoughts than their less anxious counterparts (Sellers, 2000), while high anxiety students in speaking produce longer texts and smaller amounts of continuous speech, have longer mid-clause pauses, make fewer repetitions, and make more false starts (Djigunovic, 2006). These results indicate that FLA does have negative effects on foreign language learning performance and achievement.

However, how anxiety affects foreign language performance and achievement is only one issue to consider when discussing anxiety and language learning, and 'perhaps not even the most important' (Horwitz, 2001, p. 122). According to Elaine Horwitz, one of the chief researchers in the arena of foreign language anxiety, greater significance needs to be attached to understanding the frustration and discomfort that a wide range of students seem to be suffering when learning a foreign language. This view is supported by other researchers who consider students' psychological experience of foreign language learning to be more important than language proficiency levels (Spieldmann & Radnofsky, 2001). In reality, the consequences of foreign language anxiety may expand beyond the classroom to the level that those who follow the study of a foreign language until graduation may actually never use the language again as a result of high levels of foreign language anxiety (Dewaele, 2007). If this is the case, it is 'not only sad for the individuals but also it is a loss for the whole school system that has invested money, time and energy in the teaching of a FL that will ultimately not be used' (Dewaele & Thirtle, 2009, p. 638).

The manner in which language teachers provide feedback for their students or intervene in their learning process is very likely to influence the variable aspects and momentary decisions made by language learners whether to participate or not in the pathway of the communication. These momentary influences appear to have a greater impact than the general influences on the

communication behavior of language learners. To this end, Heron's (1976 & 2001) six- category intervention model can be used to influence the momentary aspects of language learners, and affect on the level of their situation specific anxiety. Through its main two categories of authoritative and facilitative interventions, Heron presents a framework for establishing the most appropriate types of interventions between a practitioner and clients, teacher and students in our case.

Anxiety is one of the powerful factors that affect effective language learning and L2 communication. Anxiety means the feeling of concern in using the target language in any contexts. It is a feeling of tension and nervousness related with the situation of learning a language. Anxious speakers tend to be unwilling to interact with others or avoid communicating if possible. Anxiety and fear are directly related to communication apprehension preventing the speakers from participating in oral communication (Burgoon,1976). MacIntyre (2007) points out that language anxiety and motivation are vital factors in willingness to communicate in L2. WTC is an act of willing to engage in a conversation that shows self-confidence and communicative competence. In consequence, WTC consistently connects positively with perceived communicative competence and negatively with language anxiety. In this regard, communication apprehension can raise language learners' anxiety when facing with real communication events (McCroskey & McCroskey, 1986). Burgoon (1976) clarifies that "reticence goes beyond fear of public speaking situations" which explains the apprehension about various interpersonal communication situations (pp. 61-62). McCroskey (1984) defines communication apprehension as "an individual's level of fear or anxiety associated with either real or anticipated communication with another person or persons" (p. 13). According to MacIntyre (1995), language anxiety mainly comes from social and communicative aspects of language learning. That is why it is seen as one of social anxieties. Social anxiety is defined as a result of "feelings of tension and discomfort" or "a tendency to withdraw in the presence of others" and any situation related to a second language in which individuals can become anxious in communication (MacIntyre, 1995, p. 91). Whitmore (1987) explains that anxiety includes the feelings of apprehension, uneasiness, and fear. The emergent of anxiety in a social situation can affect cognitive and behavioural effects and the reaction of individuals to their anxiety is to avoid the situation involving L2 speaking. MacIntyre (1995) also mentions that language anxiety emanates from the social and communicative aspects of language learning. Therefore, it can be seen as a form of social anxiety. Hence, people who have high levels of fear or anxiety when it comes to communication tend to avoid having a communication (Daly & McCroskey, 1984). MacIntyre & Gardner (1991a) comment that language anxiety negatively affects listening comprehension. They also speculate that "language anxiety can have a pervasive impact at all stages of language learning and production" (p. 296). For example, considering speakers' nervousness, they are very concerned not only with their pronunciation but also with their listening comprehension. Thus, communicative comprehension also plays an important role in their WTC and their L2 performance can be limited. For example, learners may have anxiety problems when speaking in the target language. The negative effect is, as anticipated, that the anxiety affects the quality of L2 communication. That is why after studying English as L2 for many years, some people avoid using their L2 or only use L2 if there is no other choice. Some feels anxious when producing L2 speech. The anxiety can, therefore, be an obstacle for language learners to succeed in language learning as it hinders cognitive process ability (MacIntyre, 1995). Another issue that can affect anxiety is how simple a given task is. The function of task difficulty can encourage individuals to increase their efforts on task performance and reduce their anxiety, or it can provoke anxiety if the task is somewhat difficult
(MacIntyre, 1995). However, anxiety can also lead to better performance if L2 speakers put more effort into the quality of performance (MacIntyre, 1995). Gardner (2001b) also mentions that in addition to motivation, language anxiety and self-confidence with the language are also very influential. At present, attitudes, motivation and anxiety are seen as influential variables and, therefore, these variables have gained much attention. In Simic & Tanaka's article (2008), both language anxiety and perceived competence influenced WTC. They reveal that anxiety reduces WTC while perceived competence enhances WTC. Inevitably, most language teachers and instructors agree that many students in Iran face problems in communicating in English as it is not their native language. Even at the university level, students feel apprehensive and are unwilling to communicate when they are asked to speak English in the classroom, let alone in public.

Intervention

Intervention is "an identifiable piece of verbal and/or non-verbal behavior that is a part of the practitioner's service to the client" (Heron, 2001, p. 3). Despite the significance of non-verbal aspects of intervention, Heron (1976) notes by intervention he mainly refers to practitioner's verbal behavior. SCIA is proposed as a conceptual framework to understand interpersonal relationships and to analyse interactions between a client and a helper.

Six-Category Intervention Analysis (SCIA) has been put forward by Heron (1976). This conceptual framework, being originally based on counseling and clinical supervision studies, has been employed to educate and train professionals in health-related arenas. Recently, however, it has been used in various fields including management, medical education and counselling to promote interpersonal skills. (Chambers & Long, 1995; Cutcliffe & Epling, 1997; Fowler, 1996;). Intervention in its both direct and indirect forms constitutes a major portion of the process of education. In language learning and teaching arenas, intervention has been attended to mostly in its former form. Indirect intervention, however, has not been considered in detail and with the necessary heed it deserves. The present study discusses intervention from Heron's (1976) point of view and tries to elaborate on its two major categories, and their respective six types. Whereas there exist a number of intervention models (Sloan & Watson, 2002), SCIA has been frequently used in fields that need to promote interpersonal skills (Ashmore, 1999; Chambers & Long 1995; Cutcliffe & Epling, 1997; Fowler, 1996; Sloan & Watson, 2001). For practitioners, it can be used to improve the effectiveness of their communication skills in mentoring relationships. The two main categories of SCIA include authoritative and facilitative interventions which are briefly introduced here.

1. Authoritative Interventions

In this category, the practitioner suggests what should be done, provides information, or confronts the other person. This category includes three types: 1) *Prescriptive*: "…seeks to direct the behavior of the patient/colleague, client" (Heron, 2001, p. 5). For example, *I would like you to discuss this issue with your classmates*. In this intervention, the teacher or practitioner directly advises, proposes, recommends, or suggests to the client what to do due to a gap in their knowledge or skill when they are badly needed (Maggioli, 2012), 2) *Informative*: "…seeks to impart knowledge, information and meaning to the other person" (Heron, 2001, p. 5). For example, *"It would be useful for you to know that…."* Maggioli (2012, p. 112) notes that "these interventions present relevant information, provide personal interpretations, feedback or self-disclosure with the aim of helping the aspiring teacher cope with a specific situation, and 3) *Confronting*: "…to raise the awareness of the patient/colleague/person about some limiting attitude or behavior of which he/she is relatively unaware" (Heron, 2001, p. 5). For example, *I notice this is the third time we have talked about this—and you have still not been able to act—I wonder what is going on.* These are employed in cases where the clients "need to be pushed to reassess their actions, beliefs or attitudes because they are acting against the benefits of themselves, or the learners, and they are unable to see it" (Maggioli, 2012, p. 112).

2. Facilitative Interventions

In these, the mediator or the helper draws out ideas, solutions, self-confidence, and so on, from the other person, helping him or her to reach his or her own solutions or decisions (Heron, 2001). They include: 1) Cathartic: "… to enable the other person to discharge and express .painful emotion, usually grief, anger or fear". For example, I notice that whenever you speak about your research, you look rather anxious, why don't you tell us your problem? 2) Catalytic: "…to elicit self-discovery, self-directed learning, and problem solving". For example, "What would you do in this situation?" 3) Supportive: "…to affirm the worth and value of the other person, their qualities, attitudes and actions". For example, "It sounds like you handled that in a very mature and confident way, well done!" (Heron, 2001, p. 6).

Regarding intervention efficiency, Heron (2001) suggests that a valid intervention is "one that is appropriate to the client's current state and stage of development, and to the developing practitioner-client interaction" (Heron, 2001, p. 10). Heron further continues that …to say that it is appropriate, is to say that: (a) it is in the right category; (b) it is the right sort of intervention within that category; (c) its content and use of language is fitting; it is delivered in the right manner; and (e) it is delivered with good timing.

The current study

Given the intervention model presented by Heron has played a major role in establishing fruitful relationship and successful provision of help from instructors and making students involve in communicative activities, there is a gap in the literature on the application of Heron's six -category

intervention model in language teaching arena and between teachers and students. To this end, the following research questions were posed;

1. Are there any statistically significant differences in Iranian EFL learners receiving authoritative and facilitative interventions in terms of level of anxiety in the short run?
2. Are there any statistically significant differences in Iranian EFL learners receiving authoritative and facilitative interventions in terms of level of anxiety in the long run?

To answer the above mentioned research question, two hypotheses were formulated as follows:

Hypothesis one: There is no significant difference between immediate posttest mean of learners' level of anxiety for the authoritative intervention group and facilitative intervention group.

Hypothesis two: There is no significant difference between delayed posttest mean of learners' level of anxiety for the authoritative intervention group and facilitative intervention group.

Method

Participants

The participants of this study were selected from a sample of 60 male and female EFL learners aged 20 to 45 at Farhangian University. After they took the PET at the beginning of the study, those participants whose scores were within one standard deviation below and above the mean were selected as a homogenous sample for further data collection. The selected participants were randomly divided into two groups, categorized as authoritative intervention group and facilitative intervention group.

Instrumentation

The researcher utilized the Preliminary English Test (PET) to assess the language proficiency level of 60 sophomores at Farhangian University. It is a Cambridge ESOL exam for the intermediate level learners. The test consists of four sections. Section one is composed of 35 reading test items. Section two is made up of 5 writing test items. Section three includes 25 listening test items, and section four is a speaking test during which a picture is given to each participant and he or she is required to reflect and explain about it.

The Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) developed by Horwitz et al was also used to assess the language learners' anxiety level before and after the treatment as well as in the follow-up period. The questionnaire includes 33 items which are scored based on a Likert scale, from strongly agree (5) to strongly disagree (1). This questionnaire was also piloted prior to the treatment. It should be noted that the questionnaire was piloted before the experiment and its reliability was 0.908 .

Procedure

The PET was administered to 60 participants. Based on the results of the test, those participants who scored within one standard deviation above and below the mean were selected as a homogeneous sample, and then divided into two groups, each consisting of 18 learners. Prior to the treatment, the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale was administered to measure the participants' level of anxiety. The results were later compared and contrasted with the results and possible changes from the application of Heron's authoritative and facilitative interventions on level of learner's anxiety.

The application of the intervention, based on Heron's six-category model, comprised the most important stage of this research, i.e. the treatment. According to Heron's (2001) model, there were two main categories of intervention including authoritative and facilitative types. The authoritative domain would include 3 main sub-categories including prescriptive, informative and confronting interventions. The other major category, facilitative interventions, included cathartic, catalytic, and supportive intervention types. While many examples of each of these two main categories and their subsequent six categories could be mentioned, Heron (2001) notes that "….there is not just one way of stating an intervention: it can have many verbal forms." (p.4). He intended not to confuse an intervention with a verbal formula or a particular set of words. The reason was that an intervention was a person to person intention that could have many variations of verbal form, and the right variation depends on who those persons were and what was going on between them. However, some examples of different types of verbal interventions are as follows:

Authoritative:

Prescriptive:

I suppose we (you) need to make more sentences with this structure to completely master it.

I want you to review this part one more time
You must follow the grammar in the book
Don't you think we need to work on this for one more session?
Informative:
'*Which*' is not used to refer to humans. '*Who*' is the right choice.
I think you should have used *simple present tense* for talking about plane schedules.
It is best to use *simple present tense* when we are talking about train, plane, or subway schedules.
When you have a prior decision, use *I am going to ……*
Confronting:
Did you notice you talked about this matter three times?
How many times have I told you not to forget the 3rd person '*s*' ?!
Pay attention! One more mistake in using the tenses and you will lose 2 points!
This is ridiculous! I have talked about this structure 4 times!
Facilitative:
Cathartic:
You don't look Ok today. What is the problem?
Would you like to share your problem with us?
Don't worry. Many other learners have this problem. This is quite normal.
Your lecture seems very nice, so why are you so anxious?
Catalytic:
What would you do to solve the problem?
Tell me about the last time you had to work with a classmate whom you found particularly difficult. How did you deal with him?
My friend David has some problems with….. How would you act if you were him?
Let's see how you try to solve this problem.
Supportive:
Well done! I am really proud of you.
It sounds like you handled that in a mature and confident way.
I have noticed you are making good progress. Good job!
Wow! That was a perfect sentence. Thanks!
Having had a brief look at some sample sentences used in each type of interventions, I need to mention that the treatment took 8 sessions in each class. Since the experiment was intended to be conducted on speaking skill, the feedback delivery was primarily focused on the Heron's interventions. The feedbacks were provided during speaking practices or lectures. Teaching the course book, The American File Two, was done based on the standards of the course while feedback was delivered based on Heron's (2001) intervention analysis.

Design
This quasi-experimental study employed a pretest – treatment – posttest – delayed posttest design with an authoritative and facilitative intervention groups.

Results
This section puts forward the statistical analyses of the data along with the discussions to the findings of the study based on the research questions mentioned in part one.
PET General Language Proficiency Test
To ensure the homogeneity of participants in terms of general language proficiency, the researcher gave PET (Preliminary English test) to 60 subjects. Table 1 displays the results of descriptive statistics for the PET exam scores.
Table 1
Descriptive Statistics; PET General Language Proficiency Test

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
PET	60	59.27	14.376	206.673
KR-21	.89			

As Table 1 shows those participants who scored within one SD above and below the mean were selected as a homogeneous sample, and then divided into two groups.
Results of the Pre-test Anxiety Level Scores

To ensure the homogeneity of the participants in terms of anxiety level between the authoritative and facilitative groups before the treatment instruction, the researcher gave the anxiety questionnaire as a pretest to 36 participants. Table 2 displays the results of descriptive statistics for pre-test scores.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics of the Participants' Pretest Anxiety Scores

	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Immediate post anxiety	Authoritative group	18	98.83	17.54
	Facilitative group	18	91.89	15.05

As indicated in Table 2, the mean score of the authoritative group was 98.83 with the standard deviation of 17.54, but the mean score of the facilitative group was 91.89 with the standard deviation of 15.05. Moreover, it was necessary to check whether the participants' pretest anxiety scores had normality distribution or not, the researcher used One-sample kolmogorove-smirnov test. Table 3 shows the results of this test.

Table 3

One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test for the Participants' Pretest Anxiety Scores

		Pre anxiety
N		36
Normal Parameters[a,b]	Mean	94.64
	Std. Deviation	15.05
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.080
	Positive	.080
	Negative	-.080
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		.483
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.974

As the results taken from Table 3 showed, the p-value of .974, higher than alpha level .05 revealed that the participants' pretest anxiety scores had normality distribution. After the normality distribution assumption was met, the Independent samples t-test was used to check whether there was a significant difference in the participants' pretest anxiety scores between the authoritative and facilitative groups or not. The results of the independent samples t-test are shown in Table 4.

Table 4

Independent Samples T-test for the Participants' Pretest Anxiety Scores

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Immediate post anxiety	Equal variances assumed	.132	.719	1.275	34	.211	6.94	5.45	-4.13	18.01

Independent Samples T-test for the Participants' Pretest Anxiety Scores

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Immediate post anxiety	Equal variances assumed	.132	.719	1.275	34	.211	6.94	5.45	-4.13	18.01
	Equal variances not assumed			1.275	33.536	.211	6.94	5.45	-4.14	18.02

The findings achieved from Table 4 showed that the p-value in Levene's test for equality of variances, .719 was higher than .05. It means that the difference between the variances was non-significant and the statistics in the first row should be read. Since t(34)= 1.275, p= .211>.05, it was revealed that there was not a significant difference in the participants' pretest scores between the authoritative and facilitative groups. In other words, the participants had the same anxiety level before the treatment .

Results of the First Null Hypothesis

The first null hypothesis in the study stated that there was no significant difference between immediate posttest of learners' level of anxiety for the authoritative intervention group and facilitative intervention group.

After the treatment, the researcher distributed the anxiety questionnaire among 36 participants as the posttest once more to see whether there was a significant difference between the participants' immediate post-test of anxiety scores for the authoritative and facilitative groups or not. For this purpose, the researcher computed the descriptive statistics of the immediate post-test scores. Table 5 displays the results of descriptive statistics for the immediate post-test scores.

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics of the Participants' Immediate Post-test Anxiety Scores

	Groups of students	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Immediate post anxiety	Authoritative group	18	98.83	17.54
	Facilitative group	18	87.17	14.75

A glance at Table 5 shows that the mean score and standard deviation of the participants' immediate post-test scores in the authoritative group were 98.83 and 17.54, whereas the mean score and standard deviation of the participants' immediate post-test scores in the facilitative group were 87.17 and 14.75. In other words, it was revealed that the participants in the authoritative group were more anxious than the participants in the facilitative group.

Before embarking on the Independent samples t-test, it is not without worth to see whether the participants' immediate post-test anxiety score had normality distribution or not. The results of this test are indicated in Table 6.

Table 6

One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test for the Participants' Immediate Post-test Anxiety Scores

	Immediate post anxiety
N	36

Normal Parameters[a,b]	Mean	93.00
	Std. Deviation	17.03
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.074
	Positive	.070
	Negative	-.074
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		.446
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.989

a. Test distribution is Normal.
b. Calculated from data.

It is clear from Table 6 that the p-value of .989, higher than .05 revealed that the participants' immediate post-test anxiety scores had normality distribution. After the normality distribution assumption was met, Independent samples t-test was applied to see whether there was a significant difference between the participants' immediate post-test scores in the authoritative and facilitative groups or not. The results are demonstrated in Table 7.

Table 7
Independent Samples T-test for the Participants' Immediate Post-test Anxiety Scores

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Immediate post anxiety	Equal variances assumed	.132	.718	2.160	34	.038	11.67	5.40	.69	22.64
	Equal variances not assumed			2.160	33.027	.038	11.67	5.40	.68	22.65

With regard to the results of Table 7, the p-value in Levene's test for equality of variances yielded p-value of .718. It means that the equal variances were assumed and the results of the first row should be read. Since t (34)= 2.160, p= .038<.05, it was revealed that there was a significant difference between the participants' immediate post-test anxiety scores in the authoritative and facilitative groups. Therefore, the first null hypothesis was rejected. The answer to the first research question was affirmative.

Results of the Second Null Hypothesis

The second null hypothesis proposed that there was no significant difference between delayed posttest of learners' level of anxiety for the authoritative intervention group and facilitative intervention group.

After one month interval of the immediate post-test, the researcher again distributed the anxiety questionnaire among 36 participants to see whether the participants' scores have changed or not. The researcher computed the descriptive statistics. Table 8 signifies the results of the descriptive statistics.

Table 8
Descriptive Statistics of the Participants' Delayed Post-test Anxiety Scores

	Groups of students	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Delayed post anxiety	Authoritative group	18	98.17	18.11
	Facilitative group	18	86.39	11.84

As is illustrated in Table 8, the mean score of the participants' delayed post-test scores in the authoritative group was 98.17 with the standard deviation of 18.11, while the mean score of the participants in the facilitative group was 86.39 with the standard deviation of 11.84. It was revealed that the participants in the authoritative group were more anxious than the facilitative group in the delayed post-test, too. On the other hand, in order to examine the significance of the difference between the two mean scores, we had to run an Independent samples t-test. But before embarking on the independent samples t-test, it was necessary to check the normality of the scores distribution. Table 9 shows the results of this analysis.

Table 9

One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov-Test for the Participants' Delayed Post-test Anxiety Scores

		Delayed post anxiety
N		36
Normal Parameters[a,b]	Mean	92.28
	Std. Deviation	16.22
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.086
	Positive	.052
	Negative	-.086
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		.514
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.955

a. Test distribution is Normal.
b. Calculated from data.

Table 9 shows that the p-value of .955, higher than alpha level .05 revealed that the participants' delayed post-test anxiety scores had normality distribution. After the normality assumption was satisfied, Independent samples t-test was employed to see whether there was a significant difference between the participants' delayed post-test anxiety scores or not. The results of this test are indicated in Table 10.

Table 10

Independent Samples T-test for the Participants' Delayed Post-test Anxiety Scores

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Delayed post anxiety	Equal variances assumed	1.319	.259	2.310	34	.027	11.78	5.10	1.42	22.14
	Equal variances not assumed			2.310	29.289	.028	11.78	5.10	1.35	22.20

Based on the results taken from Table 10, the p-value in Levene's test for equal variances was .259. It means that the difference between the variances was statistically non- significant and the results of

the first row should be read. As t(34)= 2.310, p= .027, was higher than the alpha level, it was revealed that the difference between the participants' delayed post-test scores in the two groups was statistically significant and the second null hypothesis was rejected. In other words, the answer to the second research question was affirmative.

Discussion and Conclusion

The present study aimed at exploring the effect of authoritative and facilitative interventions on Iranian EFL learners' level of anxiety in the short and long runs. The findings indicated that the application of Six-Category Intervention Analysis resulted in significant decrease in the facilitative group's level of anxiety which led this group to be more anxious than the authoritative intervention group. This implies that the learners' level of anxiety is due to the kind of intervention employed by the teachers in the classroom. The findings of this research can be in line with those of the study conducted by Young's (1990) . His research with language learners suggested that teachers who used humor and created a friendly, supportive, and relaxed classroom atmosphere that encouraged risk-taking were most helpful in alleviating foreign language anxiety and facilitating learning.

The results of this study can be discussed in the light of sociocultural theory. Ellis (1999) notes that within sociocultural approach towards second language acquisition ,"interaction is the actual site of learning" (p. 21). The role of environment has been frequently highlighted in the Second Language Acquisition theories as Chaos Complexity theory (Larsen- Freeman, 1997; Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008), Dynamic system (de Bot, Lowie, & Verspoor, 2005), and Dynamic assessment (Vygotsky, 1986). In addition, meticulous catering for the nature and quality of the intervention and interaction in the classroom, i.e., the actual words and the classroom language which teachers decide to employ while managing such interactions, can be facilitated through conscious and proper use of six category Intervention Analysis (SCIA) model.

Provision of a learning atmosphere conducive to learning is a great step; language teachers can take steps to aid language learners to overcome the affective obstacles in the learning process. To achieve this end, it is recommended that teachers attempt to raise their awareness of various indirect interventions while communicating with language learners. In addition, gearing these valid interventions to the learners' individual differences can help teachers achieve long-term success in their profession.

Pedagogical Implication

The results of the current study might be beneficial for practicing teachers, ELT researchers, teacher trainers, and teacher developers. The familiarity gained in this preferred manner or through the desired type of intervention can be one of the important contributions of this research. In addition, appropriate recognition of the restraining factors which impede the learners' attempts to communicate would be of great assistance to the language learners and teacher trainers inclined to successfully tackle those problems.

In developing effective mentoring relationships, it is usual for teachers to rely more on facilitative interventions rather than on authoritative ones – to enable the mentee to develop their own solutions and autonomy. Considering WTC as a dynamic system, language teachers and teacher trainers can earn a proper recognition of momentary influences and changes which occur within an individual. In addition, familiarity with learners' preferences of the type of intervention they would like to receive could help recognize Iranian learners' attitudes towards a proper intervention, hence, decrease their level of anxiety and enhance their communication competence and language learning.

It can be concluded that, both teachers' behavior and their selected intervention could have a remarkable impact on the learners' self-reported willingness to communicate in English in their EFL classrooms. Moreover, teachers can decrease their learners' level of anxiety and facilitate their learning by adopting a supportive manner and also through being genuinely interested in their learners and their learning processes.

A number of limitations can be considered for this study. First, the number of the participants could have been larger. However, the researchers had to limit themselves to this number due to practical restrictions and the lengthy process of training. A second limitation of the present study concerns the level of the participants. This study included merely Intermediate students. Other level students were not incorporated into the study

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VARIABLES AFFECTING L2 VOCABULARY ACQUISITION AND RETENTION; CALL FOR A HOLISTIC VIEW OF L2 VOCABULARY LEARNING

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ABSTRACT
A NUMBER OF VARIABLES AND FACTORS HAVE BEEN FOUND THAT INFLUENCE L2 VOCABULARY LEARNING. YET, THE LITERATURE REMAINS TO BE INCLUSIVE. EACH THEORY OR HYPOTHESIS CLAIMS THAT IT CAN PROVIDE L2 LEARNERS WITH DUE INSIGHTS TO OVERCOME THE TASK OF LEARNING SO MANY L2 VOCABULARY ITEMS. IN THIS REVIEW PAPER, WE TOUCHED ON THE MAIN LIENS OF INQUIRY WITH RESPECT TO THE L2 LEXICAL KNOWLEDGE AND PROFICIENCY ALONG WITH THE TENETS AND UNDERLYING THEORIES OF THESE VARIABLES. AFTERWARDS, MENTION WAS MADE OF THE EMPIRICAL STUDIES ON THE ISSUES INVOLVED IN L2 VOCABULARY LEARNING. FINALLY, WE DISCUSS THE DEFICIENCIES OF THE RESEARCH INTEREST IN THE FIELD AND PROPOSE CONDUCTING A NUMBER OF META-ANALYSES TO RESOLVE THE CONFLICTING ISSUES AND DETERMINE NEW LINES OF INQUIRY FOR L2 RESEARCHERS.

KEY WORDS: L2 VOCABULARY; VOCABULARY ACQUISITION; LEXICAL PROFICIENCY; META-ANALYSIS

Introduction

Vocabulary is a necessary component of learners' development (David, 2008, Ko, 2012). It is central to reading ability, writing ability and listening ability. Clearly, word knowledge is equally crucial in all aspects of language learning (Kim, 2011; Read, 2000). In the past decade or so, there has been a burgeoning interest in the nature of vocabulary knowledge and its acquisition (Hamada & Koda, 2008; Kim, 2011; Min, 2008). Because word knowledge is the by-product of certain psycholinguistic processes involving recognition, production, and memory of linguistic information, there is a serious need for a pedagogically effective model showing how this knowledge is best acquired, retained, and accessed (Hamada & Koda, 2008). Second-language learners often see L2 vocabulary learning as the greatest source of problems (David, 2008). Moreover, lexical errors are judged by native speakers to be more serious and to impede comprehension more than grammatical errors (Schmitt, 2000).

Although a great number of factors contributing to the acquisition of L2 words have been investigated by SLA researchers and scholars; the overall picture is too blurred and fuzzy to achieve a comprehensive and clear view of the whole picture underlying the nature of L2 vocabulary acquisition and mechanisms governing it. With this in mind, in what follows, the literature on a number of the factors and variables affecting L2 vocabulary acquisition will be illustrated in details in order to portray how the multiplicity of the factors would prevent us from observing the realities related to L2 lexical acquisition.

Review of the Literature

Incidental Vs. intentional Vocabulary Acquisition

Nagi and his colleagues evolved a theory which was widely quoted in L1 and L2 acquisition. According to this theory incidental vocabulary learning is a gradual process in which gains are made in small increments with repeated encounters needed to gain full knowledge of a word (Nagy et al. 1985; Nagy et al. 1987). A number of studies have been conducted on the issue of on incidental word

learning from listening (Barcroft and Sommers, 2005; Mason & Krashen, 2004; Vidal, 2003). The questions of how new L2 words are learned incidentally and what factors affect this learning are key in building our understanding of L2 lexical development from reading (Elgort & warren, 2014).

In intentional learning, on the other hand, learners try to commit new information to memory by using strategies, such as mnemonic devices (Paradis, 1994). In other words, intentional learning is a learning vocabulary out of context by using, for instance, word lists or word cards. A number of researchers (e.g. Ellis, 2008; Laufer, 2005) argued that naturalistic usage-based learning is insufficient to acquire L2 vocabulary and needs to be supplemented by deliberate form-focused learning (Hulstijn, 2003; Nation, 2007). Deliberate learning (DL) provides an efficient and convenient way of memorizing vocabulary. Learning from word lists and flashcards can be done outside of the language classroom and target vocabulary can be personalized to the needs and learning goals of individual learners (Elgort, 2010). Deliberate vocabulary learning is the attempt to intentionally commit new words to memory (Hulstijn, 2003). Furthermore, retention rates under intentional learning are on average, much higher than under incidental conditions (Hulstijn, 2003). The findings of Elgort (2010) provided evidence that deliberate learning triggered the acquisition of representational and functional aspects of vocabulary knowledge. The benefits of vocabulary-list learning are to gain not only receptive vocabulary knowledge, but also productive vocabulary knowledge as well as to increase learners' breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge (Yamamoto ,2013). The explicit teaching of contextualized lexical word items has been claimed to be superior to word learning that occurs as a by-product of second language (L2) use during listening or reading (Barcroft, 2009; Sonbul and Schmitt, 2010**)**. It is also asserted that classroom time is typically far too restricted to provide sufficient opportunities for intentional word learning (Hunt & Beglar, 2005; Schmitt, 2008).

Lexical Inferencing

Research indicates that lexical inferencing, or guessing the meaning of an unfamiliar word, is the main strategy learners use in initial comprehension of unfamiliar words while reading (Paribakht, 2005; Paribakht &Wesche, 1999). Factors affecting the type and success of students' inferencing of unfamiliar words in reading comprehension tasks have been worthwhile line of inquiry in the literature on second language vocabulary acquisition (Nassaji, 2004; Paribakht, 2005).

Over the past decades, researchers have spent considerable amount of time theorizing and exploring what successful language learners do and what strategies they employ in the process of acquiring a second language (Hu & Nassaji, 2014). Recently, there has been an increased research interest in the infenceing strategies of L2 learners and factors affecting the use and success of them (Hu & Nassaji, 2012 ; Nassaji, 2003, 2004; Nassaji & Hu, 2012; Paribakht & Wesche, 1999; Wesche & paribakht, 2010). Research also indicated that lexical inferencing was widely used by L2 learners when dealing with unknown words in their reading (Paribakht & Wesche, 1999; Parry, 1993). Lexical inferencing has also been found to be closely associated with incidental vocabulary learning (Nagi, 1997).

In contrast, a number of researchers (e.g., Coady, 1993; Stein, 1993) claim that inferring word meaning from context is often an unreliable method of vocabulary learning. For instance, Ko (2012) argues that due to their lack of vocabulary knowledge or proficiency level, L2 learners cannot make intelligent guesses. In the same manner, Nagy (1997) believes that learners must know the majority of the vocabulary in any text to be able to guess the meanings of unknown words successfully. As stated by Ko (2012), guessing unknown words would be more problematic in the case of L2 beginners whose overall L2 knowledge is limited.

Research (Nassaji, 2004; Wesche & Paribakht, 2010) has also found that learners' knowledge of effective strategy use is a determining factor for learners' vocabulary learning success. To sum up, Nassaji and Hu (2012) concluded that task-induced involvement had significant effects on the use of lexical inferencing strategies and word retention.

Involvement Load Hypothesis

Another line of inquiry regarding L2 vocabulary acquisition that has attracted much research interest is the notion of *Involvement Load Hypothesis* (Laufer &Hulstijin, 2001).Having acknowledged the significance of the notions of *depth of processing* (Craik& Lockhart, 1972) and *elaboration* (Craik &Tulving, 1975), Laufer and Hulstignin (2001) formulated Involvement Load Hypothesis. Actually, the development of the construct of "involvement load" was an attempt to operationalize the two general cognitive notions, i.e., *depth of processing and elaboration*. By *depth of processing*, Craik and Lockhart (1972) argue that the chance of a piece of new information being stored into long-term

memory is not determined by the duration of the time it is held in short-term memory, but rather, by the shallowness or depth with which it is processed initially. Put it another way, the information that is processed at a deeper level has the higher chance of retention compared with the information that goes through a shallower processing. For example, processing the meaning of an unfamiliar word happens at a deep level, whereas processing the phonological form of a lexical item takes places at a shallow level. According to the hypothesis, a greater depth implies a greater degree of semantic or cognitive analysis of the new word (Kim, 2011). Notwithstanding, criticisms levelled at Craik and Lockhart's notion due to the difficulty of operationalizing different levels of processing (Baddely, 1987; Craik &Tulving, 1975). Along the same line, Criak and Tulwing (1975) contented that what is essential to retention of lexical items is not simply the presence or absence of semantic encoding but also the richness with which the material is encoded (i. e. elaboration of encoding) . Additionally, Hulstijin and Laufer (2001) contended that the concepts of deep processing or elaboration are hard to formalize and operationalize.

There have been a number of studies that empirically investigated the predictions of the *involvement load hypothesis* (Keating, 2008; Kim, 2008, 2011; Nassaji & Hu, 2012). The findings of (Nassaji & Hu, 2012) gave countenance to the predictions of *involvement load hypothesis* of Hulstijn and Laufer (2001). Finally, Nassaji and Hu (2012) concluded that the high involvement load text led to significantly higher rates of retention of word meanings that were inferred correctly. Additionally, Nassaji and Hu (2012) suggested that there may be many factors influencing an apparent involvement load, including the types of linguistic and contextual clues in the text, participants' learning strategies, their background knowledge as well as their language proficiency. They further suggest the future research should investigate the effects of the mediating factors and their relationship with retention of vocabulary. More recently, the results of Huang's meta-analysis (2010) supported the involvement load hypothesis that language learners who perform a task with a higher extent of involvement load gain more L2 vocabulary.

Learning L2 Words from Reading and Context

There has been a plethora of research studies on the issue of how to acquire L2 lexical items from reading and context (Laufer, 1997; Paribakht and Wesche ,1997 Qian, , 1999 ; Zahar, et al, 2001). It has been shown that reading is a powerful source of vocabulary acquisition for second and foreign English language learners .Research also indicates that vocabulary knowledge contributes significantly to learners' reading comprehension (Hu & Nassaji, 2014). Moreover, several research findings (Hulstijn, 1992; Nagy, 1997; Zahar et al., 2001) supported the idea that language learners acquire second language vocabulary from reading.

For example, studies investigating the role of vocabulary knowledge in reading have found that while measures of size of vocabulary knowledge are strongly related to the reader's understanding of texts (Laufer, 1997; Qian, 1999), measures examining aspects of depth of vocabulary knowledge make a stronger contribution to reading performance than those that simply measure a single definition of a word (Nassaji, 2004). The literature also suggests that when vocabulary items are read in context, features common to the words and their surrounding linguistic context are accessed in memory (Corrigan, 2007).

Bolger & Zapata (2011) point out that the ample body of research in the area of L2 vocabulary and context and the latter's key role in L2 pedagogy, particularly in the currently popular communicative approach, reflect the importance that the fields of L2 acquisition and pedagogy bestow upon context. The questions of how new L2 words are learned incidentally and what factors affect this learning are key in building our understanding of L2 lexical development from reading (Elgort & warren, 2014).

In the same way, Laufer (1997), Paribakht and Wesche (1999), and Frantzen (2003) have found that difficult and/or ambiguous contexts can hinder students ability to accurately guess and recall word meanings; that is, in order for con-text to facilitate learning, it has to be transparent enough to provide students with a clear semantic environment and cues for them to accurately infer and learn the meaning of the word.

Other studies have shown that context can also promote vocabulary learning when accompanied by other techniques such as L1 sentence translations (Grace, 1998; Prince, 1996), a multiple-choice procedure (Hulstjin, 1992). Notwithstanding, other researchers (e.g., Huckin & Bloch, 1993; Kelly, 1990; Parry, 1993) have found negative effects in the use of context for L2 vocabulary learning and they have questioned its value as a pedagogical tool. To conclude, as it was mentioned by Bolger and Zapata, (2011), studies on the role of context have yielded mixed results.

Repeated Exposure to L2 vocabulary Items

It is generally accepted that the degree of word knowledge is related to the number of word occurrences (Brown, et at, 2008; Warning & Takaki, 2003; Zahar et al., 2001). Research on incidental second language (L2) vocabulary acquisition through reading has claimed that repeated encounters with unfamiliar words and the relative elaboration of processing these words facilitate word learning (Eckerth & Tavakoli, 2012). Research has also shown that theme-related texts, which allow for repetition of unknown vocabulary in varied contexts, provide favorable conditions for teaching (Nation, 2001).

Studies on word exposure frequency during extensive reading (e.g. Horst et al., 1998 Zahar et al., 2001), taken together, provide considerable evidence for the positive effects of word repetition on incidental word learning. For example, Eckerth and Tavakoli (2012) suggested that processing words again after reading (input–output cycles) is superior to reading-only tasks. There is some research (Laufer & Roitblat-Rozovski 2011; Webb, 2005) that shows fewer exposures are necessary when words appear in demanding word-focused activities (Cited in Laufer, 2011).

Similarly, Eckerth and Tavakoli (2012) showed that receptive and productive word knowledge gains can take place incidentally through reading, and that incidental word learning and retention can be contingent upon both word *exposure frequ*ency, and *elaboration of word processing*. In an experimental study, Rott (1999) examined how two, four, and six encounters affected incidental gains in knowledge of meaning. Two vocabulary tests (recognition and production) were employed, in this study, to measure different levels of word learning. Her results showed that two encounters with unknown words produced significant gains, and that six encounters produced significantly greater gains than two or four encounters.

Heidari and Tavakoli (2012) suggested that in order to develop a full knowledge of vocabulary, generally speaking more than 7– even 10 – appear to be required. They believe that this can be achieved both through narrow reading (mainly focusing on a single topic) or extensive reading (using a variety of appropriate texts). Most vocabulary learning requires repeated exposures to the item (Elley, 1989; Rott, 1999). Research findings have also shown that a single exposure can provide L1 school children with substantial information about a new word (Nagy, Anderson, & Herman, 1987), provided that it is not a conceptually difficult term. Rott (1999) found a positive effect for frequency of exposure during L2 incidental reading and partly attributed the students' gains. In the same manner, Laufer and Rozovoski-Roitblat (2011) studied how long-term retention of target words was affected by task type, number of word occurrences in the teaching materials and the combination of the two factors. In this study, the participants exposed to 60 target words. Two unannounced tests, passive recall and passive recognition, were conducted. The results showed that Task type effect was superior to the effect of word occurrence in recall only. In a recent study, Eckerth and Tavakoli (2012) investigated the differential effects of the 'word exposure frequency' and 'elaboration of word processing' on the initial word learning and subsequent word retention of advanced learners of L2 English. The Results showed equal effects for both variables on initial word learning, subsequent word retention was more contingent on elaborate processing of form–meaning relationships than on word frequency.

Glossing

Gloss in L2 reading refers to providing a short definition or explanation of important words in a text (Bowles, 2004; Nation, 2001). Traditionally, a 'gloss' refers to short definitions or explanations of the meanings of words at the bottom or sides of a text in order to support learners' reading comprehension (Pak, 1986; Lomicka, 1998).

Glossing has been argued to help vocabulary learning and assist reading comprehension (Ko, 2012). A number of studies have provided evidence that glosses are effective in helping learners learn new lexical items in a second language (Bowles, 2004; Cheng & Good, 2009). For example, the results of (Ko, 2012) indicated that glossing had a positive effect on L2 vocabulary learning. Additionally, Zhang (2007) showed that in terms of vocabulary gains, the provision of marginal glosses was the more beneficial than the availability of dictionary and non-dictionary use. The results of (Ko, 2012) also demonstrated that there would be a significant difference between gloss and no-gloss groups with respect to gaining word meaning.

Different advantages have been put forward for the using of glossing in L2 vocabulary learning. For example, Nation (2001) enumerated four advantages for glassing: First, learners can read difficult texts without simplification or adaptation. Second, providing accurate meanings prevents learners

from guessing incorrectly, which should facilitate vocabulary learning and comprehension. Third, glossing does not seriously interrupt the reading process and it is less time-consuming than dictionary use. Fourth, learners may focus on glossed words, which may encourage learning. In the same vein, Ko (2012) advocates the use of glossing where he points out that by providing additional information such as definitions or synonyms, glossing helps students cope with insufficient contextual cues in learning new words while reading. Moreover, Ko (2012) believes that glossing is one type of input modification.

Researchers (Hulstijn, 1992; Hulstijn et al., 1996; Watanabe, 1997) have also found that glosses facilitate second-language learners' vocabulary growth. Research has further indicated that language learners with access to marginal vocabulary glosses demonstrate greater vocabulary growth than those without glosses (Hulstijn, 1992; Hulstijn, et al., 1996; Watanabe ,1997). According to Nation (2001), textual glosses help language learners consolidate knowledge of unknown words. Hulstijn (1992) proposed the use of multiple-choice glosses, which combine the advantages of inference with single glosses because they reduce the challenges imposed by insufficient context and the possibility of inaccurate inferences.

More recently, Yousefi & Biria (2015) investigated the efficacy of two types of glossing; marginal glosses vs. endnotes. The study highlighted the beneficial effects for endnote glossing in both immediate and delayed posttest. Yousefi & Biria (2015) argued that students in endnote group outperformed those in marginal gloss group (both in immediate and delayed posttest) highlight the fact that participants in endnote group involved in a wide range of mental tasks, e.g, making inferences, selective attention, establishing links between the meanings of the target words in the text and examples provided at the end of the reading comprehension task.

The Most Effective Variables?

We touched upon the variables and factors that have been investigated widely in the literature on L2 vocabulary acquisition. The literature is evolving but inconclusive. One way to gain a holistic picture of the phenomenon under study and find definite answers to the conflicting findings is to conduct meta-analysis.

Ellis (2010) posits that Meta-analysis, literally the statistical analysis of statistical analyses, describes a set of procedures for systematically reviewing the research examining a particular effect, and combining the results of independent studies to estimate the size of the effect in the population. Recently, meta-analysis has been described more broadly as a research synthesis method with the aim of estimating an average association across studies and to explore the degree and sources of heterogeneity (Sutton & Higgs, 2008).

As stated by Ellis (2010), meta-analysis completely ignores the conclusions made by others researchers and looks instead at the effects that have been observed. The aim is to combine these independent observations into an average effect size and draw an overall conclusion regarding the direction and magnitude of real-world effects.

In advocacy of conducting meta-analyses, Bangert-Drowns (1986, p. 398) stated: Meta-analysis is not a fad. It is rooted in the fundamental values of the scientific enterprise replicability, quantification, causal and correlational analysis. Valuable information is needlessly scattered in individual studies. The ability of social scientists to deliver generalizable answers to basic questions of policy is too serious a concern to allow us to treat research integration lightly. The potential benefits of meta-analysis method seem enormous.

Conclusion

L2 learners encounter a demanding task of acquiring so many vocabularies essential for a successful communication and reasonable comprehension, both in spoken and written modes of language. Considering the research findings so far, the best method or approach was not without contention. Each theory and hypothesis, focusing only on one dimension or a specific factor, was not able to shed illuminating light on the issue. Given the fact that lexicon plays vital role in the ultimate acquisition of a second language, the issue deserves much more research attention than before.

The variables and factors that have been investigated widely in the literature on L2 vocabulary acquisition has been touched on. The literature is evolving but inconclusive. Answers to the fundamental questions on L2 vocabulary learning, psychological mechanisms underlying it and the most cost-effective techniques of L2 vocabulary teaching continue to elude the profession. We

proposed that more meta-analyses should be conducted with respect to the L2 vocabulary learning. Such meta-analyses can provide both SLA researchers and language teachers with the most effective techniques of L2 vocabulary teaching and determiner new lines of inquiry into the nature of L2 vocabulary learning and teaching. As Hamada and Koda (2008) stated; there is a serious need for a pedagogically effective model showing how l2 vocabulary knowledge is best acquired, retained, and accessed .such model, we believe that, can provide language teachers and syllabus designers with the most effective techniques of L2 vocabulary teaching .

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ON THE EFFECTS OF TEACHERS' EMPLOYMENT OF CODE SWITCHING ON IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS' VOCABULARY RETENTION AND MOTIVATION

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ABSTRACT
THE MAIN AIM OF THIS STUDY IS TO PROVIDE A SOCIOLINGUISTICS INVESTIGATION OF CODE SWITCHING BEHAVIOR IN ENGLISH /PERSIAN CLASSROOMS IN MASHHAD. THERE ARE MYRIAD FUNCTIONS FOR CODE SWITCHING ON DOMAIN OF NEW VOCABULARY RETENTION AND STUDENTS' MOTIVATION. THIS STUDY IS CONDUCTED WITH THE POOL OF 50 FEMALE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS. DATA FROM MOTIVATION SCALE DIVIDE TO INTRINSIC AND EXTRINSIC SECTIONS. THE ANALYSIS OF THE RESULTS REVEALS THAT THERE IS A SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE BETWEEN CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL EXTRINSIC MOTIVATION GROUPS REGARDING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF CODE SWITCHING ON STUDENTS' EXTRINSIC MOTIVATION. ADDITIONALLY, INDEPENDENT T-TEST RESULTS REVEAL THAT THERE IS A SIGNIFICANT IMPROVEMENT FOR THE ACCEPTANCE RATES BY THE PARTICIPANTS IN THE DELAYED VOCABULARY TEST IN POST INSTRUCTION. THE RESULTS SUGGESTED THAT STUDENTS AT THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP COULD KEEP THE MEANING OF NEW VOCABULARY FOR A LONG TIME IN THEIR MIND COMPARED TO STUDENTS AT THE CONTROL GROUP. THEREFORE, APPLICATION OF THE DIGLOT WEAVES TEACHING CAUSES THE REINFORCEMENT OF THE SUBJECTS` VOCABULARY RETENTION.

KEY WORDS: CODE SWITCHING, VOCABULARY RETENTION, INTRINSIC AND EXTRINSIC MOTIVATION

1. Introduction

English is known as a common language among foreign language speakers, and the educators attempt to improve learners` knowledge in this issue. To achieve this purpose, the scholars attempt to explore appropriate methods in which students' listening, speaking, reading and writing abilities can be improved. Beheydt, (1987) believed that vocabulary learning plays a vital role in using a language, but the importance of learning vocabulary was disregarded for a long time. Investigators consider learning vocabulary as an important aspect of language learning among students. Therefore, during the last decades, the vocabulary has moved from the environs into a focal situation. Educators like (Low, & Lu, 2006) attempt to improve learners' vocabulary knowledge considering different ways in the language learning process. Low and Lu (2006) substitute a word in another

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language and suggest that there is no direct translation of words between two languages and using code switching also causes easing tension and injecting humor into conversations. Therefore, it helps students to improve their learning as cited in (Alenezi, 2010). According to Nemati and Maleki (2013) the appropriateness technique in code switching is the diglot weave which is believed to assist language teachers in teaching target language vocabulary in EFL classes. They stated that, Diglot weave involves utilize of an L2 word in an L1 utterance; this exclusive technique calmly weaves the new language into the student's language. Mehrabi, (2011) investigates the effect of code switching techniques in improving learners` comprehension, motivation, and considers diglot weave as one of the effective techniques in improving their learning and the result shows that applying this technique improves learners `comprehension and increases their confidence and motivation. Based on these investigations, there are many teachers who insist on using a foreign language in any occasion without paying attention to the learner's level and the subject and that is one of the problematic issues today (Baker, 2006; Alenezai, 2010). Therefore, the purpose of this study is to discover the effect of using techniques of code switching to enhance the learners' ability in learning and keeping the meaning of new words in the classroom for a long time. Also, the effect of teaching new words through diglot weave technique on learners` motivation is examined and to achieve this purpose a Gardner's motivation questionnaire is used.

1.1. Research Questions

To address the objectives of the study, the following research questions are considered:

Q1: To what extent employing code switching have any significant effect on Iranian EFL learners' vocabulary retention?

Q2: To what extent employing code switching have any significant effect on Iranian EFL learners' motivation?

2. Review of the Literature:

Myers- Scotton, (1993) defined code switching as the use of two or more languages in the same conversation, commonly within the same conversational turn, or even within the same sentence of that turn as cited in (Omondi, 2012). Employing code switching in the multi lingual classroom as a teaching and learning strategy has been subjected to only limited attention. There are some reasons for limitation in use of code switching in different contexts, as (Aguirre, 1988) who declares that the study of code-switching as a classroom teaching and learning strategy has been plagued with problems from the perceptual complication of code-switching. According to Gross (2006), code-switching is a compound, skilled linguistic strategy used by bilingual speakers to transmit important social meanings beyond the referential content of an utterance; In other words, code switching is a result of language adaptation in different situations. When you switch codes in fact, you integrate two languages in your utterance that go beyond lexical borrowing, and speakers at the same context, attempt to alternate between two languages (as cited in Farahlexis, 2009).

According to Begum and Haque (2013), when you change language intentionally because of specific purposes, that means you code-switch. Whenever, you insert a piece of word other than that of your language and you don't have any specific purpose it means you code-mix. Researchers consider many investigations to clarify the importance of code switching as Kim and Rezaeian(2009)who assume that code switching refers to use of two or more languages within the same sentence (intra sensational) or across sentence boundaries (inter sensational).

There is an example of different code switching in this section (Farsi –English).

It's a big mistake keaz Vancouver adam move-kon-e.

'It's a big mistake to move from Vancouver.'

2.1. Vocabulary Retention

Vocabulary knowledge is essential for having good reading comprehension and it shows the readers` ability to comprehend the text. Students who have enough vocabulary knowledge can grasp the meaning of new ideas and concepts more rapidly than the students with limited vocabularies. Retention of a word refers to retrieval of a lexical entrance from the lexicon, including stored information about a word's form and its meaning (Vafaei, 2013). There are many techniques and strategies to reinforce the meaning of new words in learners` mind, and integration of any of these

strategies with other techniques are investigated through making learners more familiar with these strategies.

Mehrabi (2008) maintained that using the diglot weave techniques to introduce L2 vocabulary could be an effective technique which could aid vocabulary learning (as cited in Vosoughi, 2012). The usage of vocabulary retention techniques among Thai students was examined by Jenpattarakul (2012). He compared the usage of vocabulary retention techniques between achievers and underachievers. The result of the study would help the teachers to improve the process and material for teaching and learning vocabulary retention techniques and raise awareness of vocabulary retention techniques among the learners in order to enhance the students' lexical ability which could lead to improve the learner's reading comprehension importance of Motivation in Learning Language.

2.2. Importance of Motivation in Learning Language

The concept of intrinsic vs. extrinsic motivation is defined by Bernard (2010) who considered intrinsic motivation, based on autonomy and competence, as a situation in which material is engaged for its inherent interest and satisfaction. An example for this type of motivation would be a person who enjoys learning a language because new concepts are mastered or because of the inborn interest and happiness associated with learning the language. Extrinsically motivated activities, on the other side, are engaged in order to perform some aims that are separated from the activity itself. For example, a person who wishes to learn a language believe it will make travel easier and more enjoyable (Bernard, 2010).

Bernard (2010) declares that motivation and attitudes have direct relationship with each other and learner's positive attitudes towards native language speakers could improve her/his motivation. As clarified by Gardner (2001), integrative motivation is one of two major factors that influence overall motivation. This type of motivation refers to learning a foreign language in order to become adjacent to the L2 community. An integrative orientation is most closely correlated with intrinsic motivation (Noels, Clément & Pelletier, 2001).

In different studies done by many researchers, the impacts of code switching were reviewed from different aspects. But, the effects of code switching techniques as diglot weave on EFL learners` vocabulary retention and their attitudes towards code switching were not surveyed. Therefore, the aim of the study is to investigate the effect of employing code switching techniques on participants` vocabulary retention, motivation and attitudes.

3. Methodology

The current study is principally designed to observe how employing code switching techniques as diglot weave have affected on learners` motivation. Also, the teacher employs diglot weave technique through teaching new vocabulary into experimental and control groups which shows students` success to keep the meaning of new words in their minds. The researcher compares the sample of two groups from week 1 to week 5. Data are collected and the results are obtained based on the observation and comparison of learners` vocabulary retention after two weeks interval.

3.1. Participants

The learners who were the focus in the survey were all 8th grade female Iranian students in two groups at a public school in Mashhad, Iran. They were randomly assigned into two experimental and control groups, with 25 students in each, from 13 to 15 years of age.

3.2. Instrumentation

Cambridge Key English Test (KET): Cambridge ESOL exams like KET was designed around four essential qualities: validity, reliability, impact and practicality. This instrument was used as a reliable and valid test for the selection of 50 participants out of 90 learners. The KR-21 reliability of the test was found 0.78. In order to test the participants' performance in language proficiency, the vocabulary test (KET) that included 30 vocabulary items was administered as homogenizing test among participants. The test was developed in a multiple-choice format and consists of 30 items and the time allocated for the test was 30 minutes and one mark for each correct answer was considered.

Gardner's Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB): The Persian version of Gardner's AMTS was used; in this survey a modifying questionnaire that included 25 items of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation sections was utilized by (Dordi-nezhad, 2015). Regarding, the results Dordi-nezhad (2015)

declared that this scale had appropriate validity and reliability. The survey adapted from the AMTB was structured with several statements on a five-point Liket scale. The questionnaire included four sections as attitudes towards English language, (10 items), classroom anxiety (5 items), intrinsic motivation (12 items), and extrinsic motivation (13 items).

Researcher – Made Vocabulary Test: The participants took a 40-item vocabulary test. The items of the vocabulary test were taken from the book which students studied during the term. To achieve the validity and reliability of the test, it was piloted by a group of 20 participants. The reliability of the test was of 0.75, it was obtained through KR20. Also, two experts evaluated the test content and face validity.

3.3. Procedure

The process of data collection was conducted at a public school in Mashhad. The KET as a homogenizing test was administered among 90 participants and50 out of 90 students. Participants who achieved a particular score on the test were randomly assigned to experimental and control groups. The Motivation Test Battery (MTB) was administered to the students in control and experimental groups and their scores at pre and post-instruction sessions were recorded. The teacher-made test was administrated as a pre- test to make sure that the participants were unfamiliar with words. The study lasted for 15 sessions in 5 weeks and the time allocated for each session was 90 minutes. The teacher asked the students of the control group to read new words and repeat them loudly and make some sentences with new words in the group and they didn`t receive any treatment. In contrast, in experimental group diglot weave as a new technique of code switching in teaching new vocabulary was used and weaves new target words gradually into the 1st language to assist the learner to make sense of the word. Then more L1 words were replaced with target words. At the end of the semester, the test was administrated for two times as immediate-posttest and a delayed – posttest with 2 weeks interval after the immediate -posttest to find out to what extent the participants were succeeded to keep the meaning of the target words in their minds.

4. Results and Discussions

To assure the appropriateness of the test, its reliability and validity as explained below was evaluated. Researcher -made test totally includes 40 items that are designed based on the students` book (Prospect 2). The reliability of the test is obtained through KR20 formula and the result shows a score 0.750 that revealing a high reliability of the test. Descriptive statistics are calculated for the scales and sub-scales of the study that are shown in table 1.

Table 1
Descriptive Statistics of Motivation and Vocabulary at Experimental & Control groups

	Group	N	Mean	Minimum	Maximum
Pretest voc	experimental	25	16.6800	9.00	29.00
	control	25	16.2800	7.00	34.00
Posttest voc	experimental	25	25.9200	13.00	34.00
	control	25	23.7600	11.00	35.00
Delayed test voc	experimental	25	25.2000	13.00	34.00
	control	25	20.1600	11.00	35.00

Table 2
Independent Samples Test- Post Intrinsic Motivation

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig.
Equal variances assumed	.001	.973	.194	48	.847

Table 2
Independent Samples Test- Post Intrinsic Motivation

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig.
Equal variances assumed	.001	.973	.194	48	.847
Equal variances not assumed			.194	47.99	.847

Findings Related to Motivation Test: Post intrinsic motivation between two groups as experimental and control groups is examined. The *p* value is greater than 0.05, the first line of the table 2 shows that there is no significant difference in scores for experimental groups (M =45.50, SD= 6.59) and the control group (M=45.20, SD=6.53; t (48) = .194, p = .847, two tailed).

Table 3.
Independent Samples Test- Post Extrinsic Motivation

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig.
Equal variances assumed	.001	.980	4.34	48	.000
Equal variances not assumed			4.34	46.96	.000

The analysis of the data in this part shows that the significance of the Levene`s test with p = .980 and to interpret results the first line of the table 3. is used and it explores that there is a significant difference in scores for experimental groups (M= 62.76, SD=7.65) and control group with (M= 54.00, SD=6.57; t (48) = 4.34, p = .000, two tailed).

Table 4
Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
3.127	5	144	.080

Finding Related to Vocabulary Test: Descriptive statistic results at the control group at pretest time and delayed test time has been (M=16.28, SD=7.82; M=20.16, SD=5.08) and it shows participants` scores in experimental group between the same tests as pretest and delayed test with (M=16.68, SD=5.66; M=25.16, SD =5.04) has more improvement in process of learning rather control group. It declares our treatment among participants of experimental group has significant effect on their learning and retention the meaning of new words.
Table 4 examined the homogeneity of variances and the Levene's test check the assumption of the variances of the six groups. The results shows that he Levene's test is not significant; F (5, 144) = 3.127, p = .080 – at the .05 alpha level for our subjects. Thus, the assumption of homogeneity of variance is met for this sample.

To determine whether there are any significant differences between the means of two or more independent Analysis of Variance is used. The sig. value is .000 and that is less than .05 and it shows there is a statistically significant difference between our six conditions and there is a statistically significant difference between groups as determined by one-way ANOVA F (5, 144) = 10.717, p = .000.

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) Between Six Groups of Vocabulary Test

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.

Between Groups	1750.593	5	350.119	10.717	.000
Within Groups	4704.240	144	32.668		
Total	6454.833	149			

4.1. Discussion

Quantitative data is gathered through a motivation questionnaire and vocabulary learning tasks. Based on the results, it can be deducted that using diglot weave as a technique to introduce L2 words can be an effective and facilitative way to improve vocabulary learning process. While many researchers as Thomas (2001) believe that much of EFL vocabulary is acquired incidentally when reading for gist and learning in this way is undesirable. After the analysis of the results, there is no significant difference between our two groups (experimental and control) at pre-test and immediate-test. But the result at third stage (delayed-test) reveals different consequences. The delayed-test is performed with two weeks interval after the immediate-test. The mean score of the delayed-test at experimental group is M = 25.20 and the mean at control group is M = 20.16. And the difference between the delayed-tests of the groups is significant at p= .001.
Also, the students` extrinsic motivation mean at the pre-instruction session is 47.60 and their motivation increases to 54.00 at the post-instruction session. The results declare that employing new techniques has statistically significant effects on participants` extrinsic motivation at experimental group with p = .000. In contrast, in control group, there is no statistically significant difference in participants` intrinsic and extrinsic motivation during the term. According to Deci and Ryan (2000), extrinsic motivation refers to the situation when somebody asks you to do something. Therefore it can be concluded that increase the extrinsic motivation in the process of teaching relevant to the application of new techniques.

5. Conclusion
The fundamental findings of the research were summarized, and followed by a consideration of its contributions to methodology, and research, as well as pedagogical implications for EFL students and teachers. The importance of the current study was on investigating the effect of code switching on Iranian junior high school students` vocabulary retention.
The following conclusions are drawn:
Participants at experimental group benefited from employing code switching in the classroom on their vocabulary retention. The new words are taught to the experimental group using the diglot-weave technique, while the same words are taught to the ones in the control group. Students at both groups have the same achievements at immediate test, but the students at experimental group have significant changes in their scores at delayed test.
The impact of the treatments on intrinsic and extrinsic motivation is considered, and the results show that the treatment in experimental group has significant effect on students` extrinsic motivation, but there isn`t significant difference on participants' intrinsic motivation in control and experimental groups. Findings of the research reveal using diglot weave technique provides improvements in the process of learning vocabulary. And it can be more effective to improve participant's extrinsic motivation towards learning English as a foreign language.
5.1. Suggestions for Further Research: the purpose of the current study is to investigate the effect of code switching on learners vocabulary retention and their motivation. The effect of students` attitudes on code switching is ignored, it is recommended to add this variable for further analysis. Increasing the number of participants will broaden replication of the study to include and expanded view of teaching and learning process. The current study is restricted to females' participants and didn't provide insight into males` participants. Comparing the results from both genders may provide additional insight into vocabulary retention process and their motivation.

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Appendix A

پرسشنامه انگیزش

در این پرسشنامه 25 جمله نوشته شده است . شما هر جمله را به دقت بخوانید و اگر در مورد شما صادق است در ستون "کاملا موافق" ،"موافق"،"بیطرف"،مخالف"و"کاملا مخالف"ضربدر بزنید . به خاطر داشته باشید که باید عقاید واقعی خودتان را ذکر کنید و هیچ سوالی را بدون جواب نگذارید.

کاملا مخالف	مخالف	بیطرف	موافق	کاملا موافق	
					به من اجازه می دهد با مردم دیگری که انگلیسی صحبت می کنند راحت تر باشم.
					به من اجازه می دهد که افراد متفاوتی را ملاقات کرده و با انها گفتگو کنم.
					مرا قادر می سازد که از هنر و ادبیات انگلیسی درک وفهم بیشتری داشته باشم.
					قادر خواهم بود در فعالیتهای گروههای فرهنگی خارجی آزادانه تر شرکت کنم.
					مرا قادرمی سازد موسیقی پاپ انگلیسی را بهتر درک کنم.
					هر چه بیشترانگلیسی زبانهای بومی را بیشتر بشناسم، آنها را بیشتر دوست خواهم داشت.
					فراگیری زبان انگلیسی برای من اهمیت خواهد داشت.
					می توانم با دوستان و آشنایان خارجی خود ارتباط داشته باشم.
					دوست دارم در مورد افرادی که زبان مادری انها انگلیسی است بیشتر بدانم.
					انگلیسی ها مهربان و دوست داشتنی هستند.
					آمریکایی ها مهربان و شاد هستند.
					من به انگلیسی برای رسیدن به اهداف شغلی اینده ام نیاز دارم.
					مرا فردی آگاه تر می سازد.
					روزی برای پیدا کردن شغل خوب مورد نیاز می شود.
					اگر انگلیسی بلد باشم دیگران به من احترام بیشتری خواهند گذاشت.
					قادر خواهم بود اطلاعات و مطالب انگلیسی را در اینترنت جستجو کنم.
					من در مورد مسائل روز دنیا آگاه تر و خواهم شد.
					به من احساس موفقیت می دهد.
					یاد گیری زبان معمولا مرا شاد می کند.
					یک فرد تحصیل کرده باید بتواند به انگلیسی صحبت کند.
					میتوانم فیلم ها،ویدئوها وبرنامه های رادیو و تلویزیون به زبان انگلیسی را بفهمم.
					می توانم کتابهای انگلیسی را بخوانم.
					مرا قادر می سازد تا مردم کشورهای مختلف را بشناسم.
					بدون آن در هیچ زمینه ای موفق نخواهم شد.

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THE IMPACT OF ANTICIPATION GUIDES AS PRE-READING ACTIVITIES ON IRANIAN INTERMEDIATE EFL LEARNERS' READING COMPREHENSION ABILITY

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ABSTRACT
THIS STUDY INVESTIGATED THE EFFECTS OF ANTICIPATION GUIDES ON IRANIAN INTERMEDIATE EFL LEARNERS' READING COMPREHENSION ABILITY. FIRST, INTERCHANGE OBJECTIVE PLACEMENT TEST WAS ADMINISTERED TO HOMOGENIZE THE PARTICIPANTS WHEREBY 60 PARTICIPANTS WERE SELECTED. THEY WERE THEN DIVIDED INTO TWO GROUPS OF EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL. IN THE FIRST SESSION AFTER SAMPLING, A PRETEST CONSISTING OF A READING COMPREHENSION TEST WAS CONDUCTED. AFTERWARDS, THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP RECEIVED ITS OWN TREATMENT. NEXT, A READING COMPREHENSION TEST WAS CONDUCTED TO BOTH GROUPS AS THE POSTTEST. THE RESULTS INDICATED THAT THE MEAN DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE GROUPS (MD = 4.75) WAS SIGNIFICANT AT $P < .05$ WHICH MEANS A BETTER PERFORMANCE OF THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP ON THE POSTTEST. THIS COULD IMPLY THAT INVOLVING LEARNERS IN ANTICIPATION GUIDES ACTIVITIES CAN HAVE STATISTICALLY SIGNIFICANT EFFECTS ON THEIR READING COMPREHENSION ABILITY.

KEY WORDS: ANTICIPATION GUIDE, PRE-READING ACTIVITY, READING COMPREHENSION ABILITY

1. Introduction

Most researchers believe that reading is the base of all skills and supplies students with knowledge to comprehend the written text. Also, language learners face a lot of problems in learning reading comprehension. Anderson (2003) believes that reading is a fluent process of readers combining information from a text and their own background knowledge to build meaning.

Moreover, viewing reading as an interactive process, Widdowson (1979) points out that reading is not a reaction to the text, but an interaction between the writer and the reader facilitated by the text.

Readers' prior knowledge (or schemata) has an essential influence on comprehending the text. Millrood (2001) defines reading in another way. He believes "reading is a visual and cognitive process to extract meaning from writing by understanding the written text processing information and relating it to existing experience" (p. 117).

Reading as the most important academic language skill has a significant role in learning process because students' success in learning other subjects is very much determined by the high degree of mastering reading (Pour-Mohammadi & Abidin, 2011a). Reading encourages students in finding the main ideas and supporting details, factual information, and meaning of the words. Therefore, reading requires more serious attention because there are many components which could not be separated when we learn reading. Students must have reading skills if they want to get more knowledge from text or others. Therefore, teachers should try their best to make reading an interesting, enjoyable, meaningful and challenging activity.

In this regard, many reading techniques and strategies have been used in teaching English in the classroom. The results show that some techniques are successful with some students but some are not. Pre-reading activities both prepare native speakers for the concepts that follow and make the reading task easier through connecting the new concept more meaningfully to prior knowledge. They also make reading a more enjoyable task (Hansen, 1981). They are thus intended to activate appropriate knowledge structures or provide the knowledge the readers lack.

As Bell and Lee (2005) believe, learners can increase their prior knowledge and make interaction with the text to be read by using anticipation guides. This strategy helps instructors to assess learners' previous knowledge. Also, if learners need more prior knowledge, their instructor can demonstrate this before reading. Therefore, anticipation guide could stimulate learners' interest to know more about the subject matter. In this regard, the present study intends to investigate the following question:

- Do anticipation guides as pre-reading activity have any statistically significant effect on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' reading comprehension ability?

2. Literature Review

According to Carroll (2008), Bartlett, a British psychologist, was the first person who introduced schema.

Schemata (singular: schema) refer to packets of information stored in memory showing general knowledge regarding objects, events, actions, and situations (Pour-Mohammadi, Abidin, 2011b). Remembering is not a rote or reproductive process, but it is a process in which we retain the gist of an event and then reconstruct the details from this overall impression.

Numerous factors have been identified in language teaching process among which language skills, especially reading comprehension, gained a prominent position. The recently increased interest in SLA has led to an increasing demand for both technical reading courses as well as high-quality second language learning materials (Pressley, 2002). In line with this mindset, Tierney (2005) believes that the main aim of second language learners is to gain a comprehension of both the world and themselves, enabling them to reflect on and react to what they read.

Landry (2002) explains the particular role of the concept of schema to help teachers better understand the process of reading by L2 learners. He distinguishes between a strong and a weak view of schemata. Besides, he maintains the strong view of schemata sees them as something influencing the reader's opinion even before a text is read, and the weak view of schemata would be organized background knowledge on a topic leading to predictions of discourse. He also believes that schema interference causes a reader to ignore or miss textual signals. Carrol (2008) further justifies the role of schema on reading comprehension. In his opinion, a schema is a structure in semantic memory that specifies the general or expected arrangement of a body of information.

3. Method

3.1. Participants

For the present study a total of 60 female Iranian EFL learners whose age ranged from 12 to 16 years old were selected through convenience sampling. According to Interchange Objective Placement Test (IOPT), those whose scores fell within the range of intermediate level of proficiency were selected as the participants of the study. They were studying English at Kish English Language Institute in Bandar Anzali, Iran. They were all Persian native speakers. They were divided into two groups of experimental and control.

3.2. Materials

Interactions Reading by Kirnn and Hartmann (2002) which is a five-level, four-skill comprehensive ESL/EFL series designed to prepare students for academic content was employed in this study. The themes are integrated across proficiency levels and the levels are articulated across skill strands. The series combine communicative activities with skill-building exercises to boost students' academic reading.

3.2.1. Reading comprehension test as pretest and posttest

Two reading comprehension tests were administered as pretest and posttest in order to test the participants' reading comprehension ability.

3.2.2. IOPT

To ensure that all the participants are at the same level of proficiency, IOPT was administrated. This test consisted of 3 multiple-choice question sections including the listening section (20 questions), the reading section (20 questions) and the language use section (30 questions). All of the items were in the form of multiple-choice items.

3.3. Procedure for data collection and analysis

In the first step, IOPT was administered to homogenize the participants. Then, 60 language learners were selected as the participants of the study. They were then divided into two groups as experimental and control. Then a pretest including a reading comprehension test consisting of 30 questions was administered. After that the treatment began. In experimental group, the teacher focused on anticipation guide. It is operationally defined as a strategy to teach reading for junior high school that is used before reading to activate students' prior knowledge and build curiosity about a new topic. Before reading, students listened to or read several statements by teacher about key concepts presented in the text; they were often structured as a series of statements with which the students could choose to agree or disagree. In control group, the teacher focused on routine procedure of Reading Interaction. At the end of the treatment, a reading comprehension test was conducted as posttest. After data collection procedure, the collected data were analyzed through running one way ANCOVA.

4. Results

4.1. Descriptive analysis of the data

The descriptive statistics of the participants' pretest and posttest scores in both the experimental and the control groups are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics for the participants' in pretest and posttest scores in the groups

		Group	Pretest	Posttest	Pre.Exp	Pre.Cont	Post.Exp	Post.Cont
N	Valid	60	60	60	30	30	30	30
	Missing	0	0	0	30	30	30	30
Mean		1.5000	20.4800	20.6400	21.5200	17.2400	24.0400	19.4400
Std. Deviation		.50508	7.97506	8.68205	7.76810	8.20102	7.52485	8.55512
Skewness		.000	.192	.076	-.005	.423	-.315	.677

Std. Error of Skewness	.337	.337	.337	.464	.464	.464	.464
Kurtosis	-2.085	-.675	-.764	-.610	-.429	-.327	.163
Std. Error of Kurtosis	.662	.662	.662	.902	.902	.902	.902
Minimum	1.00	7.00	6.00	7.00	7.00	8.00	6.00
Maximum	2.00	37.00	39.00	37.00	37.00	38.00	39.00

4.2. Homogeneity of error variances

To check the homogeneity of variances, Levene's statistic was used. Leven's statistic tests the assumption that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups. As Table 2 indicates, the results of Levene's test were not significant for the posttest [F(1.48) = .345, P = .645, p > .05]. Based on these results, it can be concluded that there were not any statistically significant difference between the variances of the two groups.

Table 2. Homogeneity of error variances

F	df1	df2	Sig.
.345	1	48	.559

Moreover, in order to investigate the research hypothesis, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was run. Tables 3 and 4 reveal the results.

Table 3. Descriptive statistics

Group	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
EXP	24.0400	7.52485	25
CONT	17.2400	8.55512	25
Total	20.6400	8.68205	50

Table 4. Analysis of covariance (ANCOVA)

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	3526.362[a]	2	1763.181	495.755	.000	.955
Intercept	1.892	1	1.892	.532	.469	.011
Pretest	2948.362	1	2948.362	828.994	.000	.946
Group	278.200	1	278.200	78.222	.000	.625
Error	167.158	47	3.557			
Total	24994.000	50				
Corrected Total	3693.520	49				

a. R Squared = .955 (Adjusted R Squared = .953)

4.3. Results of hypothesis testing

As it is indicated in Table 3, the row for the pretest shows that the pretest was significantly related to the posttest (p < 0.05) with the magnitude of .946. The row for groups is the indicator of the main effect of the treatment on the dependent variable. After adjusting for pretest scores, there was a significant effect of the group [F (1.47) = 78.22, p < .05, partial η^2 = .625]. As p value obtained was less than .05, it could be said that there were statistically significant differences between the mean scores of the groups on the posttest after removing the possible effect of their entry knowledge as tested through the pretest.

Although the F-value of 78.22 indicates statistically significant differences between the mean scores of the groups on the posttest, pairwise comparisons have been made to decide about the direction of this difference as summarized in Table 5.

Table 5. Pairwise comparisons

(I) Group	(J) Group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval for Difference Lower Bound	Upper Bound
EXP	CONT	4.759*	.538	.000	3.677	5.842
CONT	EXP	-4.759*	.538	.000	-5.842	-3.677

Based on estimated marginal means

**The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.*

As the data in Table 5 reflect, the mean difference between the groups (MD = 4.75) was significant at $p < .05$, which indicates a better performance of the experimental group on the posttest. This could imply that involving learners in anticipation guides activities can have positive effects on their reading comprehension skills.

5. Discussion

As the collected data indicate, the mean difference between the groups (MD = 4.75) was significant which means a better performance of the experimental group on the posttest. This implies that anticipation guides activities can have positive effects on learners' reading comprehension skills. In the present study, anticipation guides activities were constructed based on the background knowledge (or schemata) of English language learners. Scholars in SLA domain consent that sufficient or suitable background knowledge is an essential element in reading comprehension. The study also found that through employing anticipation guide before starting to read first, students can activate their prior knowledge. Next, the students can promote their interest in text processing during reading. Then, anticipation guide can increase students' participation in post reading stage. Introducing a chapter via applying anticipation guide in this way enables learners concentrate on topics mainly.

The results of study conducted by Wahyuni (2010) showed that the students could do the posttest better than pretest. It meant teaching reading by using anticipation guide technique is effective to improve students' skill on reading. These results is in line with the findings of this study in which participants showed improvement in their reading comprehension ability after employing anticipation guides strategies in the class. In addition, as it happened in the present study, employing anticipation guides makes students more active in class participation; therefore, it can be claimed that pre-reading activities have positive influence on reading comprehension. This is in line with Yusuf (2011), Alemi and Ebadi (2010), Thongyon and Chiramanee (2011) that concentrated on pre-reading strategies.

6. Conclusion

This study dealt with the efficacy of anticipation guides on Iranian EFL learners' reading comprehension ability. As the results showed, anticipation guides had a very effective impact on the participants' reading comprehension ability. The findings also confirmed the key role of background knowledge in language teaching, specifically reading comprehension ability. The lowest position between groups of the study was for the control group. This indicates that students are not so optimistic about the traditional way of teaching reading comprehension in the classroom, and they would have better improvement in cooperative atmosphere of the classroom.

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MJLTM

A COMPARATIVE STUDY ON INTONATIONAL ELEMENTS AND COMMISSIVE ILLOCUTIONARY FORCE INTERFACE WITH RESPECT TO CONTEXTUAL ASPECTS AND CULTURAL BACKGROUND

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ABSTRACT
THIS PAPER AIMS TO EXPLORE ACOUSTIC PROPERTIES, DURATION AND PITCH AMPLITUDE OF COMMISIVE ILLOCUTIONARY FORCE SPEECH SAMPLES ASSOCIATED WITH SPEECH ACTS AGAINST NEUTRALITY THIS RESEARCH ALSO AIMS TO EXPLORE HOW SUCH ACOUSTIC FEATURES IN SPEECH ARE USED BY IRANIAN LEARNERS OF ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE IN TERMS OF THEIR REALIZATION OF LLOCUTIONARY FORCES. SUCH A STUDY CONSIDERED IN THE CONTEXT OF SPOKEN COMMUNICATION INVOLVES ARTICULATION AS WELL AS PERCEPTION. SEARLE'S VIEW (1975) ON DIRECTION OF FIT AND PIERREHUMBERT'S PHONOLOGICAL APPROACH (1980) WERE USED. TO COLLECT COMMISSIVE ILLOCUTIONARY FORCE MESSAGES FOR THE QUESTIONNAIRES, 100 MOVIES BASED ON NATURALLY OCCURRING DATA WERE CAREFULLY OBSERVED AND ANALYZED. A GROUP OF 40 STUDENTS FROM AHVAZ PAYAME NOOR UNIVERSITY WERE INVOLVED IN THE PRODUCTION AND PERCEPTION OF THE MESSAGES OF THE QUESTIONNAIRES. TO ANALYZE THE DATA, A CHISQUARE TEST WAS USED. THE RECORDED SPEECH SAMPLES WERE COMPARED THROUGH THE TRACKS OF THE PRAAT PROGRAM SOFTWARE. OUR ANALYSIS INDICATED THAT THE STRICT ACOUSTIC CORRELATION EXISTS BETWEEN COMMISSIVE ILLOCUTIONARY FORCE AND NEUTRALITY AS A REFERENCE.

KEYWORDS: COMMISSIVE ILLOCUTIONARY ACT, COMMUNICATIVE PROSODIC SIGNALS, PITCH MOVEMENT CONSTRAINT-BASED CULTURES, INTERACTIONAL INFORMATION EXCHANGE

1. Introduction

In recent years, areas such as pragmatics, intonation and non-verbal communication have not caught a strong attention in second Language (L2) learning. Hurly(1992,p.259) argues the importance of teaching these areas to L2 learners:"Learning skills in these areas[pragmatics, intonation and non-

verbal communication] could enable L2 learners to communicate more effectively without having inappropriate gestures or conversational strategies. Communication is not merely an exchange of words. Linguistic elements, paralinguistic elements and non-verbal communication elements such as, co-speech gestures and non-speech sounds are part of the communication and all convey meaning (Lyons, 1995,p.97).Thus, It is essential for L2 learners to perceive and recognize intonational and pragmatic differences. Goodwin (1996)also believes that in L2 learning, pronunciation learning involves learning how to articulate sound segments, and also learning how to understand the situational relationship between sound and meaning.

Balanced focus on meaning and prosodic features through planned tasks in L2 instructions can deepen students' awareness of such forms and make them understand the relationship between meanings, forms, and functions in a highly context- sensitive situation (Fraser & Perth, 1999; Murphy, 2003, Muranoi, 2007). Therefore, it is necessary to study not only the linguistic element of the conversation, but also to determine the context of the utterances.L2 learners should be able to perceive and recognize acoustic and pragmatic differences. The use of planned instructional activities increase the perceptual salience of commonly ignored L2 input or output features, and promotes their noticing the gaps within their own L2 knowledge.

Acoustic parameters of speech and prosodic cues such as variation in pitch, intensity, speech rate, duration of vowel and rhythm may be manipulated -exaggerated, diminished, sped up and slow down- to convey illocutionary force and pragmatic attitudes. As Laver (1995) said: prosodic features are available to speaker and listener in order to encode and decode the speech. Prosodic cues can also provide paralinguistic information such as the speaker's view, and attitude toward the dialogue partner and the situation. Indeed, all the information contained in speech contributes to the interpretation of the message.

In this paper prosodic variation conveying the commissive illocutionary force and attitude in samples of real speech will be explored. Commonly analyzed acoustic parameters for such a description of emotion in speech have been pitch range and duration in each prosodic contour. In this study detailed acoustic information on illocutionary force expressed in speech by 40 speakers (20 males and 20 females) gained. Acoustic estimations are used in order to investigate the realization of illocutionary forces by Iranian learners of English.

In this research, we supplement the production aspect with the perception aspect, it is due to the fact that the complementarity of the production and the perception processes is the basis of the spoken communication process and firmly establishes the communicative importance of the parameters being studied.

2. Literature review

2.1 Theoretical Background

Searle (1975b) classified illocutionary acts based on a number of essentially pragmatic parameters. He maintains that the expressed psychological state of speech acts, the beliefs or other mental states that a speaker necessarily expressed by performing an act of that type. According to Searle, a language is performing speech acts such as making statements, giving commands, asking questions or making promises. He maintains that the expressed psychological state of speech acts, the beliefs or other mental states that a speaker necessarily expressed by performing an act of that type. His approach holds that SAs are only explained by special conventions that are neither semantic not pragmatic. In his opinion, a statement has a "word- to- world" fit because it constitutes an attempt by the speaker to make his words match the world in a certain sense. In contrast, a promise has a "world- to- word" fit because it constitutes an undertake on the part of the speaker to make the world match his words. Searle provides a classification of speech acts whose sub-classifications can be furthered on:

1. Commissives are speech acts that committing in varying degrees- the speaker to some future course of action: promising, pledging, vowing, swearing, threating, and refusing.

2. Declaratives are speech acts that themselves bring about a state of a affairs by phrasing the utterance thus changing the external reality: marrying, naming, blessing, arresting, appointing,and firing.
3. Directives are speech acts whose intention is to get the addressee to carry out some actions: commanding, insisting, daring, requesting, asking, challenging, warning, and advising.
4. Expressive are speech acts that indicate the speaker's psychological state or mental attitude toward a state of affairs: thanking, greeting, apologizing, congratulating, welcoming,and deploring.
5. Representatives are speech acts that represent some state of affairs in varying degrees of truth with respect to the proposition: stating, believing, concluding, denying, reporting, describing, and introducing.

Pierrehumbert (1980) initiates an Auto segmental- Metrical theory which views intonation contour as a string of high or low tones in the form of pitch accents and edge tones and associate with points in the segmental string, and transitions between these points are phonologically irrelevant. A starred pitch accent can be preceded by leading tone or followed by a trailing tone. He distinguished between different types of tonal targets. We have seen various examples of dynamic accents, which are the head elements of intonational phrases. In addition, Pierrehumbert proposed to use H and L *boundary tones* at the beginning and end of major phrases, as well as a H or L *phrase accent* at the end of each intermediate phrase. He declared that pitch accents associated with strong syllable of an utterance consist of one high or low tone and marked with (*) as monotonal.
In the following section we refer to some related research conducted in our field of study.

2.2 Experimental Background

Research on teaching intonation has shown the importance of intonation awareness for both teachers and students. Taylor stated: The importance of intonation cannot be overemphasized….while [teachers] can easily recognize the difficulties faced by non-native speakers as far as grammar and the pronunciation of sounds are concerned, and thus make allowances for the errors made, they are unable to do this for intonation (1993, p. 1).

Several studies have examined pronunciation change and possible intonation transfer over time. One study by Derwing et al. (2006) examined development of accent, meaning target-like pronunciation, and pragmatics-prosody interface. The participants were 20 Mandarin and 20 Slavic adult learners of English. L2 speech samples were assessed at the beginning of the study, two months later, and then ten months later. While they found only a small improvement in accent for both groups, the Slavic speakers made significant improvement in fluency and the Mandarin group stayed the same. Although the Slavic speakers had been judged to be less fluent at the outset, they did not surpass the Mandarin speakers in fluency. The fluency of both groups was rated the same at the end of the ten months. The difference in levels of improvement in fluency may be accounted for by the fact that the Slavic speakers reported to have more interaction with native speakers. This study showed that there was only a small improvement in pronunciation over ten months. This shows the possibility that those focusing on learning the language may not be as focused on improving pronunciation or more specifically intonation. This may cause them to retain their L1 intonation or not acquire target intonation. Even the group that improved in fluency did not make a big improvement in their pronunciation. Although this was a longitudinal study monitoring the development of pronunciation, it did not touch on L1 intonation influence.

Ching (1982) discusses the rising pitch boundary in a southern American region in Memphis. He found it heavily used among both men and women. Ching's findings point not so much to social status as to politeness as the motivation behind this intonation. The rising boundary was used to add a deferent nondefensive, and even apologic face to an utterance whose propositional content might otherwise offend or contradict someone. By presenting hard facts with a rising intonation, the speaker could politely offer the recipient an opportunity to disagree.

Brown et al.(1980) studied 'systems', which include formation structure (speaker assigning contrastively new given status to lexical items), topic structure (speaker relates to an already established topic or beginning a new topic), affective meaning or attitude (speaker increases involvement raised by a shift-up in key), interactional structure (speaker A using a high pitch in asking a question, speaker B also rising a high pitch) and speech function or illocutionary force

(speaker making a question as conductive by choosing a low terminal or as non- conductive by choosing a not- low terminal.

According to Wennerstrom (1994) there are four major categories of intonation meaning; one is the pitch accent, indicating which items in the information structure of the discourse are newly introduced in the context of interaction. A second category of interaction is the pitch boundary at the end of the intonation phrase, which indicates the interdependency among utterances. A third type of meaning is conveyed via the choice of pitch ranges displaying a speaker attitude or reaction toward the prior utterance. Finally, the pitch ranges associated with organizational units, indicating how the new units are to be topically integrated with the previous ones.

Ladd et al. (1985) conducted different experiments on the relationship between prosodic cues and emotional states. The result they obtained was that "voice quality" is primary means by which speakers project their identity, and their social characteristics (personality, occupation , education , and regional origin).They also came to the conclusion that the prosodic cues: FO range , voice quality and type of pitch contour function independently of each other in conveying pragmatic functions and attitudes in speech .

Wang and his colleague (2003) investigated discourse intonation of Chinese speakers of English to identify their intonation problems by examining areas of informal conversation, dialogues and reading aloud. The analysis was based on auditory recording, appeared in the form of written transcriptions. The findings indicated that problems exist in choosing pitch range contours in relation with the information structure.

Laver (1995) emphasized that the prosodic function of conveying the expression of emotion seems to involve both a linguistic and a paralinguistic component , and that it is frequently considered a paralinguistic function , despite the doubts expressed on the subject ,he said that the choice of contour would be more related to the type of sentence , while the pitch level and excursion size of the pitch movements would be more related to the speaker's emotional state.The result confirmed that utterances produced while conveying different emotions could vary considerably with regards to the prosodic features . The relative height of the pitch accent, and the extend of the final lowering measurements of relative duration of accented and unaccented speech segments were made in order to gain some insights into the internal temporal structure of emotional utterances.

Grab, Kochanski, and Coleman (2002) conducted a study on "Quantitative Modeling of Intonation Variation" found that both dialect and utterance type can affect the shape of FO but not the intonation patterns. They also realized that the differences in FO between questions and statements were made throughout the utterance, in the shape of the contour and in the register. Traditional accounts of English intonation describe questions as having final rise in FO and statements as having a final fall. This account is valid in some dialects, but not in all. They found in all dialects, average FO was the lowest in statements, higher in wh- and yes/ no questions. In all dialects, FO sloped downwards in declaratives. Declarative questions were modeled as level or overall rising. In wh- and yes/ no questions the slope did not contribute to the distinction between questions and statements. This observation has been made for a number of other languages and it may be evidence of an intonation universal.

Abdolhasanizadeh et al. (2013) investigated phonetic realization of focus in declarative and interrogative sentences in Persian. Twelve native speakers of Persian recorded short declarativesand interrogatives including clitic group and phonological word in neutral and focal conditions. The findings indicated that small acoustic differences existed in duration, intensity, and spectral information between initial and final accented target words in different conditions, by the side of substantial differences in FO. Socio- cultural familiarity of EFL learners with the English expressions and intonation patterns is so essential to provide them with grammatical structures, and communicative strategies to convey intended meanings through different intonation devices in various situations. L2 learners lack pragmatic knowledge and knowledge of prosodic features of the target language. Since language functions are culturally bound, speakers should be aware of the target language norms and conventions in order not to be considered rude in their social interactions with a native speaker

Alinezhad and Vaysi (2007) conducted an experimental research seeking various degrees of correspondence between prosodic cues (duration, intensity, and pitch level) and paralinguistic information in some samples of speech in Persian. Their analysis demonstrated a significant correlation between prosodic features and paralinguistic information in Persian.

3. Purpose of the Study

The primary purpose of the present study aims at investigating the commissive illocutionary force and pitch range patterns interface in real samples of speech among English and Persian speakers .It also aims to explore the intonation variations which convey attitudinal states. This is done to find out similarities and differences between English and Persian speech act realization patterns with different intonation contours. In the light of the points made above, the following research questions are raised:

RQ_1: Are there any significant differences between commissive illocutionary force sub- titles in English and Persian utterances?

RQ_2: To what extent Iranian learners of English deviate from direct to indirect strategies while employing commissive illocutionary force sub- categories?

4. Methodology

4.1Participants

The participants in this experiment were 40 students majoring in translation at Payame Noor university in Ahvaz (20 males, 20 females) took part in the study to answer the questionnaires based on their own knowledge on illocutionary force messages. The twenty native English speakers staying in Torronto in Canada (8 male, 12 female) were asked to produce some English commissive IFs. They ranged in age from 18 to 40, with an average of 21 years. Twenty Iranian participants, most of whom were university students had previously visited English-speaking countries. Prior to the experiment, an edited version of the Comprehensive English Language Test (CELT) listening section (Harris and Palmer 1986) was administered to the participants in order to distinguish high and low proficiency groups. Table 1 shows the scores of this test.

Table 1: JEFLLs' Score of CELT Listening Section

	Sample	Average	Median	Mode	SD	Variance	Min	Max
JEFLL's overall	96	17.12	15.50	23	6.o7	36.79	6	28
H-JEFLLs	17	25.12	25.00	24	1.17	1.36	24	2
L-JEFLLs	18	8.78	8.00	10	1.22	1.42	7	10

Setting the average score as pivotal point, participants who scored more than the average plus one Standard Deviation (SD) are included in high-proficiency group (H-JEFLLs) and those who scored less than the average minus one SD are included in the low-proficiency group (L-JEFLLs).

4.2 Procedure

In this study the methodological processes consist of three phases: 1. Perception and evaluation of commissive speech act by the subjects 2. Speech production 3. Acoustic analysis of the presented sampled after the production and perception steps. The major source for this research project came from dialogues in daily conversations. Ten dialogues were presented to the participants. Each dialogue had explanation on the context and the intention of speaker Band participants were directed to read aloud the line as if they were speaker B. Participants were asked to respond to speaker A's line, which was played from an MD player. All the speech recorded on the MD was converted into, and saved as, wave file. Then PRAAT as a speech analysis software was used to analyze the samples to find out the correspondence between the pitch ranges and the commissive illocutionary force

against neutrality as a reference. To identify the illocutionary force, questionnaires including all information required and related to respective forces were used. Then the sample group of the whole population were asked to choose and tick the commissive speech acts in different sub- sections (farewell, surprise, greeting, apology, thanking, congratulation) and then identify the related context (meeting, birthday, driving test, visiting in the street, , receiving presents, saying goodbye, surprise) after listening to MD player in English and Persian. Such utterances were designed to investigate whether the learners create the same or different interpretations in different ages.

4.3 Speech Samples Analysis

The recorded speech samples were analyzed through PRAAT program software. Applying this software, acoustic keys were specified for each illocutionary force. After the representation of spectrograph and information existing in each, figures obtained from measurements of each parameter were statistically analyzed and discussed based on the purpose of the study. In the following part we will put forward Pierrhumbert's theoretical scheme used. To analyze the commissive speech samples of English and Persian.

Commissive Illocutionary Force Set

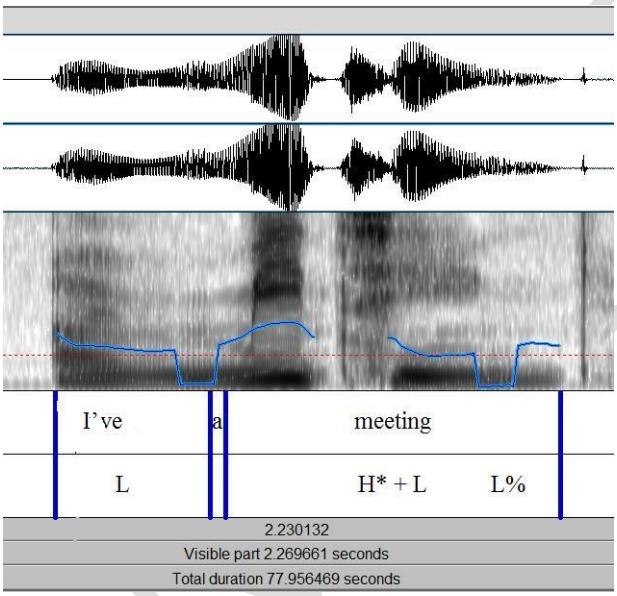

Figure 1.The intonation contour of the sentence ''I have a meeting.''

Pitch	
Accent	H*+L
Word	meeting
Duration	0.68
Pitch Mean	175.81
Pitch Min	73.57
Pitch Max	237.83

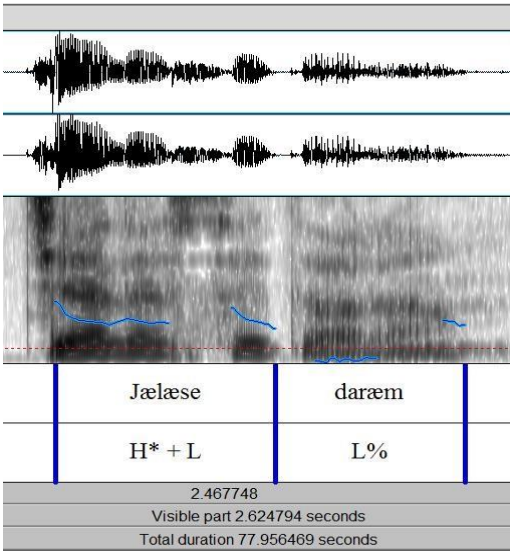

Figure 2.The intonation contour of the sentence"Jælæse daræm."

	Pitch
Accent	H*+L
Word	Jælæse
Duration	0.49
Pitch Mean	185.55
Pitch Min	163.72
Pitch Max	232.55

The spectrogram (1) shows that the sentence begins with a low pitch on the subject and then it rises on the first syllable of the word "meeting" followed by a valley to make a bitonal event(H*+L).
In the Persian utterance as represented in the figure (2), the first syllable of the word "jælæse" has a high pitch followed a fall to shape a bitonal pitch accent (H*+L) then the pitch falls gradually.
In both languages it is the noun which carries the bitonal pitch accent (H*+L) not the verb to make a refusing act.

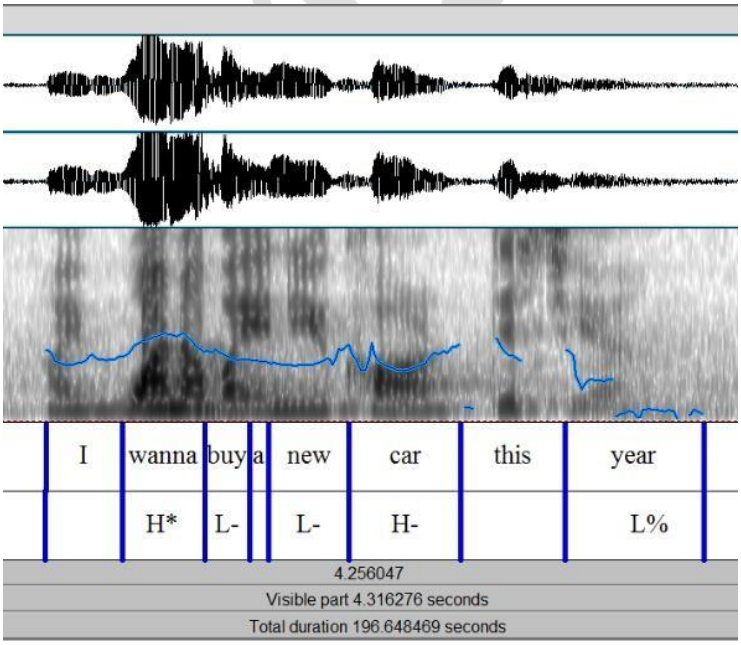

Figure 3.The pitch range pattern of the utterance "I wanna buy a new car this year.''

		Pitch	
Accent	H*	L	H
Word	wanna	buy	car
Duration	0.29	0.26	0.39
Pitch Mean	252.22	179.93	209.72
Pitch Min	218.05	168.82	187.12
Pitch Max	270.35	231.13	247.72

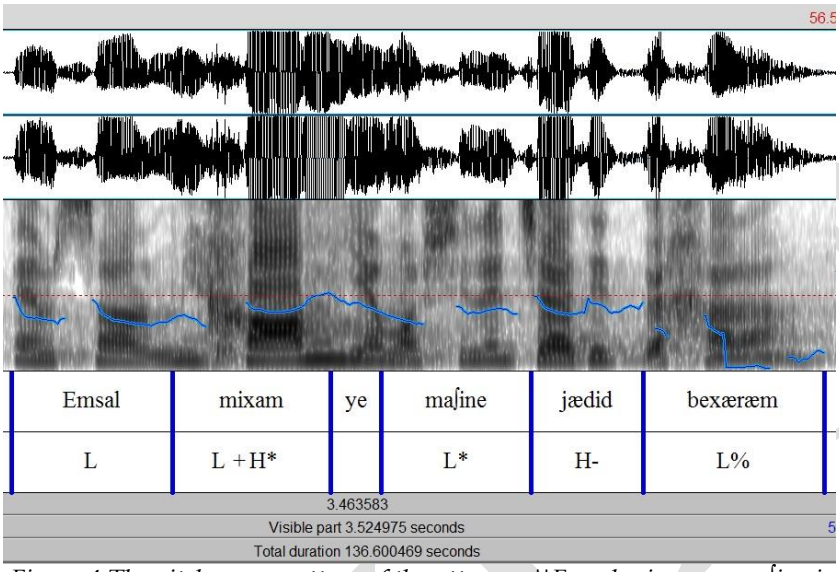

Figure 4.The pitch range pattern of the utterance''Emsal mixam ye maʃine jædid bexæræm.''

	Pitch		
Accent	L+H*	L*	H
Word	mixam	maʃine	Jædid
Duration	0.52	0.51	0.38
Pitch Mean	227.38	215.48	229.53
Pitch Min	183.72	190.14	214.95
Pitch Max	269.01	234.35	259.66

The figure (3) represents that the pitch of the utterance on the first verb (wanna)(H*) is a monotonal event which realized as a high peak. Then the pitch shifts to a low pitch on the second verb (buy) and the adjective (new) of the sentence until the noun of the sentence "car" which has a high accent lower than the peak.

We have a low pitch in the Persian equivalent. The figure (4) shows that the pitch on the first word is a bitonal event realized as a high peak on the accented syllable "mixam", starting from a lower paint in the pitch range (L+H*).The word "maʃine" with low accented syllable which followed by the high accented adjective "jædid"(H).Then gradual fall is observed.

In both languages, the first verb carries the peak of the utterance. In English it is monotonal, but in Persian it is bitonal (L+H*). In English the adjective before noun followed by a noun is not accented but in Persian it is the adjective which carries high accent to show a future commitment or decision.

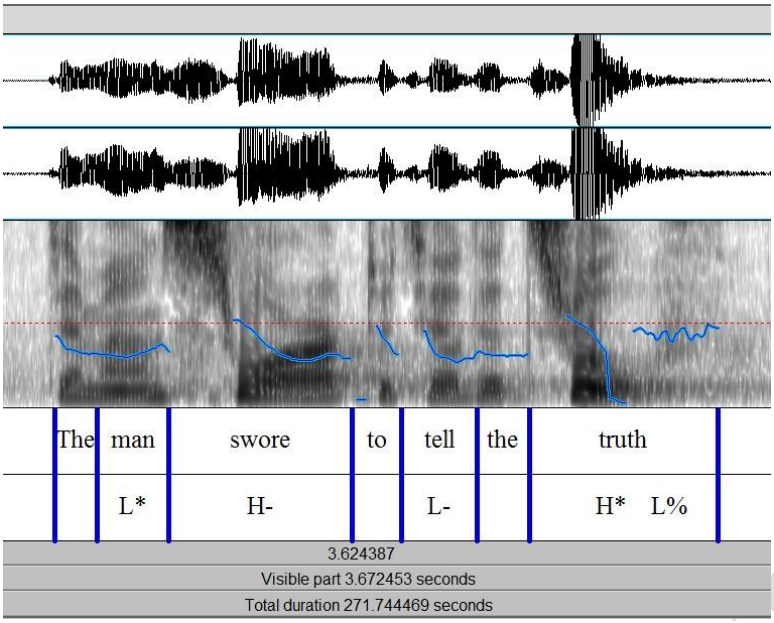

Figure5.The intonation contour of the utterance "The man swore to tell the truth."

		Pitch	
Accent	L*	H	H*
Word	man	swore	truth
Duration	0.22	0.56	0.59
Pitch Mean	198.94	207.86	218.06
Pitch Min	188.79	141.94	273.88
Pitch Max	225.01	180.76	282.38

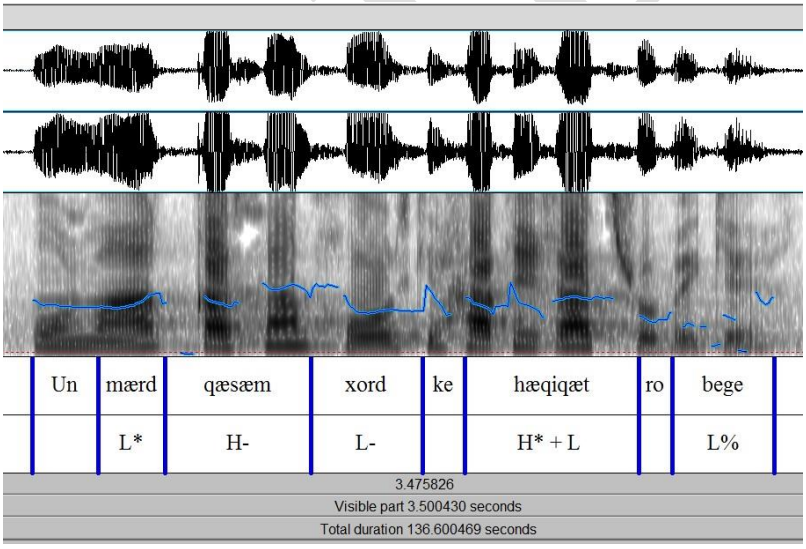

Figure 6.The intonation contour of the utterance "Un mærd qæsæm xord ke hæqiqæt ro

bege."

		Pitch	
Accent	L*	H	H*+L

Word	mærd	qæsæm	hæqiqæt
Duration	0.23	0.50	0.59
Pitch Mean	213.22	217.50	217.06
Pitch Min	200.24	187.18	176.42
Pitch Max	240.75	260.49	269.60

In the English utterance (5) we observe that the sentence has a low pitch accent word "man" as the old information of the utterance. Then we have a rise in pitch on the verb "swore" (H). We see a fall on the infinitive until the last word "truth" as the peak of the sentence.
The spectrograph (6) shows that we have a (L*) pitch on the word "mærd" as the carrier of the given information. Then the pitch rises on the word "qæsæm" (H) followed by falling pitch range (H*+L).
In both languages the verb has a rising pitch range. In both cultures the word "truth" (hæqiæt) is the peak of the utterance. In English it is monotonal (H*), whereas in Persian it has a bitonal event (H*+L).

4.4 Statistical Analysis

To explore differences between English and Persian real samples of speech in commissive speech act, the collected data were analyzed through descriptive and referential statistics to study the degree of correlation between the pitch range and the emotions in both languages. The data related to statistical analysis of the present study presented below:

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics of Commissive SA in the Persian Version of the MCQ

MCQ Version	Number	Mean	SD
Persian	40	6.60	1.27

According to table 1, the mean and the standard deviation were calculated: 6.60 and 1.27.

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics of Commissive SA in the English Version of the MCQ

MCQ Version	Number	Mean	SD
Persian	40	4.97	1.12

In table 2, the mean and standard deviation were reported: 4.97 and 1.12. To compare the means of the performance of the subjects on the two versions, the paired-sample t-test was employed.

Table 3: The Results of Paired-Sample T-Test

T-Test	Variable	MCQ Version	Mean Difference	SD	t-Value	df	Sig
Paired-Sample	Commissive SA	English	1.62	1.83	5.60	39	0.001
		Persian					

As seen in Table3, the results of the paired-sample t-test shows that there is a significant difference between the mean of the performance of the participants in the two versions at p≤0.001 and the observed tvalue is 5.60. Therefore, it can be concluded that the performance of the subjects on the Persian version of the MCQ was significantly better.

Table 4: The Results of Chi-Square Test for Commissive SA in the Persian Version of the MCQ.

Test	t-Value	df	Sig
Chi-Square	24.75	6	0.001

Critical Value: 12.59 (p< 0.05)

As observed in Table4, the obtained results indicated that there is a significant difference between the direct and indirect strategies of English and Persian commissive SAs. So the guessing factor cannot be considered. The observed value (24.75) was higher than the critical value (12.59).Therefore, the second hypothesis relating to a significant difference between the direct and indirect strategies of the both languages at p≤0.001 was verified.

Table 5: The Results of Chi-Square Test for Commissive SA in the English Version of the MCQ

Test	t-Value	df	Sig
Chi-Square	9.52	4	0.05

Critical Value: 9.49 (p<0.05)

Table 5 represents the statistics which shows a significant difference between the responses of the learners on the two-option MCQ in the English version. It seems that the learners did not recognize the commissive SA well. Therefore, the second hypothesis at p≤0.05 was supported, since the observed tvalue (9.52) was higher than the critical value (9.49).

5. Discussion

This study set out to investigate the correlation between pitch range patterns and commissive illocutionary force in English and Persian real samples of speech. As mentioned in previous sections, the participants' speech data was compared with the intonation models.Considering the favorite research questions, the overall results are presented and discussed in this section.

Regarding the first research question, the results revealed that there are significant differences between commissive illocutionary force sub- titles in English and Persian utterances, that is to say, the given illocutionary force correlates with special pitch range in determined context. This can be attributed to the negative impact of their L1 linguistic and sociocultural innated rules on the production of illocutionary force in English. The results are in favor of Derwing's (2006) study. The study supports the claim that shift in pitch ranges significantly correlates with different speech acts.

The second research question concerned the extent that Iranian learners of English deviate from direct to indirect strategies while employing commissive illocutionary force sub- categories. The results also indicate that the intonation patterns of the two languages are different since their tonic structures are not similar. The most noticeable tendency is for EFLs to use a falling tone, and this may be due to not realizing commissive IF messages through intonation. The findings of this research confirm the obtained results by Ladd et al. (1985) who found that "voice quality" is primary means by which speakers project their identity, and their social characteristics. They also concluded that the prosodic cues: FO range , voice quality and type of pitch contour function independently of each other in conveying pragmatic functions and attitudes in speech .

However, there are two possibilities for their performance. One is that EFLs shift prominence and pitch accents. The other possibility is that they could not distinguish the functions of intonation and

had tendency towards sing the simplest falling tone, whereas in the English version they did not rely entirely on falling tone, but also used complex tones such as fall-rise and rise-fall.

6. Conclusion

The present study confirms the effectiveness of interface between shift in pitch ranges and speech acts.

The findings, however, should be interpreted with caution because factors other than the ones investigated could have contributed to the outcomes. The logical conclusion that follows from the findings is that syllabus designers and material developers have to take these findings into account during the preparation of foreign language materials to the learners of both English and Persian languages. There are specific rules for altering the prominence values in intonational phrases with varying number of pitch accents. These will be implemented in the prosody module. The results of the study have confirmed the influence of contour type and pitch range on speech acts such as commissive illocutionary force.

Several factors need to be considered including the specific acoustic cues to make a phonemic segments in L1 and L2 , the age of the speaker, the amount of exposure to the L2, the quality of the L2 input, and the extent of usage of both the L1 and the L2. We have to take into account that context is provided verbally relates to background knowledge of the interlocutors possess already, gestural channel in face-to- face communication to interpret the utterances appropriately.

6.1 Implications of the Study

This will provide learners with specific feedback to help them perceive the meaningful intonational contrasts between L1 and L2 to be improved in their speech production and increases learners' perceptual abilities through a variety of actual speech sounds that exist within a language. In order for the EFL learners to achieve the best results, it is essential for them to be familiarized with the strategies and linguistic knowledge of their own first language to be succeeded in learning a foreign/second language. The study suggests that in a speech community, language and culture are closely tied to each other and improving communicative competence requires familiarity with the TL cultural norms and values. The necessary condition for pragmatic learning is conscious attention to the pragmatic knowledge to be acquired for explaining situations on which students can enhance linguistic and cultural appropriateness of commissive speech act. In order for the students to achieve the best results, it is essential for them to be familiarized with the strategies and linguistic knowledge of their own L1 to compare and contrast them with L2.

Teachers have the responsibility of providing the students with the necessary tools to make the appropriate paralinguistic and socio-pragmatic decisions in the target language by providing them with the values and perceptions of the target society. They need to make students fully aware of the specific commissive speech act set through employing effective and efficient techniques and strategies and familiarizing them with the intonation patterns of target language.

Focusing on learner-centered activities like role play and real discussion in natural occurring conversations can develop the students' target language efficiently. Authentic texts for analysis can be taken from tapes or transcripts of real conversations from movie clips to make EFL learners aware of native speakers' usage of the variety of expressions to realize a directive function.

6.4 Suggestion for Further Studies

This study suggests that it is not enough to build learners' linguistic competence and it might be necessary to develop their socio-cultural competence, in order to increase their interpretation of the interaction and rules of directness and indirectness within the target language.

6.3 Limitations of the study

There are a number of limitations to the study: first, due to relatively small number of EFL learners, the findings of this study cannot be generated to all Iranian EFL learners. Second, this research only employed one instrument for data collection. It is recommended that in order to get more authentic data and to increase the reliability of the finding, further studies with a large population and more instruments should be utilized.

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MJLTM

INVESTIGATION OF *GOOGLE TRANSLATE* TRANSLATION BASED ON LEXICO-GRAMMAR-ERROR MODEL OF HAR INSPIRED FROM SFG CONCERNING *VERBAL PROCESS*

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ABSTRACT
DUE TO THE FACT THAT ***WWW.TRANSLATE.GOOGLE.COM*** IS AN ACTIVE TRANSLATION SITE, AND THERE MAY BE PROBABLE ERRORS IN THE TARGET TEXT, AND DUE TO THE LACK OF AN APPROPRIATE FRAMEWORK FOR ASSESSING THE PROCESS OF PERSIAN INTO ENGLISH TEXTS, IT SEEMS HALLIDAY'S SYSTEMATIC FUNCTIONAL GRAMMAR (SFG) PROVIDES A SUITABLE FRAMEWORK TO ASSESS AND PREDICT KINDS OF ERRORS TO BE EDITED. BECAUSE THE TWO LANGUAGES HAVE DIFFERENT CONSTITUENCY ORDERS AND MORPHOLOGICAL TYPOLOGY, SIGNIFICANT LEXICO-GEAMMAR ERRORS CAN BE EXPECTED; OUT OF 350 CLAUSES REGARDING PHD THESIS WHICH WERE TRANSLATED BY GOOGLE TRANSLATE, 26 BELONGED TO THE VERBAL PROCESS OF THE EXPERIENTIAL METAFUNCTIONS OUT OF WHICH 16 CLAUSES BELONGED TO TRANSITIVE (9 UNMARKED AND 7 MARKED) AND 10 TO INTRANSITIVE PERSIAN CLAUSES; HERE 3 *UNMARKED TRANSITIVE* PERSIAN CLAUSES (SOV), 3 *MARKED TRANSITIVE* PERSIAN CLAUSES (SVO), ONE *PRO-DROP-MARKED TRANSITIVE* PERSIAN CLAUSE (SOV), AND 4 *INTRANSITIVE* PERSIAN CLAUSES HAVE BEEN CHOSEN TO BE STUDIED AND EDITED. THESE CLAUSES WERE CLASSIFIED AND EDITED IN *CONSTITUTION CLASSIFICATION AND EDITION BOX*, THEN THEIR ERRORS WERE EVALUATED BY *HAR TRANSLATION EVALUATION BOX* DESIGNED BY THE AUTHORS IN WHICH ALL THE TERMS WERE DERIVED FROM SFG. GOOGLE TRANSLATE HAD FEWER AND LIGHTER ERRORS WHEN IT TRANSLATED PERSIAN *MARKED* TRANSITIVE CLAUSES OF VERBAL PROCESS WITH THE CONSTITUENCY ORDER OF SVO, THE SAME AS ENGLISH UNMARKED CONSTITUENCY ORDER SVO, AS WELL AS WHEN IT TRANSLATED *INTRANSITIVE* PERSIAN CLAUSES OF VERBAL PROCESS OV, THE SAME AS

ENGLISH INTRANSITIVE CLAUSE CONSTITUENCY ORDER OF OV; BUT IT HAD MORE AND HEAVIER ERRORS WHEN IT TRANSLATED PERSIAN *UNMARKED* TRANSITIVE CLAUSES WITH THE CONSTITUENCY ORDER OF SOV, OPPOSITE TO ENGLISH SVO.

KEY WORD: HAR TRANSLATION EVALUATION BOX, VERBAL PROCESS, PARTICIPANTS, TRANSITIVITY SYSTEM.

Introduction and Review of Literature

Due to lack of an appropriate framework for assessing the process of Persian into English translation, it seems Halliday's systematic functional grammar provides a suitable framework to assess developments occurring in the process of translation of Google Translate. Hence, in this article, through the same perspective, we want to evaluate the translation quality of Google translate for transitive and intransitive verbal clauses based on HAR[7] translation evaluation model derived from SFG by the authors.

Traditionally, in translation studies, the focus has been mainly on experiential meaning, while the textual meaning has been neglected . However, an increasing number of studies in this field are still found in the literature, which has infused new thoughts to the translation studies of textual choices. With the help of SFG, we see translation as centrally involving the recreation of meaning through choices made by the translator in the interpretation of the source text and through choices in the generation of the translated text, translation involves recreating ideational meanings of the logical kind, ideational meanings of the experiential kind, interpersonal meanings and textual meanings" (House, 1997).

SFG proves itself useful to the theory and practice of translation and this is why we want to explore the theoretical problems of translation through a systemic functional perspective and to adopt SFG as an instrument of text analysis and of the production of a new text in the target language text. The most evident problems that come up when translating may seem to be a matter of words and expressions, but grammar also plays a large and important role. However, SFG prefers to talk in terms of lexico-grammar including both grammar and lexis (Halliday 1978: 39). With reference to its important role in translation, Taylor also believes that functional grammar should be a part of the education of a translator, because in combination with lexicon, it carries out specific Functions and realizes specific types of meaning (Taylor 1993: 88).

As Taylor says, units *of meanings* are universal, whereas *lexico-grammatical structures* are various; they can be transferred from one language into another through *functional chunks*. Through an analysis of grammatical realization, a translator can identify different kinds of meanings. In order to understand the meaning of a text and turn it in another language, a translator needs to divide the text up into translatable units. If he employs SFG, he will be able to divide the flow of discourse into lexico-grammatical units and hence into meaningful chunks or constituents (Taylor 1990). He can start for example with breaking down the English clause into processes, participants, and circumstances, which are the concrete expression of certain ideational meanings.

Accordingly, text is a meaningful unit, and in order to be guided towards meanings, we should start from the bottom, meaning from the analysis of the lexico-grammatical realizations; the role of translator is to take a look at possible translations of source language texts from a micro to a macro level. As Taylor observes, the translator's problems can be said to start with the word and finish with the text (Taylor 1990: 71).

Regarding the unit of translation, Newmark indicated sentence as the best unit of translation in the 1980s. In the 1990s, while Bassnett argued that the text should be the unit of translation, especially when dealing with literary prose texts (1991: 118), Snell-Hornby went even further, contending that the notion of culture was to be taken as the unit of translation (Hatim & Munday 2004: 24); In an SFG perspective, we basically adopt the clause as a unit of translation. Halliday regards it as a sensible unit to deal with, because it is at clause level that language represents events and is perhaps the most fundamental category in the whole of linguistics (1994: 67). He with Matthiessen, assert that the clause is the primary channel of grammatical energy (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004: 31).

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

1. Defining Research Problem

Quality in translation is certainly one of the most debated subjects. The strong interest it continues to generate among different groups, from researchers and translation organizations to practitioners and translation teachers, has made it a field of inquiry on its own, called translation quality assessment (TQA). *Since WWW.Translate.Google.Com* is an active translation site, and there are probable errors in it while turning one language into another, and there is no appropriate framework for assessing the process of translation, it seems the theory of SFG can help us to find a solution to this problem.

2. Methodology and Theoretical Concepts

The research, which is derived from a PhD thesis, plans to investigate and edit grammatical and semantic errors of Persian into English text translated by Google Translate based on SFG by *constituent classification and edition box*, and *translation evaluation model of HAR* designed by authors. To reach the result, this research makes use of descriptive and exploratory method, meaning uses the *translation evaluation model of HAR* inspired from Halliday's SFG to codify and weight the errors. Considering *Halliday's Transitivity System*, *morphology typology* and *constituency orders*, At first clauses are categorized in regard with applying verbal process out of other five processes of material, mental and relational, existential, and behavioral processes, and then their errors are measured by *HAR model* to determine kinds and rates of errors applied in the verbal processes of English and Persian clauses.

In this study, out of 500 Persian clauses which were taken from different abstracts of human sciences and were given to Google translate to be translated, 26 clauses belonged to verbal process from which 3 *unmarked transitive* with the constituency order of SOV, 3 *marked transitive* (SVO), one *pro-drop-marked transitive* Persian clause (<u>S</u>OV), 4 *intransitive* Persian clauses of verbal process (OV) have been chosen randomly to be studied.

According to Halliday, three main functions of language that language construes are called semantic metafunctions such as *ideational*, *interpersonal and textual*. *Ideational meanings* (clause as representation) are the result of language being used to represent experience, Interpersonal meanings (clause as exchange) are used for human interaction, and textual meanings (clause as message) are for the need of a text to be coherent and cohesive. It is our firm conviction that a translator must attempt to translate all three different kinds of meanings, because, as Steiner and Yallop assert, "texts are configurations of multidimensional meanings, rather than containers of content" (Steiner & Yallop 2001: 3).

In each metafunctions, an analysis of a clause gives a different kind of structure composed from a different set of elements. In the ideational metafunctions, a clause is analyzed into *Process, Participants* and *Circumstances*, with different participant types and for different process types. In the textual metafunctions, a clause is analyzed into *Theme* and *Rheme* and in the interpersonal metafunctions, a clause is analyzed into *Mood* and *Residue*. "In order to identify these different strands of metafunctions, we need to work with lexico-grammar; in an SFG perspective, lexico-grammar is selected according to the purposes of a text which is serving; thus it is a matter of the choices that a speaker makes from within the total meaning potential of the language, meaning its systems. By systems and systemic, we mean *syntagmatic ordering* in language corresponding to *the paradigmatic ordering*" (Halliday 1978: 40-41).

Each process is associated with a specific set of participant roles, representing different phenomena in the semantic system of the clauses. A semantic process represented by a clause consists of three components: the process itself, typically expressed by a verbal group, the participants in the process, typically realized by nominal groups, and the circumstances associated with the process, normally expressed by adverbial and prepositional groups. The circumstantial elements provide extra information on the *how*, *when*, *where* and *why* of the process, and they can often be deleted. Circumstances can appear not only in material processes, but also in all other process types (Eggins, 1994, p.237).

Regarding the types of process, material and mental processes are the primary ones. The material processes describe events and actions happening in the world while the mental processes reflect our inner workings of the minds. There is a distinction between what is going on outside in the reality

and what is going on inside in our mental worlds of reflection. The relational processes are concerned with classifying and identifying things and beings. They show how one fragment of experience is related to another. They are divided further into the sub-branches of attributive and identifying processes. Material, mental and relational processes constitute the majority of clauses. The three other process types belong to the intermediate subsidiary types. The behavioural processes cross the borderline between material and mental processes. They manifest the acting out of the inner consciousness or physiological reactions. The verbal processes lie between mental and relational processes. They refer to the processes of saying. Finally, the existential processes fall between relational and material processes. They are concerned with existence, the phenomena recognized to *be*, or to *exist* (Halliday, 1994, pp.106-107; Caffarel, Martin & Matthiessen, 2004, p.170).

Regarding transitive and intransitive clauses, it is noteworthy that there is a distinction between processes involving only one participant and those involving two or even three. Processes containing only one participant are called intransitive or middle clauses, while those having two or more participants are called transitive or effective clauses. (Eggins, 1994, pp.230-231). In other words, in a middle clause, the doing is limited to the actor, whereas in an effective clause, the doing is directed at the goal which undergoes the process (Halliday, 1994, p.110).

3. Data analysis

Persian Transitive clauses of verbal processes can be in the forms of either SOV (unmarked) or SVO (marked) which both are translated in accordance to one of these following English patterns of verbal processes considering the location of circumstantial adjuncts:

1) A: NC (Sayer) + VC (Verbal Process) + NC (Target) + *Circumstantial Adjunct*
   or

   B: NC (Sayer) + *Circumstantial Adjunct* + VC (Verbal Process) + NC (Target)

2) *Circumstantial Adjunct* + NC (Sayer) + VC (Verbal Process) + NC (Target)

3.1 Persian Transitive Clauses of Verbal Process

3.1.1 Persian Un*marked Transitive Clauses*

First, 3 Persian un*marked transitive clauses* (SOV constituency order) of verbal process are studied and edited considering their constituency order, morphological typology and transitivity system of experiential and textual metafunctions.

Table 1. Constituency investigation and lexico-grammar edition of Persian <u>unmarked transitive</u> clauses of verbal process (SOV)

NC (Sayer)	*Circumstantial Adjunct*	VC (verbal Process)	NC (Target)	
				SLT
استادان پس از مسائل حرفه ایو رفاهي خود به مسئله بهبود وضعیت گزینش دانشجو اشاره کرده اند.				
استادان	پس از مسائل حرفه ای و رفاهی خود	اشاره کرده اند	به مسئله بهبود وضعیت گزینش دانشجو	**SLT Constituent Analysis and editing**
After **<u>his</u>** professional and welfare issues have pointed to the improvement of student selection.				**TLT (Google.Translate)**
	وزن خطا	**کد خطا**		**Description of constituent error(s)**
	4 3	8 9		
<u>Professors</u>	after <u>their</u> professional and	have pointed to	the improveme	**Editing TLT**

	welfare issues		nt of student selection		

In table one, the Persian clause consists of one verbal process of "اشاره کرده اند", with two participants and one circumstantial adjunct; this Persian clause is an unmarked clause based on the word constituency order of SOV, meaning the two participants of *sayer* and *target* have preceded their verbal process in Persian. Google translate translated Persian unmarked transitive clause of verbal process with constituency order of SOV into English. English unmarked transitive clause of verbal process follows the constituency order of SVO, hence, in English, in contrast to Persian, one participant called *sayer* precede its verbal process and the other participant called *target* follows its verbal process; accordingly, in TLT done by Google translate, we see the participant of sayer "professors" has been deleted and this is why the error code of 8 was assigned to this clause, meaning the omission of a constituent, and also there is a grammatical error in the circumstantial adjunct because Google translate used "his" instead of "their".

Totally, we can say the Google translate put all constituents such as the circumstantial adjunct and the participant of target in their right places except the participant of sayer which was deleted.

Table 2. Constituency investigation and lexico-grammar edition of Persian unmarked transitive clauses of verbal process (SOV)

NC (Sayer)	*Circumstantial Adjunct*	VC (verbal Process)	NC (Target)	
این مقاله از منظر روانشناسی به بررسی این موضوع می پردازد .				**SLT**
این مقاله	از منظر روانشناسی	می پردازد	به این موضوع	**SLT Constituent Analysis and editing**
This article examines this issue from the perspective of psychology.				**TLT (Google.Translate)**
وزن خطا		**کد خطا**		**Description of constituent error(s)**
0		12		
No lexico-grammar error				**Editing TLT considering textual and experiential metafunctions**

In table 2, the Persian clause consists of one verbal process of "می پردازد", with two participants of "این مقاله" (the participant of sayer), and "به این موضوع" (the participant of target), and one circumstantial adjunct; this Persian clause is an unmarked clause based on the word constituency order of SOV, meaning the two participants of *sayer* and *target* have preceded their verbal process in Persian. The participant of target in Persian "به این موضوع", without considering its verbal process and by itself is a prepositional phrase, but by considering its role with its verbal process, we see it is a noun clause and a target participant for the process of "می پردازد".

Google translate translated this clause into TLT with no lexico-grammar error, meaning it successfully turned Persian unmarked transitive verbal clause with the constituency order of SOV into English unmarked transitive verbal clause with the constituency order of SVO. (Error code of 12)

Table 3. Constituency investigation and lexico-grammar edition of Persian unmarked transitive clauses of verbal process (SOV)

NC (Sayer)	VC (verbal Process)	NC (Target)	*Circumstantial Adjunct*	
این تحقیق به بررسي عوامل انگیزش موثر و پیشرفت تحصیلي				**SLT**

	دانشجویان موفق دانشگاه در راستای اتخاذ تصمیماتی جهت افزایش موفقیت تحصیلی و سایر دانشجویان می‌پردازد.			
SLT Constituent Analysis and editing	در راستای اتخاذ تصمیماتی جهت افزایش موفقیت تحصیلی این دانشجویان	به عوامل انگیزش موثر و پیشرفت تحصیلی دانشجویان موفق دانشگاه	می پردازد	این تحقیق
TLT (Google.Translate)	This study examines the factors affecting motivation and academic achievement of students in line with the successful adoption of measures to increase the academic achievement of the students concerned.			
Description of constituent error(s)	**کد خطا**		**وزن خطا**	
	3		8	
Editing TLT considering textual and experiential metafunctions	in line with the adoption of measures to increase the academic achievement of the students	the factors affecting motivation and academic achievement of **university successful students**	examines	This study

In table 3, the Persian unmarked transitive clause consists of the verbal process of "می پردازد", with two participants of sayer and target and one circumstantial process; this unmarked transitive clause has the constituency order of SOV in which both participants of sayer and target have preceded their Persian verbal process. This Persian unmarked transitive clause (SOV) must be translated into (SVO) by Google translate in which the participant of sayer must precede its process and the participant of target must follow it.

Google translate has put the participants of sayer "this study" and target "the factors" in appropriate locations before and after their verbal process of "examines" respectively, but regarding the complement of the participant of target, we see some parts of its constituents have been substituted with those of the circumstantial adjunct, for example the constituent of "successful" belonged to the complement of the participant of target which by Google translate it was wrongly placed inside the constituent of circumstantial adjunct (Error code of 3).

4.1.2 Persian *Marked Transitive Clauses* (SVO)

Here, 3 Persian *marked transitive clauses* with the constituency order of SVO are studied and edited considering their constituency order, morphological typology and transitivity system of experiential and textual metafunctions. When Persian transitive clause of verbal process gets marked, its constituency order will be the same as English, meaning both languages will follow the order of SVO; hence, in the following we want to investigate if this change in Persian with the marked order of SVO, the same as English and compared to its unmarked order of SOV has any effect in the translation of Persian into English by Google translate.

Persian transitive clauses of verbal processes in any order of either SOV (unmarked) or SVO must be translated in accordance to one of these following English orders of verbal processes considering the location of circumstantial adjuncts:

1) A: NC (Sayer) + VC (Verbal Process) + NC (Target) + *Circumstantial Adjunct*
   or

   B: NC (Sayer) + *Circumstantial Adjunct* + VC (Verbal Process) + NC (Target)

2) *Circumstantial Adjunct* + NC (Sayer) + VC (Verbal Process) + NC (Target)

Table 4. Constituency investigation and lexico-grammar edition of Persian marked transitive clauses of verbal process (SVO)

NC (Sayer)	*Circumstantial Adjunct*	VC (verbal Process)	NC (Target)	
تجربيات موفق مؤسسات كوچک و متوسط در كشورهاي در حال توسعه و توسعه يافته نشان مي دهد كه ...				**SLT**
تجربیات موفق موسسات کوچک و متوسط	در کشورهای در حال توسعه و توسعه یافته	نشان می دهد	که ...	**SLT Constituent Analysis and editing**
The successful experiences of small and medium enterprises in developed and developing countries show that ...				**TLT (Google.Translate)**
وزن خطا		**کد خطا**		**Description of constituent error(s)**
0		12		
No lexico-grammar error				**Editing TLT considering textual and experiential metafunctions**

In table 4, the Persian transitive clause is marked with the constituency order of SVO, the same as English constituency order SVO; While in Persian unmarked transitive clauses (SOV) as shown in table one to three, both the participants of sayer and target preceded their process, here in marked transitive clause (SVO), we see that one participant (sayer) has preceded its process and the other one (target) has followed its process which has become similar to English SVO.

By Google translate, the Persian marked transitive clause with the constituency order of SVO has been turned into English unmarked transitive clause with the same constituency order with no lexico-grammar error. (Error code of 12).

1. **Constituency Order of Persian Transitive Marked Clause (SVO)**

مشارک هدف	+	فرایند بیانی گذرا	+	مشارک گوینده	←
Target		verbal Process		Sayer	

2. **Constituency Order of English Transitive Unmarked Clause (SVO)**

TLT Pattern: NC (Sayer) + VC (Verbal Process) + NC (Target)

Table 5. Constituency investigation and lexico-grammar edition of Persian marked transitive clauses of verbal process (SVO)

NC (Sayer)	*Circumstantial Adjunct*	VC (verbal Process)	NC (Target)	
نتايج حاصل از يافته هاي تحقيق در بين سازمانها به عنوان يک عامل مزيت رقابتي نشان داد كه ...				**SLT**
نتایج حاصل	از یافته های تحقیق در بین سازمانها به عنوان یک عامل مزیت رقابتی	نشان داد	که ...	**SLT Constituent Analysis and editing**
The results from this study showed that among organizations as a competitive advantage that …				**TLT (Google.Translate)**

	وزن خطا		کد خطا	**Description of constituent error(s)**
	8		3	
The results	from this study among organizations as a competitive advantage	showed	that …	**Editing TLT considering textual and experiential metafunctions**

In table 5, the Persian clause is transitive and marked, so its constituency order is SVO into which the participant of sayer precedes its process and the participant of target follows it like in English transitive verbal clause SVO.

Google translate has placed the participant of sayer "the results" and the participant of target "that …" in their right places, but substituted some constituents of circumstantial adjunct from the left part of English process to its right, making the error code of 3. Totally we can say Google translate correctly placed the two participants, one on the left and another on the right side of their process based on the English order of SVO and error was not due to the places of verbal process and its two participants, but due to the circumstantial adjuncts which changing its place changed the meaning of the clause.

Table 6. Constituency investigation and lexico-grammar edition of Persian marked transitive clauses of verbal process (SVO)

NC (Sayer)	**VC (verbal Process)**	**NC (Target)**	***Circumstantial Adjunct***	
این پژوهش به این سوال پاسخ می دهد که . . .				**SLT**
این پژوهش	پاسخ می دهد	به این سوال که ...	-	**SLT Constituent Analysis and editing**
The study answers the question that ...				**TLT (Google.Translate)**
	وزن خطا		کد خطا	**Description of constituent error(s)**
	0		12	
No lexico-grammar error				**Editing TLT considering textual and experiential metafunctions**

In table 6, The Persian transitive clause is marked with the constituency order of SVO, this order means one participant in Persian marked transitive clause precedes its process and the other follows it. In this clause, the participant of sayer "این پژوهش", and the participant of "که ..." have respectively preceded and followed their verbal process of "پاسخ می دهد"; in English also the same order should be followed for the participants of sayer and target in relation to their verbal process as in below:

TLT Pattern: NC (Sayer) + VC (Verbal Process) + NC (Target)

Google translate not only has found appropriate equivalences for the participants of the Persian clause and its process, but also followed the appropriate constituency order of SVO, the same as Persian marked Transitive clause SVO with no lexico-grammar error (error code of 12).

4.1.3 Persian *Pro-drop-Marked* Transitive Clauses

Persian contrary to English is a pro-drop language and hence, its subject can be deleted. In table 8 in below, a Persian *pro-drop* transitive clause was given to Google translate, because the subject (the participant of sayer) was not in the SLT, Google translate couldn't recognize it and left it (error code of 8); it also didn't regard the order of the participant of target with its verbal process of "deals with" (error code of 2), in other words, Google translate wrongly followed the constituency order of:

… *the participant of target* + *verbal process* …

instead of:

… *Verbal Process* + *the participant of target* + …

Table 7. Constituency investigation and lexico-grammar edition of Persian *Pro-drop-marked* transitive clauses of verbal process (SVO)

NC (Sayer)	VC (verbal Process)	NC (Target)	*Circumstantial Adjunct*		
به ارائه پیشنهادات و نتیجه‌گیري از موضوعات ارائه شده مي‌پردازد.				SLT	بند 7
آن (این مقاله)	می پردازد	به پیشنهادات و نتیجه‌گیري از موضوعات ارائه شده	-	SLT Constituent Analysis and editing	
To provide suggestions and conclusion of deals with the issues raised.				TLT (Google.Translate)	
وزن خطا		کد خطا		Description of constituent error(s)	
8 4		2 8			
(It) this article	deals with	some suggestions and conclusion of the presented issues	-	Editing TLT considering textual and experiential metafunctions	

4.2 Persian Intransitive Clauses of Verbal Process

While in both marked *S* +V +O and unmarked *S* +O +V Persian transitive clauses of verbal process, there are at least two participants of sayer and target in which the participant of sayer precedes its process in both orders, the participant of target may precede or follow the process depending on unmarked and marked transitive clauses respectively, but in Persian intransitive clause of verbal process, there is only one participant called target which precedes its process and the other participant called sayer if existing will be in the form of a circumstantial adjunct.

To translate the Persian intransitive clause of verbal process into English by considering the constituency order, textual such as the location of circumstantial adjunct and experimental metafunctions, one of the following constituency orders must be followed:

1A. NC (Target) + VC (Verbal Process) + *Circumstantial Adjunct*

or

1B. NC (Target) + *Circumstantial Adjunct* + VC (verbal Process)

2. *Circumstantial Adjunct* +NC (Target) + VC (verbal Process)

Table 8. Constituency investigation and lexico-grammar edition of Persian intransitive clauses of verbal process (OV)

NG (Target)	VC (verbal Process)	*Circumstantial Adjunct*		
روشهای مختلفی به منظور محاسبه این شاخص ارائه شده است.				**SLT**
روشهای مختلفی	ارائه شده است	به منظور محاسبه این شاخص		**SLT Constituent Analysis and editing**
Various methods have been proposed in order to calculate the index.				**TLT (Google.Translate)**
وزن خطا		**کد خطا**		**Description of constituent error(s)**
0		12		
No lexico-grammar error				**Editing TLT considering textual and experiential metafunctions**

In table 7, the Persian clause is intransitive with the verbal process of "ارائه شده است", this Persian intransitive clause has one participant on its right side. This participant which is target precede its process not only in Persian transitive (S+*O*+V), but also in Persian intransitive (*O*+V) clauses which are unmarked. In English transitive clauses, the participant of target follows its process, and in intransitive ones, it precedes the process; hence, in both English and Persian intransitive clauses, the participant of target precedes its process based on the constituency order of OV.

The Persian clause consists of a participant (sayer), a circumstantial adjunct and a process; considering the constituency order of OV for both English and Persian intransitive clauses, and textual metafunctions such as the location of circumstantial adjunct in SLT, Google translated turned Persian clause to English clause with no lexico grammar error based on the order of *NC (Target)* + *VC (Verbal Process)* + *Circumstantial Adjunct*. (Error code of 12)

Table 9. Constituency investigation and lexico-grammar edition of Persian intransitive clauses of verbal process (OV)

NG (Target)	*Circumstantial Adjunct*	VC (verbal Process)	-	
راهبردها و برنامه‌هايي جهت توسعه صنعت توريسم با توجه به ساختار منطقه به عنوان عاملي براي توسعه اقتصادي، اجتماعي و فرهنگي ارائه شده اند.				**SLT**
راهبردها و برنامه‌هايي	جهت توسعه صنعت توريسم با توجه به ساختار منطقه به عنوان عاملي براي توسعه اقتصادي، اجتماعي و فرهنگي	ارائه شده اند	-	**SLT Constituent Analysis and editing**
Strategies and plans for tourism development with regard to the region as a factor for economic, social and cultural offered				**TLT (Google.Translate)**

	وزن خطا		کد خطا		Description of constituent error(s)
	4 6		8 5		
Some strategies and plans	for tourism development with regard *to the region structure* as a factor for economic, social and cultural *development*		*were* offered		**Editing TLT considering textual and experiential metafunctions**

In table 8, the Persian clause is intransitive with the constituency order of OV; considering the textual and experiential metafunctions, this Persian clause must be translated into English constituency order of OV according to one of the following orders:

A. NC (Target) + VC (Verbal Process) + *Circumstantial Adjunct*

or

B. NC (Target) + *Circumstantial Adjunct* + VC (Verbal Process)

Google translate followed the above pattern (part B) appropriately, and placed all constituents of target, circumstantial adjunct and the process in their right places, but there are some errors with the codes of 8 and 5 relating to omission of some parts of a constituent and *grammatical error of process* respectively. The error code of 8 is due to the omission of some part of the circumstantial adjunct of "با توجه به ساختار منطقه", and some part of the noun group of "توسعه فرهنگی", which by Google translate, was translated as "*with regard to the region*" instead of "*with regard to the region structure*", and as "*cultural*" instead of "*cultural development*". Meanwhile, the error code of 5 is due to grammatical error of the process which by Google translate was translated as "offered" instead of "were offered".

Table 10. Constituency investigation and lexico-grammar edition of Persian intransitive clauses of verbal process (OV)

NG (Target)	*Circumstantial Adjunct*	VC (verbal Process)		
ارزشيابي و بازنگري اين برنامه ها و تشخيص نقاط قوت و ضعف آنها مورد تاكيد قرار گرفته است.				**SLT**
ارزشيابي و بازنگري	اين برنامه ها و تشخيص نقاط قوت و ضعف آنها	مورد تاكيد قرار گرفته است		**SLT Constituent Analysis and editing**
Evaluation and review of these programs and *identify strengths* and weaknesses are emphasized.				**TLT (Google.Translate)**
	وزن خطا	کد خطا		**Description of constituent error(s)**
	3	9		
Evaluation and review	of these programs and *identification of their strengths* and weaknesses	are emphasized		**Editing TLT considering textual and experiential metafunctions**

In table 9, the Persian intransitive clause with the constituency order of OV has one participant of target which preceded its process, such an intransitive Persian clause must be translated into English somehow that the participant in English also precedes its process.

Google translate put all constituents of *the participant of target*, *circumstantial adjunct* and *process* in their appropriate locations, such as putting the participant of target before its process, but there has been a grammatical error relating to the circumstantial adjunct. Regarding to some part of the circumstantial adjunct, Google translate used "identify strength" instead of using "identification of their strength". (Error code of 9).

Table 11. Constituency investigation and lexico-grammar edition of Persian intransitive clauses of verbal process (OV)

Circumstantial Adjunct	NG (Target)	VC (verbal Process)	-	
در ارتباط با موضوع پنج فرضیه ارائه شده است.				**SLT**
در ارتباط با موضوع	پنج فرضیه	ارائه شده است	-	**SLT Constituent Analysis and editing**
In relation to the subject five hypotheses presented.				**TLT (Google.Translate)**
وزن خطا		**کد خطا**		**Description of constituent error(s)**
6		5		
In relation to the subject	five hypotheses	were presented	-	**Editing TLT considering textual and experiential metafunctions**

In table ten, the Persian clause is intransitive consisting of a circumstantial adjunct, the participant of target and process respectively; the circumstantial adjunct in this clause unlike other intransitive clauses studied in table seven to nine is the first constituent of the clause, and has preceded the participant of target. This Persian intransitive clause is marked because of the location of the circumstantial adjunct as the first constituent of the clause. While for the clauses from table seven to nine, regarding the location of Persian circumstantial adjunct, one of the two following English patterns was used for their translation:

A. NC (Target) + VC (Verbal Process) + *Circumstantial Adjunct*

or

B. NC (Target) + *Circumstantial Adjunct* + VC (Verbal Process)

For the clause in table ten, the constituency order of *Circumstantial Adjunct* +NC (Target) + VC (Verbal Process) is followed not to disregard the textual metafunctions.

Google translate not only regarded the textual metafunctions and placed the equivalence of Persian circumstantial adjunct as the first constituent of the clause, but also it placed the participant of target before it process and in its right place; the assigned error doesn't refer to the constituency order, textual and experimental metafunctions but to the grammatical error of the process because Google translate used "*presented*" instead of "*were presented*".

4. Conclusion

Three *unmarked transitive* Persian clauses (SOV), 3 *marked transitive* Persian clauses (SVO), one *pro-drop-marked transitive* Persian clause (SOV), and 4 *intransitive* Persian clauses were studied to figure out what kind of errors they have when translated by Google translate. These clauses were first

classified and edited in *constitution classification and edition box*, then their probable errors were evaluated by *HAR translation evaluation box*.

Google translate had fewer and lighter errors when it translated Persian *marked* transitive clauses of verbal process with the constituency order of SVO which is the same as English unmarked constituency order SVO, out of three marked transitive Persian clauses of verbal process which were translated by Google translate, two of them had no lexico-grammar error (error code of 12), and one had error code of 3 regarding joining the heads of process and/or participants with inappropriate dependents.

When it also translated *intransitive* Persian clauses of verbal process OV which is the same as English intransitive clause constituency order of OV, it had fewer and lighter errors, out of 4 intransitive Persian clauses given to Google, one clause had no lexico grammar error, the second clause had the error codes of 8 and 5 related to omission of constituent in TLT, and grammatical error of the verbal process respectively, in the third and 4th clause the error codes of 9 and 5 were assigned which respectively were due to grammatical error in participant and in verbal process.

But it had more and heavier errors when it translated Persian *unmarked* transitive clauses with the constituency order of SOV, opposite to English SVO; out of three translated clauses, one had no lexico-grammar error and the other two had the error codes of 8, 9 and 3. Pro-drop marked transitive clauses which are used with the constituency order of OV, contrary to English SVO, also had heavy error of 2 along with error code of 8.

Totally, when the constituency order and morphological typology of SLT and TLT are considerably different, there will be heavier errors done by Google translate, and as far as the constituency order of one of them gets the same as the other one due to getting marked or intransitivity, there will be lighter errors based on the introduced translation evaluation box.

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Appendixes

Box one: translation evaluation model of HAR designed by the authors.

Error code	Error description	Error weight
1	Misinterpretation of SLT	8
2	No consideration of the orders of VC and its participants	8
3	Heads of VC and/or participants with inappropriate dependents	8
4	No consideration of Halliday's textual metafunction OR circumstantial adjuncts constituency orders	7
5	Grammatical error of VC process in TLT	6
6	Errors due to morphological typology	5
7	Translation intrusive, retain SLT	5
8	Omission of SLT from TLT	4
9	Local errors of participants	3
10	Inappropriate technical vocabulary	2
11	miscellaneous	2
12	No error	0

Box Two: Constitution Classification and Edition Box

There + to be process	**existent**	***Circumstantial Adjunct*[8]**			
				SLT[9]	**بند**
				SLT Constituent Analysis and editing[10]	

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

[9] Source Language Text is placed here.
[10] The source language text, if needed, is edited and divided into chunks or constituents

				TLT[11] (Google.Translate)	
Error Weight		**Error Code**		**Description of constituent error(s)[12]**	
				Editing TLT considering textual and experiential metafunctions[13]	

MJLTM

[11] Target Language Text is placed here.
[12] The probable errors in TLT done by Google translate are evaluated by the translation evaluation model of HAR to codify and weight the errors.
[13] In this part, TLT is edited by human translator considering the textual and experiential metafunctions.

Special Article in Persian

CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS OF TWO LANGUAGES WITH THE SAME NAME IN TWO DIFFERENT GEOGRAPHIC REGIONS: AINU LANGUAGE IN CHINA AND AINU LANGUAGE IN JAPAN

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بررسی مقابله ای دو زبان هم نام در دو منطقه ی جغرافیایی مختلف: زبان آینوی چین و زبان آینوی ژاپن

چکیده
در این تحقیق مطالعه‌ای برای بررسی مقابله‌ای دو زبان متفاوت اما هم‌نامِ «آینو» از دو منطقه ی جغرافیایی مختلف، صورت گرفته است. یکی از این زبان‌ها در منطقه‌ی سین‌کیانگ چین و دیگری در جزایر هوکایدو و ساخالین در منطقه‌ای در نزدیکی ژاپن و روسیه تکلم می شود. با وجود عدم ارتباط این دو زبان با یکدیگر، تشابه اسمی موجود، موجب به وجود آمدن برخی سوء تفاهم‌ها در مورد ریشه و خاستگاه آن‌ها شده است؛ تا جایی که برخی به اشتباه تصور می‌کنند که این دو زبان متفاوت در واقع یک زبان هستند و حتی این زبان فرضی را از خانواده‌ی زبان‌های ایرانی در نظر گرفته‌اند. در این تحقیق با مطالعه‌ی پیشینه‌ی تاریخی و نژادی این دو قوم، بررسی مقابله‌ای برخی واژگان، مقایسه‌ی سیستم شمارش و نظام نوشتاری و نیز موقعیت جغرافیایی آن‌ها، تلاش شده است تا برخی سوء تفاهم‌های پیش آمده برطرف گردد. بر اساس نتایج به دست آمده می‌توان ادعا کرد که زبان آینوی چین که در ایالت سین‌کیانگ تکلم می‌شود، همان زبان اویغوری، از شاخه‌ی زبان‌های اورال–آلتایی است که واژه‌های بسیاری از زبان‌های ایرانی و به‌ویژه زبان فارسی به آن راه یافته است؛ اما بر خلاف ادعای برخی صاحب‌نظران، نمی‌توان به‌طور حتم ادعا کرد که این زبان، زبانی ایرانی است؛ و نیز نتیجه گرفت که زبان آینوی ژاپن، هیچ‌گونه ارتباطی با زبان‌های ژاپنی و ایرانی ندارد. به دلیل مسائل فرهنگی و سیاسی، هم‌اکنون زبان آینوی چین شدیداً در معرض خطر نابودی و انقراض قرار دارد، اما زبان آینوی ژاپن از موقعیت فرهنگی و اجتماعی نسبتاً مناسبی برخوردار است.
کلمات کلیدی: زبان آینو، زبان فارسی، زبان اویغوری، زبان ژاپنی

1- مقدمه

در دنیا زبان‌هایی وجود دارد که اطلاعات کمی درباره‌ی آن‌ها در دست است. برخی از این زبان‌ها به دلیل نداشتن نظام نوشتاری و اقلیت گویشوران در یک منطقه‌ی جغرافیایی خاص در معرض خطر انقراض هستند. زبان آینو در جزایر هوکایدو و ساخالین ژاپن از جمله‌ی این زبان‌هاست. تعداد بسیار کمی گویشور به زبان آینو وجود دارد. زبان دیگری به همین نام در ایالت سین‌کیانگ چین وجود دارد. شباهت نام این دو زبان و این مسأله که کدام یک از آن‌ها زبانی ایرانی‌ست، موجب ایجاد سوء تفاهم‌ها و درگیری‌های فرهنگی بسیاری به‌ویژه در فضای مجازی شده است. بسیاری این دو زبان را یک زبان فرض کرده‌اند و به‌همین دلیل تناقض‌های بسیاری در مطالعات و اطلاعات مربوط به این دو زبان وجود دارد. زبان آینو در جزایرهوکایدو و ساخالین در ارتباط با زبان ژاپنی هستند. در واقع ارتباط زبانی بین این دو زبان وجود ندارد، تنها به دلیل نزدیکی جغرافیایی و تاریخی، زبان آینو همواره در کنار زبان ژاپنی می‌آید. زبان آینوی چین هم ارتباط نزدیکی با زبان‌های اویغوری (از شاخه‌ی زبان‌های اورال-آلتایی) و فارسی دارد.

سایت تابناک مطلبی از حمید شفیع‌زاده منتشر کرده است که ادعا می‌کند گروهی ایرانی تبار در چین و ژاپن مورد تبعیض نژادی دولت ژاپن هستند و درخواست شده است که ایرانیان این قوم را حمایت و کمک کنند (http://www.tabnak.ir : 1391). بهنام جاهدزاده در وب‌سایت مرکز مطالعات ژاپن از نشر اطلاعات ضد و نقیض درباره‌ی اقوام ایرانی در ژاپن سخن می‌گوید و چنین شایعات غیرعلمی و اثبات نشده‌ای را رد می‌کند(http://japanstudies.ir : 1391). ویکی‌پدیا در مدخل آینو به معرفی زبان آینو پرداخته و یادآوری کرده است که «با زبان آینو (ژاپن) اشتباه نشود» و سپس ذکر می‌کند که گروهی ایرانی در زمان ساسانیان به چین و ژاپن مهاجرت کرده‌اند و خود را عبدال می نامند و سپس در مدخل آینوی ژاپن می‌گوید که این زبان در روسیه و ژاپن تکلم می شده است (www.wikipedia.com : 1392).

در این مقاله سعی بر آن است تا ضمن معرفی مختصری از زبان‌های ژاپنی و اویغوری به توصیف دو زبان آینوی ژاپن و چین بپردازیم و چگونگی ارتباط این زبان‌ها را با هم بررسی کنیم.

2-پیشینه تحقیق

2-1- آینوی ژاپن

در سال 1990 ماسایوشی شیباتانی[14] کتابی به نام «زبان های ژاپن» منتشر کرد و در آن به مقایسه‌ی مفصلی از دو زبان ژاپنی و آینو پرداخت. در سال 2001، برت ل. واکر [15] به شرح نسبتاً مفصلی از فرهنگ و تاریخ آینوی ژاپن پرداخت و روابط سیاسی و فرهنگی آینو با روسیه و ژاپن را به تفصیل شرح داد. دایرةالمعارف جامع زبان‌های دنیا با نظارت کیت براون[16] (2009) و همکاری بسیاری از زبان شناسان از سراسر دنیا بسیاری از زبان‌های دنیا از جمله آینوی ژاپن را معرفی کرده اما اشاره‌ای به آینوی چین نشده است.

2-2- آینوی چین

نخستین بار در دهه‌های 1970 و 1980 بود که توجه زبانشناسان به زبان آینوی چین جلب شد. محققانی چون هاکسیم[17] و ژائو[18] (1982 , 1981) ، لادستاتر[19] و تیته[20] (1994) و ووروم[21] (1997) تحقیقات بسیاری درباره‌ی این زبان انجام دادند (رابیتز[22] ، 2012: 383). در اطلس زبان‌های اقیانوسیه، آسیا و آمریکا، بخشی به زبان آینوی چین اختصاص داده شده است که درآن می و. لی اسمیت[23] به شرح نسبتا جامعی از این زبان پرداخته است.

3-2- اویغوری

مطالعات بسیاری بر روی خانواده‌ی زبان ترکی انجام شده است. جانسون[24] (2001) تمامی شاخه‌های زبان ترکی را بررسی کرده است و به شرح زبان آینوی چین -که در ارتباط با زبان ترکی اویغوری است- نیز پرداخته است. همچنین جواد هیئت به طور جامع تاریخ و ریشه‌ی زبان‌های ترکی را در کتاب «سیری در تاریخ زبان و لهجه های ترکی» شرح می‌دهد (هیئت: 1380).

به‌طور کلی مطالعات علمی و موثقی در ایران بر روی دو زبان آینوی ژاپن و چین صورت نگرفته و تنها در سایت های فرهنگی آنلاین اشاراتی به این زبان‌ها شده است که اکثر این اطلاعات و مطالب متناقض و غیر قابل استناد هستند.

3- بحث و تحلیل

1-3- زبان اویغوری

زبان ترکی از لحاظ نسبی و تباری جزء زبان‌های اورال-آلتایی[25] یا به بیان صحیح‌تر از گروه زبان‌های آلتایی است. زبان اویغوری که یکی از شاخه‌های زبان‌های ترکی است، در غرب چین در ایالت خودمختار سین‌کیانگ زبان ساکنان بومی این منطقه است. نظام نوشتاری این زبان همان نظام نوشتاری عربی است اما برخی نویسه‌ها کمی متفاوت است و 35 درصد لغات و کلمات آن از زبان فارسی به عاریت گرفته شده است که اغلب به همان معنای فارسی خود و در برخی از کلمات در معنایی غیر از معنی اصلی به کار برده می‌شود. درحالی که نظام نوشتاری تمام شاخه‌های زبان ترکی در سراسر جهان تغییر کرده است، زبان اویغوری تنها زبان ترکی در جهان امروز است که نظام نوشتاری عربی خود را حفظ کرده است (سابقی، 1384: 81).

ساکنان بومی پیش از ورود مغول‌ها، قبایلی نظیر سکاها، تخاری‌ها و سغدها بوده‌اند که به زبان فارسی سخن می‌گفتند و در این منطقه زندگی می‌کردند، آن‌ها از نظر زبان و فرهنگ به فارس‌ها خیلی نزدیک بودند و با افسانه‌های قدیم فارسی آشنایی زیادی داشتند (سلیمان، 1382: 45). در قرن 9 هجری قمری (840 میلادی) به علت بروز قحطی و خشکسالی و بحران اجتماعی در فلات مغولستان، تعداد زیادی از مغول‌ها از محل سکونت خود مهاجرت کردند و به سرزمین سین‌کیانگ وارد شدند و از اختلاط مهاجران و سایر اقوام ترک با ساکنان بومی، نژاد جدیدی به وجود آمد که بعدها به «اویغور» معروف شدند (سابقی، 1384: 82). براساس اظهارات آقای دکتر ضمیر سعدالله، محقق آکادمی علوم اجتماعی سین‌کیانگ، هنوز هم در منطقه‌ای بین یارکند و ختن گروهی از بازماندگان اقوام ایرانی سکونت دارند که از نظر فرهنگ و گویش زبانی بسیار به اقوام قدیمی شرق ایران شباهت دارند (سابقی، 1384: 82).

2-3- آینوی چین

در امتداد جاده ابریشم از کاشغر تا ختن، در منطقه خود مختار سینگ‌کیانگ[26] چین، گروه کوچکی زندگی می‌کنند که خود را آینو می‌نامند (لی اسمیت، 1996: 851). آینوها رسماً تحت ملیت اویغور هستند، اما خود این مردم ادعا می‌کنند که بازماندگان ایرانیان باستان هستند. در حدود قرن 16-17، هنگامی که فعالیت‌های جاده ابریشم کمتر شده بود، تعدادی از تاجران پارسی در جاده ابریشم، در مناطقی که امروزه آینوها

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[14] Masayoshi Shibatani
[15] Brett L.Walker
[16] Keith Brown
[17] Haxim
[18] Zhao
[19] Ladstatter
[20] Tietze
[21] Wurum
[22] Robbeets
[23] Mei W.Lee-Smith
[24] Johnson
[25] زبان‌های اورال-آلتایی به مجموعه‌ی زبان‌هایی گفته می‌شود که مردمان متکلم به آن‌ها از منطقه ی بین کوه‌های اورال و آلتایی (در شمال ترکستان) برخاسته و هر گروه در زمان‌های مختلف به نقاط مختلف مهاجرت کرده‌اند. این گروه زبان‌ها شامل زبان‌های فنلاند، مجارستان(اورالیک) و زبان‌های ترکی، مغول، منچو و توفقوز (زبان های آلتایی) است (هیئت، 1365: 18).
[26] *Xinjiang*

زندگی می کنند، ساکن شدند. بر اثر توقف تجارت در جاده ابریشم، این ایرانیان در آن منطقه ماندند و با اویغورها ازدواج کردند و از حاصل امتزاج این دو، قوم آینو (عبدال[27]) پدید آمد(لی اسمیت، 1996: 851).
بیشتر واژه‌های زبان آینو ریشه فارسی دارند، در حالی که از لحاظ مورفولوژی و نحو اویغوری هستند (مائوریس[28]، 2004: 159). برخی محققان بر آنند که این زبان ترکیبی از دو زبان فارسی و اویغوری است اما روشن است که این زبان همان زبان اویغوری است با واژه‌هایی از ریشه غیرترکی (جانسون، 2001: 22). در تحقیقی که توسط دو زبان شناس چینی به نام های ژائو و هاکسیم انجام شد، آن‌ها 4200 واژه‌ی پرکاربرد را انتخاب و بررسی کردند و به اشتراکات بسیاری میان آینو و اویغوری پی بردند. طی یک بازبینی دقیق تر، مشخص شد که بیشتر این واژه‌های مشترک از ریشه فارسی یا عربی بودند. از آنجا که زبان اویغوری شمار بسیاری وام واژه‌ی فارسی و عربی دارد، نشان می‌دهد که تأثیر فارسی-عربی در آینو بسیار چشمگیر است (لی اسمیت، 1996: 852). نظریه‌ی دیگر حاکی از این است که اگر آینوها را مهاجران ایرانی بدانیم که مدت‌ها پیش به آن منطقه مهاجرت کرده‌اند، می‌توان گفت زبان آن‌ها فارسی است که تحت تأثیر بسیار شدید زبان اویغوری قرار گرفته است. تا جایی که تنها شاهد ایرانی بودن این زبان واژه‌های فارسی در این زبان است (رابیتز، 2012: 386) .

3-2-1- اعداد در زبان آینوی چین

از آنجا که اعداد زبان آینو به عنوان شاهدی بر ارتباط این زبان با زبان فارسی به کار می‌رود، در این قسمت اعداد و نظام شمارش تا حد امکان در این زبان و نیز در زبان آینوی ژاپن بررسی می‌شود. سیستم اعداد در زبان آینو نمونه‌ای از ترکیب زبان فارسی با اویغوری است. اعداد اصلی فارسی هستند، در حالی که اعداد ترتیبی تشکیل شده‌اند از واژه‌ی فارسی با پسوندهای اویغوری (لی اسمیت، 1996: 852).

فارسی	آینو*
jek	jɛk
do	du
se	si
tʃah*a*:r	tʃar
pandʒ	pɛndʒ
ʃeʃ	ʃɛʃ
haft	hɛp
haʃt	hɛʃ
noh	noh
dah	dɛh

* اطلس زبان های ارتباط بینافرهنگی در اقیانوس آرام، آسیا و آمریکا[29]. زبان آینو. لی اسمیت: صص. 4-853.

	آینو *	فارسی
40	tʃarum	tʃah*a*:rom
50	pɛndʒum	pandʒom
60	ʃɛʃum	ʃeʃom
70	hɛptum	haftom
80	haʃtum	haʃtom
90	nohum	nohom

اعداد ترتیبی فارسی در زبان آینوی چین از چهارم تا نهم تحت یک تغییر معنایی قرار گرفته‌اند و مانند اعداد اصلی از 40 تا 90 ظاهر می‌شوند.

* اطلس زبان های ارتباط بینافرهنگی در اقیانوس آرام، آسیا و آمریکا. زبان آینو. لی اسمیت: صص. 4-853

[27] "عبدل" می نامند؛ اصطلاحی که شدیدا مورد نفرت آینوهاست. این گونه گفته شده است مردمان غیر آینوی مناطق اطراف، این مردم را که عبدل ها از نظر ظاهری بیشتر شبیه ترک ها بودند، اما به زبانی خاص بر پایه ی فارسی صحبت می کردند. آن ها موقعیت اجتماعی بسیار پایینی داشتند و مورد نفرت ترک های محلی و بومی بودند و از طرف آن ها طرد شده بودند (رابیتز، 2012: 382) . پیش از این برخی از آنان دستفروشی یا گدایی می کردند، اما امروزه بسیاری از آنان کشاورزی می کنند (جانسون، 2001: 22) . F.Grenard معتقد است که عبدل ها در حقیقت بازماندگان مهاجران شیعه هستند که بعدها توسط فاتحان سنی سرکوب شدند و به پایین ترین (1898) درجه اجتماعی تنزل یافتند. او معتقد است که عبدل ها تلاش کردند تا به عنوان سنی پذیرفته شوند اما همچنان وفاداری خود را به شیعه نشان می دادند. آن ها به طور پنهان آداب و رسوم مراسم مذهبی شیعی و احترام و اعتقاد به امامان به عنوان بازماندگان علی(ع) را حفظ کرده بودند . بزرگترین اقدام مخفیانه آن ها برگزاری مراسم عزاداری حسین(ع) بوده است (لی اسمیت، 1996: 851).

[28] Maurais

[29] Atlas of Languages of Intercultural Communication in the Pacific, Asia and the Americas

** همان

اعداد ترتیبی آینو شامل اعداد اصلی فارسی با پسوند های اویغوری (-indʒi / -ndʒi) می‌شود.

فارسی	اویغوری*	آینو**
Jekom	birintʃi	jɛkindʒi
dovom	ikkintʃi	durundʒi
sevom	ytʃintʃi	sirindʒi
tʃaha:rom	bɛʃintʃi	tʃarindʒi
pandʒom	altintʃi	pɛndʒindʒi
ʃeʃom	jɛttintʃi	ʃɛʃindʒi
haftom	sɛkkizintʃi	hɛpindʒi
haʃtom	toqquzintʃi	hɛʃindʒi
nohom	onintʃi	norindʒi
dahom	jigirmintʃi	dɛhindʒi
bistom	ottuzintʃi	bistindʒi
Sijom	_____	sehindʒi

3-2-2- خط آینوی چین

بر اساس سایت رسمی زبان‌ها و خط‌های دنیا (omniglot: 2013) زبان آینوی چین به خط مأخوذ از عربی نوشته می‌شود. چند نویسه برای نشان دادن واجگونه‌ها و واکه‌های زبان آینو آورده شده است.

ز	ر	د	خ	چ	ج	ت	پ	ب	ه	ا
z	r	d	x	č	j	t	p	b	ä	a
[z]	[r]	[d]	[χ]	[ʧ]	[ʤ]	[t]	[p]	[b]	[ɛ]	[a]
ن	م	لا	ل	ڭ	گ	ك	ق	غ	ش	س
n	m	la	i	ṅ	g	k	q	ġ	š	s
[n]	[m]	[la]	[l]	[ŋ]	[g]	[k]	[q]	[ʁ]	[ʃ]	[s]
	ئ	ي	ى	ې	ۋ	ۇ	ۆ	ۇ	و	ھ
	ʼ	y	i	e	v	ü	ö	u	o	h
	[ʔ]	[j]	[i]	[e]	[v]	[ʉ]	[ɵ]	[u]	[o]	[ɦ]

3-4- زبان ژاپنی

ژاپنی زبان رسمی کشور ژاپن است که در کشورهای دیگری مانند تایوان، ایالات متحده و برزیل نیز به آن تکلم می شود. ژاپنی یکی از زبان‌های اصلی دنیاست که از نظر تعداد گویشور با حدود 130 میلیون نفر مقام نهم را در میان زبان‌های جهان داراست (بنتلی[30] ، 2010: 2). از جنبه‌های زبانی و فرهنگی، ژاپن یکی از کشورهای متوازن تر نسبت به کشورهای دیگر است که تحت سلطه ی یک زبان ملی است. اگر چه گویش‌های منطقه‌ای از نظر تلفظ به صورت قابل توجهی متفاوتند و ممکن است حتی فاقد قابلیت فهم متقابل باشند (کمری، 1387: 69) . (کمری، 1387: 69).

منشأ زبان ژاپنی از جمله بحث برانگیزترین پرسش‌های تاریخ زبان است. از طرفی، دستور ژاپنی شبیه به زبان‌های آلتایی مانند مغولی و ممنچو است و از طرف دیگر در استفاده از پیشوندها و سیستم صوتی با همخوان‌های محدود و ترجیح هجاهای باز، ژاپنی شبیه به زبان‌های استرانیزین است که تصور می‌شود منشأ آن‌ها ناحیه‌ی تایوان باشد. کلمات مشخصی نیز ارتباط با استرانیزین را تأیید می‌کنند (همان: 61).

3-5- آینوی ژاپن

[30] Bentley

آینو زبانی تقریبا مرده است که قبل از این در شمالی ترین جزیره ی ژاپنی یعنی هوکایدو و شبه جزیره ی ساخالین روسیه ، یعنی در جایی که احتمالا معدودی گویشور باقی مانده باشند، تکلم می شده است (کمری، 1387: 69). جمعیت فعلی آینو که بیشتر در هوکایدو متمرکز است، حدود 24000 نفر تخمین زده شده است اما به دلیل مهاجرت میان آینوها و ژاپنی ها گفته می شود که آینوهای اصیل تنها حدود یک درصد ا ز این رقم را تشکیل می دهند (شیباتانی، 1990: 15). نژاد آینو با نژاد ژاپنی متفاوت است. ژاپنی ها به نژاد مغولی تعلق دارند و در طی سال ها آینو و ژاپنی چنان با هم آمیخته شده اند که تنها تعداد کمی آینو می توانند ادعا کنند نژاد آینوی خالص دارند (رفسینگ، 1986: 51).

دلیل مقایسه ی همیشگی آینو با ژاپنی این است که بیشتر کسانی که در باره ی آینو تحقیق می کنند زبان مادریشان ژاپنی است یا برای ارتباط با گویندگان ژاپنی به آن سخن می گویند (رفسینگ، 1986: 49) . خاستگاه این زبان همواره پرسشی بی پاسخ بوده است. برخی زبان شناسان احتمال می دهند این زبان یکی از زبان های دوردست آلتایی باشد که حدود 10000 سال پیش از ژاپنی و کره ای جدا شده باشد (68 :1387،کمری) . در هر حال این نظریه که زبان آینوی ژاپن زبانی مستقل[31] و ایزوله است مورد توافق بسیاری از صاحب نظران است. گروهی از زبان شناسان معتقدند که آینو متعلق به خانواده های زبانی اورال-آلتایی[32] و هندواروپایی[33] یا همخانواده زبان‌های منفردی مانند اسکیمو[34] می باشد. فرضیه‌ی ارتباط آینو با ژاپنی هم توسط بسیاری از پژوهشگران مطرح شده است، اما جز شباهت هایی به سبب واژه های قرضی و ویژگی های گونه شناسی و نشانه شناسی که در ترتیب اجزای جمله (S.O.V) وجود دارد، شواهد موثق دیگری برای ارتباط بین این زبان ها یافته نشده است (شیباتانی، 1990: 6-15) و به نظر می رسد تفاوت آینو با ژاپنی و کره ای بیشتر از تفاوت ژاپنی و کره ای با یکدیگر باشد (کمری، 1387: 61) .

خانواده ی زبانی کوچک دیگری به نام "آسیایی کهن" نیز وجود دارد که چندان اصطلاح دقیقی نیست و برای نامیدن تعدادی زبان در سیبری شمالی و شرقی به کار رفته است. برخی صاحب نظران آینو را که در ژاپن تکلم می شود در آن می گنجانند (کنت، 1376: 36). این فرضیه در حد گمان است و در هر حال به نظر می رسد که آینو هیچ گونه نسبتی با دیگر زبان های جهان ندارد و هم اکنون در آستانه ی انقراض است (380:همان) .

آینو ادبیات شفاهی بسیار غنی دارد. علاوه بر انواع گوناگون آوازها، مثلا آوازهای عاشقانه یا آواز قایق رانی، ادبیات آینو شامل شعر و نثر هم می شود. قالب های شعری به طور کلی در آینو "یوکر"[35] نامیده می شود که اشعار حماسی مربوط به خدایان یا عشق و جنگ قهرمانان می شود. زبان یوکر به روشنی با زبان گفتار متفاوت است و زبانی محافظه کارتر است که گوناگونی های لهجه ای کمتری نسبت به زبان محاوره دارد. این دو زبان هم در نحو و هم در واژگان ، تفاوت هایی از خود بروز می دهند، هر چند هم پوشانی های بسیاری دارند (شباتانی، 1990: 15).

1-6- عدد در آینوی ژاپن

در زبان آینوی ژاپن اعداد 1 تا 9 به این ترتیب است :

	ژاپنی*	آینو**
1	*ichi*	Shine
2	*ni*	tu
3	*san*	re
4	*shi*	ine
5	*go*	ashikne
6	*roku*	iwan
7	*shichi*	arawan
8	*hachi*	tupesan
9	*ku*	shinepesan

* دیکشنری ژاپنی- انگلیسی[36]. صص. 630، 757، 1378، 1436، 1847، 1893، 2135، 2417

** دیکشنری انگلیسی- آینو[37] . بخش دوم. ص 10

[31] منظور از اصطلاح زبان های مستقل این است که این زبان ها به هیچ خانواده ی زبانی خاص تعلق ندارند و فاقد پیوند با هر زبان دیگری می باشند. در طبقه بندی کتاب زبان های جهان ، آمده است که هفت زبان مستقل وجود دارد که به دو دسته ی مهین و کهین تقسیم می شوند . زبان های مهین عبارتند از ژاپنی، کره ای ، ویتنامی و زبان های کهین عبارتند از باسکی در شمال شرقی اسپانیا و جنوب غربی فرانسه ، بوروشاسکی در شمال غربی کشمیر و آینو در هوکایدوی ژاپن. تا کنون کوشش هایی به منظور برقراری ارتباط این زبان ها با هر زبان دیگری صورت گرفته اما هنوز به جایی نرسیده است (کنت، 1376: 42).

[32] Ural-Altaic

[33] Indo-European

[34] Eskimo

[35] Yukar

[36] Japanese- Aynu dictionary

اعداد 11 تا 19 با اضافه کردن اعداد 1 تا 9 به 10 با استفاده از عبارت ikasma به معنی «به اضافه‌ی» ساخته می‌شود .

	ژاپنی *	آینو **
11	*juu ichi*	sine iksama wan
12	*juu ni*	tu iksama wan
13	*juu san*	re iksama wan
14	*juu shi*	ine iksama wan
15	*juu go*	asikne iksama wan
16	*juu roku*	iwan iksama wan
17	*juu shichi*	arwan iksama wan
18	*juu hachi*	tupesan iksama wan
19	*juu ku*	sinepeson iksama wan
20	*ni juu*	hot(ne)

* فهرست واژه های ژاپنی. موقعیت ها و کاربرد های اساسی. 2005 [38]
** رفسینگ، 1986: 112

اعداد بین 20 تا 29 با اضافه کردن اعداد 1 تا 9 به عدد 20 (honte) ساخته می شوند (رفسینگ، 1986: 113) :

	ژاپنی	آینو *
21	*ni juu ichi*	sine ikasma hotne
22	*ni juu ni*	tu ikasma hotne
23	*ni juu san*	re ikasma hotne
24	*ni juu shi*	ine ikasma hotne
25	*ni juu go*	asikne ikasma hotne
26	*ni juu roku*	iwan ikasma hotne
27	*ni juu shichi*	arwan ikasma hotne
28	*ni juu hachi*	tupesan ikasma hotne
29	*ni juu ku*	sinepeson ikasma hotne

* دیکشنری انگلیسی- آینو. بخش دوم. ص.10

اعداد 30 تا 100 نیز به این ترتیب است :

	ژاپنی *	آینو**
30	san juu	wan e tu hotne
40	yuon juu	tu hotne
50	go juu	wan e re hotne
60	roku joo	re hotne
70	nana juu	wan e ine hotne
80	hachi juu	ine hotne
90	kyuu juu	wan e asikne hotne
100	hya ku	asikne hotne

* فهرست واژه های ژاپنی. موقعیت ها و کاربرد های اساسی. 2005
** رفسینگ، 1986: 112

[37] English – Aynu dictionary. part II .
[38] Japanese Vocabulary. Essential Functions and Situations, 2005

2-6- خط آینوی ژاپن

زبان آینو با خطی نوشته می‌شود که گونه‌ای تغییر یافته از خط ژاپنی کاتاکانا[39] می‌باشد. گاهی نیز از حروف لاتین برای نگارش استفاده می‌شود. این خط شامل حروف آغازین و پایانی است (omniglot) .

Initials

ア	a	カ	ka	サ	sa	タ	ta	チャ	ca	ナ	na
イ	i	キ	ki	シ	si			チ	ci	ニ	ni
ウ	u	ク	ku	ス	su	トゥ	tu			ヌ	nu
エ	e	ケ	ke	セ	se	テ	te	チェ	ce	ネ	ne
オ	o	コ	ko	ソ	so	ト	to	チョ	co	ノ	no

ハ	ha	パ	pa	マ	ma	ヤ	ya	ラ	ra	ワ	wa
ヒ	hi	ピ	pi	ミ	mi			リ	ri		
フ	hu	プ	pu	ム	mu	ユ	yu	ル	ru		
ヘ	he	ペ	pe	メ	me	イェ	ye	レ	re	ウェ	we
ホ	ho	ポ	po	モ	mo	ヨ	yo	ロ	ro		

Finals

ク	シ	ッ	ン	プ	ム	イ	ウ	ラ	リ	ル	レ	ロ
k	s	t	n	p	m	y	w	r	r	r	r	r

7- جدول واژگان

فارسی	اویغوری****	آینوی چین***	ژاپنی**	آینوی ژاپن*
pedar	Ata	padɛr	1chichi	Aca
mɑ:dar	Apa	madɛr	2haha	Hapo
xɑ:har	hɛmʃirɛ	hɛmʃirɛ	3ane/imooto	Menoko
barɑ:dar	baradɛr	buradɛr	4ani/ otooto	Okkayo
doxtar	qiz	tuxtɛr	5musume	Menoko
zan	ajal	zɛn	6	Menoko
batʃe	bala	batʃtʃɛ	7kodomo	po/ ekachi
kas	kiʃi	kɛs	8	Aynu
xor	jɛ	xor11	11	e (e)
ku:h	taʁ	kox12	12	Atuy
darjɑ:	dɛrja	dɛrja13	13	at(u)
rismɑ:n	aʁamtʃa	rismal14	14	At

[39] کانا الفبای هجایی است که از کانجی (خط اندیشه‌نگار یا نشانه‌های نگارشی چینیان) گرفته شده و دو گونه است: هیراگانا و کاتاکانا. هر کدام از این دو خط 46 حرف دارند. کاتاکانا شکل دیگری از کاناست که با گرفتن بخشی از نشانه‌های نگارشی چینی و ساده یا کوتاه کردن آن‌ها درست شده است. متن‌های ساده مثل کتاب‌های کودکان به هیراگانا نوشته می‌شود، اما کاتاکانا برای نوشتن واژه‌ها و نام‌های بیگانه یا هنگامی که بخواهند بر کلمه‌ای تأکید کنند به کار می‌رود (رجب‌زاده، 1381: 34).

Pake	15	kard15	pitʃaq	kɑ:rd
Sapa	16atama	sɛr16	baʃ	sar
Apa	19	ɛjnɛk19	ɛjnɛk	ɑ:jene
Ramram	20	dɛrwɛn20	dɛrwaza	darwɑ:ze

* دیکشنری آنلاین انگلیسی- آینو- انگلیسی، Glosbe.com
** فهرست واژه های ژاپنی. موقعیت ها و کاربرد های اساسی. 2005
*** اطلس زبان های ارتباط بینافرهنگی در اقیانوس آرام، آسیا و آمریکا. زبان آینو. لی اسمیت: 4-853
**** همان

8- نتیجه

با توجه به ویژگی‌های زبانی ،آینوی چین و ژاپن هیچ خویشاوندی با یکدیگر ندارند. زبان آینوی چین همان زبان اویغوری است که واژه‌های بسیاری از زبان‌های ایرانی به‌ویژه فارسی در آن راه یافته است و آینوی ژاپن زبانیست کاملاً متفاوت –حتی از زبان ژاپنی- و خود زبانی مستقل و منفرد به شمار می‌آید.

اعداد زبان آینوی چین مانند اعداد در زبان فارسی است و هیچ‌گونه شباهتی با اعداد آینوی ژاپن ندارد. خط این دو زبان نیز کاملاً متفاوت هستند؛ خط آینوی ژاپن از خط ژاپنی گرفته شده است و خط آینوی چین مأخوذ از خط عربی است. بررسی و مقایسه‌ی واژه‌های این زبان‌ها نیز ارتباط این دو زبان را رد می‌کند.

با توجه به این نکات و در نظر گرفتن مسائل تاریخی می‌توان گفت قوم آینو در ژاپن هیچ ارتباطی با آینوی چین ندارد و تنها شباهت نام موجب شده است برخی این دو را یکی بدانند و افزون بر آن به دلیل ارتباط اقوام آینوی چین با ایرانیان، اقوام آینوی ژاپنی نیز قومی ایرانی تصور شود .

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THE IMPACT OF TASK COMPLEXITY ALONG SINGLE TASK DIMENSION ON EFL IRANIAN LEARNERS' WRITTEN PRODUCTION: STRUCTURAL COMPLEXITY

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ABSTRACT

IN RECENT YEARS THERE HAS BEEN AN INCREASING INTEREST IN TASK COMPLEXITY ALONG SINGLE TASK DIMENSION ON EFL IRANIAN LEARNERS' WRITTEN PRODUCTION, NAMELY STRUCTURAL COMPLEXITY. GIVEN THE LACK OF RESEARCH ON THE EFFECTS OF TASK-COMPLEXITY ON WRITTEN PRODUCTIONS, THIS STUDY INTENDS TO EXAMINE THE EFFECTS OF MANIPULATING TASK COMPLEXITY ALONG RESOURCES- DIRECTING FACTORS ON L2 LEARNERS' STRUCTURAL COMPLEXITY. TO THIS END, BASED ON THE RESULTS OF THE WRITING TEST OF TOFEL (2004), 48 LEARNERS WERE SELECTED AND ASSIGNED TO TWO GROUPS, SIMPLE TASK GROUP (STG, N = *24*) AND COMPLEX TASK GROUP (CTG, N=24) RANDOMLY, IN 2015. THE INTER-RATER RELIABILITY WAS CHECKED VIA CRONBACH'S ALPHA, AND A RELATIVELY HIGH RELIABILITY WAS ACHIEVED (A=.89).THE NULL HYPOTHESIS WAS NULLIFIED SINCE THE RESULTS INDICATED POSITIVE SIGNIFICANT IMPACT OF +/-SINGLE DIMENSION ON STRUCTURAL COMPLEXITY. THE RESULTS HAVE INDICATED THAT THE PARTICIPANTS SIGNIFICANTLY GENERATED MORE NUMBER OF WORDS IN THE COMPLEX TASK. THE RESULTS HAVE ALSO SHOWED THAT THE PARTICIPANTS SIGNIFICANTLY PRODUCED A GREATER NUMBER OF CLAUSES IN T-UNITS WHILE PERFORMING THE COMPLEX TASK. THEREFORE, -SINGLE TASK HAD AN OBVIOUS IMPACT ON THE ENHANCEMENT OF THE STRUCTURAL COMPLEXITY. FURTHERMORE, THE OUTCOMES CONVEY CRITICAL AND LIGHTING UP PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS FOR, LANGUAGE TEACHERS, SYLLABUS AND TASK DESIGNERS, SLA RESEARCHERS, AND LANGUAGE TESTERS.

KEY WORDS: *SYNTACTICAL COMPLEXITY: +/- SINGLE TASK DIMENSION; TASK COMPLEXITY*

1. Introduction

Over the past decades, there was a growing interest in the role of tasks in second language learning and teaching. Structural/syntactic complexity is defined as the ability of the learners to generate more structurally complex language which is "at the upper limits of… [one's] interlanguage" (Ortega, 1999, p. 130). Researchers tend to identify the variables of the tasks that are important when designing tasks. Robinson (2001a, 2001b, 2003, 2005, 2007a, 2007b) identifies various elements of task complexity which he argues to be the sole basis in sequencing decisions in task-based syllabus design. Recently, the effect of task characteristics on learners' language production and development is hotly debated. Out of these controversies over the sequence and assessment of tasks (Robinson, 2005; Skehan, 1998), a new area of research (i.e., information processing research) has been arisen, which generally focuses on the role of attention (Skehan, 1996) and the central executive processing (Carroll, 2008) in learning and deals with the manipulation of various features of the tasks and the investigation of its effect on linguistic performance, especially different aspects of production. However, the findings of these studies have not been conclusive; they suggest that more complex tasks positively impact linguistic performance in general, yet more specific findings related to both accuracy and syntactic complexity only partially supported the cognition hypothesis (e.g., promoting either complexity or accuracy). In Iran, there is not enough opportunity to be exposed to the English language due to the fact that English is not used outside the classroom; therefore, it is up to teacher, syllabus designers, and materials developers to provide tasks with

different conditions and characteristics to fill this gap. However, this purpose required a lot of research. This study might be a good contribution to them in this regard.

The significance of this study is that task conditions and features exert an influence on directing attention towards the formulation processes. This demonstrates the significance of investigating task conditions and their impact on attention while L2 writing being accomplished. Nonetheless, some task conditions, due to various unknown reasons, have not received the attention they deserved, and one of them is + single task from Robinson's (2005) framework. The main strong claim of this approach is that it can activate the cognitive and acquisitional processes while learners are busy performing tasks and accomplishing their goals (Skehan, 2003). Recently, the effect of task characteristics on learners' language production and development is hotly debated (Bygate, 1999; Ellis, 2003; Robinson, 2003, 2005; Schmidt, 2001; Skehan & Foster, 2001; Tavakoli & Skehan, 2008). Another motivation for conducting this study is theoretically-based. Therefore, the purpose of this paper was to review the recent research into the task complexity on Iranian EFL learners' L2 structural/syntactic complexity.

2. Review of literature

In recent years, there has been an increasing amount of literature on task-based language teaching. Various studies have been conducted to examine the different dimensions and their effect on the actual performance of L2 learners (such as Iwashita, Elder, & McNamara, 2001; Masrom, Daud, & Alwi, 2015; Ortega, 1999; Rahimpour, 2007; RimaniNikou, & Eskandarsefat, 2012; Skehan & Foster, 1997; Wigglesworth, 1997; Yuan & Ellis, 2003; Van Waes, & Leijten, 2015). Even some of these studies have been designed to zero in on the synergistic effects of some dimensions together (such as Farahani & Meraji, 2011; Izadpanah & Shajeri, 2014, 2016; Kuiken & Vedder, 2008; Sotoudehnama & Farahanynia, 2014). Tasks are nowadays "the potential building blocks of second language instruction" (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 223), and knowing their exact nature is of paramount importance. Various definitions have been proposed by different experts (such as Bachman & Palmer, 1996; Breen, 1989; Bygate, 1999; Bygate, Skehan, & Swain, 2001; Crookes, 1986; Izadpanah & Shajeri, 2016; Lee, 2000; Long, 1985; Nunan, 1989; Richards, Platt, & Weber, 1985; Skehan, 1996, 1998; Swales, 1990.

Investigating the impact of planning time (a resource-directing dimension), Ellis (1987) focused on three forms of past tense, the regular past, the irregular past, and the copula. He observed that the less the planning time, the less accurately these forms were utilized. He declares that the irregular forms are retrieved from the exemplar-based system (item-system) while the regular ones tap into the rule-based system. By limiting the planning time, the accurate retrieval of irregular forms is sustained since they are treated as a whole and do not require any additional time for construction.

Robinson (1995b) designed a study to investigate the role of manipulating task complexity along +/- Here-and-Now aspects on the L2 oral narrative performance of learners. The participants of his study generated more accurate, more lexically complex, and less fluent language in the most complex task. However, the role of task complexity on structural complexity turned out to be insignificant. These results are in consonant with what Berwick (1993) reported in his study. He observed that 'experiential tasks' (i.e., Here-and-Now, context embedded) primed the participants to utilize more anaphora and less complex language in comparison with 'expository tasks' (i.e., There-and-Then, context reduced).

In their study, Robinson, Ting and Urwin (1996) focused on the effect of no planning time vs. 3-minute planning time on two modes of narrative discourse, namely oral and written ones. No significant difference was found for the written discourse between the two planning conditions. However, in spoken narrative discourse, the fluency of the learners' production was enhanced in the planning condition in comparison with the unplanned condition. No significant effect was found for accuracy (measured by the accurate use of verb morphology, of tense markers, and of measure words).

In her study, Mehnert (1998) designed four groups: 1) no planning time, 2) one minute planning, 3) five minute planning, and 4) ten minute planning. She reported that the participants in the last group generated more fluent, more accurate, and more lexically complex language. However, the results indicated no significant effect for structural complexity.

Investigating the role of +here-and-now, Skehan and Foster (1999, pp. 104-105) designed four conditions: 1) watch and tell simultaneously, 2) storyline given, then watch and tell simultaneously, 3) watch

first, then watch and tell simultaneously and 4) watch first, then tell. They found out that "tasks containing clearer inherent sequential structure" (Skehan & Foster, 1999, p. 112) would draw the learners' attention towards the fluency and task completion as well as the accuracy of their production.

Investigating "different sources of planning (teacher-led, solitary, and group-based) as well as different foci for planning (toward language or toward content)" (p. 215), Foster and Skehan (1999) formed six groups: 1) teacher-led and focus on language, 2) group-based and focus on language, 3) teacher-led and focus on content, 4) group-based and focus on language, 5) solitary 6) control group. The results of their study revealed that group two and group t significantly generated greater accuracy; however, there was no significant difference between different focuses (language or content). The solitary group produced the most fluent and complex language.

Focusing on testing situations, Iwashita, et al. (2001) explored the effect of planning time and +/- here-and-now dimensions. There were 193 pre-university students who were asked to talk about a set of pictures with or without seeing the pictures at the time of narrating. Rasch methods were used for data analysis. The results indicated no significant increase or decrease in learners' fluency and complexity from the simpler tasks to the complex ones. However, the accuracy of their performance significantly enhanced. They argue that maybe the inconsistency of findings in SLA research is due to "the differences in testing and pedagogic contexts [which] are so great as to alter the cognitive focus of the tasks" (Iwashita, et al., 2001, p. 429).

Inspecting the role of planning (pre-task and on-line planning) on L2 oral performance, Yuan and Ellis (2003) formed three groups: 1) group with no pre-task planning time, 2) group with 10 minutes planning time, and 3) group with no pre-task planning time but 'on-line' planning time. The on-line planning time group generated greater structural complexity and more error-free clauses. Structural complexity and lexical complexity of the group with pre-task planning augmented. No significant effect was found for accuracy measures. It seemed that the available time before the task directed the participants' attention towards the fluency and meaning conveyance, while the time available during the task provided opportunities for them to call their attention towards accuracy and monitoring their output.

Investigating the impact of the planning time on the learners' writing, Ellis and Yuan (2004, p. 59) used three task conditions: "[1] pretask planning, [2] unpressured on-line planning, and [3] no planning)". Forty two Chinese learners were participated in this study. Participants in the pre-task planning generated the most fluent language. Participants in the pre-task planning and unpressured on-line planning produced greater structural complexity. Following Kellog's (1996, as cited in Ellis & Yuan, 2004) writing model, Ellis and Yuan (2004) made an attempt to explain the results based on the three stages of writing: 1) formulating, 2) executing, and 3) monitoring. They came to the conclusion that when more time was available before the task, most probably the leaners focused on the formulation process while unpressured on-line planning assisted them to focus more on the monitoring process. Since in the group with no planning, the participants had to devote their limited attentional capacity to all three processes simultaneously in the allocated time, they could not yield any improvement in the three measures, meaning that they generated less accurate, less complex, and less fluent language.

In his study, Kawauchi (2005) asked the learners of three different proficiency levels (advanced, high, and low group) perform the main task (oral narrations) without any planning opportunity; after that, they were asked to do three pre-tasks (composing a draft, rehearsing, and reading an L2 model) and were given 10 minutes as pre-task planning time. Afterwards, they redo the main task. The advanced proficient learners did not significantly gain more on the measures of structural complexity, accuracy, and fluency under the planning condition while under the strategic planning condition (pre-task planning), the high proficient learners' fluency enhanced.

Focusing on testing situations, Tavakoli and Skehan (2005) designed a study in which four degrees of the task structure was utilized. Two planning conditions were used: no planning and 5 minute planning. Two proficiency levels were investigated: elementary and intermediate levels. The participants in the planning group yielded more fluent, more accurate, and more complex language. The performance on the participants in the intermediate groups was more complex and more error-free. Based on the findings, the effect of the planning time was significant for fluency.

Rouhi and Marefat (2006) conducted a study to investigate the role of planning dimension on thirty seven EFL Iranian learners' written and oral performance. They devised three tasks: 1) no planning time and oral production, 2) planning time and oral production, and 3) on-line planning and written production. It was

found that in comparison with group1, the fluency and accuracy of group 2 and 3 significantly improved. However, no group gained more on the measures of complexity measures. They also declared that both planning time and modality exerted significant effect on fluency and accuracy but not on complexity.

Inspecting the role of manipulating task complexity along +/-Here-and-Now dimensions, Ishikawa (2007) argues that in There-and-Then condition, the role of short term memory is of paramount importance since the story plot must be sustained in it for future retrieval. This would increase the cognitive load which primes learners for deeper semantic processing, which gives rise to greater lexical and syntactic complexity. In his experimental study, Ishikawa observed significantly less accuracy, less structural complexity, and less lexical variety in the Here-and-Now dimension, while in the There-and-Then condition, the learners produced less words (less fluency), which is in consonant with Robinson's (2005) cognition hypothesis.

Gilabert (2007) explored the effect of +/- planning time and +/- Here-and-Now dimensions on oral narratives via using four strips. Based on the findings, In terms of +/- Here-and-Now dimensions, higher accuracy, less lexical complexity, less fluency was observed for - Here-and-Now dimensions. Planning opportunity was found to improve the fluency, lexical complexity, and accuracy of the production. However, no significant effect was reported for the measures of structural complexity.

Rahimpour (2007) conducted a study to inspect the impact of Here-and-Now and There-and-Then tasks on oral production. Twenty Iranian learners of English were served as the participants of the study. The results revealed that in the complex task (There-and-Then dimension), the participants generated greater accuracy, less fluency, and less complexity. Rahimpour (2007), like Robinson's (2001b, 2005) arguments, attributed greater accuracy and complexity to greater pragmatic demands of more complex task.

Kuiken and Vedder (2008) designed a study to explore the role of task complexity and proficiency levels. Ninety one Italian students (from first, second, and third year of university) and seventy six French students (first and second year of university) was adopted as the participants of the study. The simple and complex tasks were performed by the participants twice during the year. In terms of accuracy measures, Italian and French learners gained more on the measures of accuracy in the more complex task; nevertheless, no significant effect was found for structural complexity and lexical complexity. The interaction between task complexity and proficiency levels turned out to be insignificant in all measures.

Delving into impact of immediacy (+/- Here-and-Now dimension) and pre-task planning time, Farahani and Meraji (2011) devised four conditions: 1) Here-and-Now with no pre-planning time, 2) Here-and-Now with 14 minutes as pre-planning time, 3) There-and-Then with no pre-planning time, 4) There-and-Then with 14 minutes as pre-planning time. One hundred and twenty Iranian learners were served as the participant of this study. Their written performance was coded based on the measures of fluency, accuracy, and complexity. The results indicate that the groups with planning time increased their grammatical accuracy and generated more structurally complex language. In +/-Here-and-Now groups, no significant effect of accuracy and structural complexity was found. The manipulation of both dimensions (planning and immediacy) led to no significant difference in the lexical complexity of their written performance, but brought about greater fluency.

In their study, Salimi, Dadaspour, and Asadollahfam (2011) focused on the resource-directing factors on 29 learners' written performance in terms of accuracy, fluency, and complexity. Accuracy was quantified by the number of error-free T-units per T-units, fluency by number of words per T-units, and complexity by a measure of S-nodes per T-units. The results indicated that the accuracy of the participants' performance was not significantly changed from the simple to the complex tasks. Manipulating task complexity had a significant positive effect on the fluency and the complexity of their production. Their findings were in consistent with Cognition Hypothesis (Robinson, 2005, 2007b).

RimaniNikou and Eskandarsefat (2012) designed their study to delve into the effect of both task complexity and task type. They utilized two types of tasks: decision-making and information-gap. Sixty EFL Iranian learners were asked to accomplish simple decision making and information gap tasks and complex decision making and information gap tasks with the interval of two weeks. They reported significant effects of task complexity just on accuracy and fluency but not on syntactic complexity. Regarding information-gap tasks, the learners significantly produced more free-error clauses and greater number of words. The results also indicated that just fluency significantly differs in the two task types.

Abdollahzadeh and Fard Kashani (2012) investigated the role of +/- here-and-now dimension on the written narrative performance with different language proficiency levels. They found that both manipulating

task complexity and considering proficiency levels had significant positive effect on the accuracy and complexity of the participants' production, meaning that the complex task triggered high-proficient learners to generate significantly more complex and accurate language. No significant effect was found for fluency.

Sotoudehnama and Farahanynia (2014) explored the role of cognitive task complexity across writing proficiency levels. Based on the scores of the writing test of TOFEL (2004), the participants were divided into two groups: high- proficient and low-proficient writers. They declared that language proficiency levels may be different from writing proficiency levels (Cooper, 1984), and since in their study, they focused on the written performance of the participants, they chose to focus on writing proficiency levels. Two groups performed the simple task (i.e., narrating a set of pictures) and the complex task (i.e., writing about an argumentative topic) with the interval of one week. Their written performance was coded based on the measures of accuracy, fluency, and complexity taken from Larsen-freeman (2006). Four two-way mixed-design ANOVAs were run. The results indicated that the complex task primed learner to produce less error free clauses, more structurally complex language, and more number of words. No significant interaction between task complexity and writing proficiency was found. They claimed that Skehan's predictions turned out to be more accurate in the Iranian context.

As mentioned earlier, Within the framework of task-based language learning, the role of task complexity in L2 learners' performance has attracted studies in the realm of SLA research (Abdullazadeh & Fard Kashani, 2011; Gilabert 2005; Robinson 2001b;Yuan & Ellis 2003); In contrast to the other dimensions of task complexity such as ±planning time (Crookes, 1989; Skehan & Foster, 2001; Ellis 2005) and ±prior knowledge (G. Brown, 1995; Barry & Lazarte, 1998; Urwin , 1999) , few studies have investigated the effects of manipulating ±single task.

Whereas the effect of task complexity on oral language production has caught many researchers' attention in the past twenty years, there is considerably less research on how different complexity levels of task influence written output of FL learners. As is clear, some of the elements in Robinson's (2005, 2007) framework have been investigated to a great extent, such as +/- planning dimension (e.g., Ellis & Yuan, 2004; Foster & Skehan, 1996, 1999;n Mehnert, 1998; Skehan & Foster, 1997Wigglesworth, 2001; Yuan & Ellis, 2003) and +/-Here-and-Now dimension (Berwick, 1993; Ishikawa, 2007; Masrom, Daud, & Alwi, 2015; Mehrinejad, and Aliasin, 2015; Rahimpour, 2007; Skehan & Foster, 1999) or even their synergistic effect (Farahani & Meraji, 2011; Iwashita, Elder, & McNamara 2001). However, one of the dimensions under the resource-depleting feature, namely +/-single task (i.e., the number of tasks that have to be performed simultaneously), has been somehow unnoticed. An elaboration on the design and method of the study is presented below.

3. Method

3.1. Design of the Study

In the current study, a pretest (Writing Proficiency section of TOEFL) was used and the participants were randomly assigned to two groups; however, since there was no control group, this study had an experimental comparison group design (a between-subject design). The main independent variable was task complexity with two levels (simple task vs. complex task), and the dependent variable was dimension of language production, namely, structural complexity.

3.2. Participants

Initially, the homogeneity of the participants' writing proficiency was checked. To this end, the writing section of the TOEFL (2004) was administered to the Iranian EFL learners (N=72) as a pre-writing test. Their written performance was rated based on Jacobs, Zinkgraf, Wormuth, Hartfeil, and Hughey's (1981) scoring profile , which consists of five sub-parts, i.e., content, vocabulary, language, organization, and mechanics (cited in Weigle, 2002) by two skillful teachers. Based on the results, those participants whose scores were between one SD above and below the mean (i.e., between 66.15 and 75.71) (n=48) were deemed to be roughly at the same level of writing proficiency and took part in this study as the main participants.

The participants of this study were Iranian EFL learners studying at Ayandegra Institute, in Zanjan, 2015. They were both males and females, aged from 16 to 25. The participants were chosen from the learners who had been placed at the upper-intermediate level based on the institute's placement test. While the data were being gathered, they studied Summit 1A book and attended their English classes three times a week.

Seventy two Iranian learners took Writing Proficiency section of TOFEL (Educational Teaching Service, 2004). The scores of 48 students were located within one standard deviation below and above the mean (+/-1 SD), and consequently, were considered to be roughly at the same writing proficiency level and participated in this study. These selected participants were assigned to two groups, namely, simple task group (STG) (*n*=24) and complex task group (CTG) (*n*=24).

3.3. Instruments

Three instruments were used in this study. The Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL, EST, 2004), as a renowned standardized language proficiency test, was the first instrument utilized at the beginning of the study to check the homogeneity of the participants' writing proficiency level. However, just the writing section was used, since in this study the researcher's focus was on the writing ability of the students. As Cooper (1984) argued, if the purpose is to explore the learners' writing abilities, it is required to focus on this skill exclusively, and general proficiency tests are not good indicators of this skill since they are more concerned with recognition and comprehension than production and generation, and comprehension process can be partly detached from the underlying syntactic system and from production (Skehan, 1998, p. 15).

In this pretest, the participants were asked to write about the following topic in 35 minutes.

Do you agree or disagree with the following statement? Use reasons and examples to support your opinion.

"Universities should give the same amount of money to their students' sports activities as they give to their university libraries"

The next instrument was a narrative task-- an eight-frame picture (Appendix A) taken from Yule (1997). It was used in both the simple and complex narrative tasks but in different manners. Narrating stories are tasks "supported by visual material, but which require some degree of organization of material to tell a story effectively" (Skehan & Foster, 1999, p. 98). The task used in this study was a one-way task with no interaction among the participants (Ellis, 2003), and consisted of "a clear time line, a script, a story with a conventional beginning, middle, and end" (Tavakoli & Skehan, 2005, p. 246).

The learners were asked to narrate the picture using at least 150 words. The picture set was available for them at the time of performing the task, hence, both tasks used in the present study were deemed as contextual embedded (Cummins, 1983, cited in Ellis, 2003, p. 92) and immediate (Skehan, 1998), *Here-and-Now* orientation (Robinson, 2005).

The story was as follows: a woman goes to a supermarket. In the supermarket, she runs into her friend who was shopping with her little son. She starts talking with her. They get so engrossed in talking that they overlook the child. The child is very naughty. He stretches out his hand, takes a bottle, and puts it in the other woman's bag. Two women say good-bye and separate.

The scoring profile (Appendix A) devised by Jacobset al., (1981, cited in Weigle, 2002). It was used to score the participants' written output in the pretest. This scoring profile lays emphasis on "the distinguishing characteristic of communicative language use – interaction between the language user, the context, and the discourse" (Bachman, 1990, p.302). It is comprised of five components including content, vocabulary, language, organization, and mechanics. According to the profile, the score ranges from 34 to 100.

3.4. Procedure

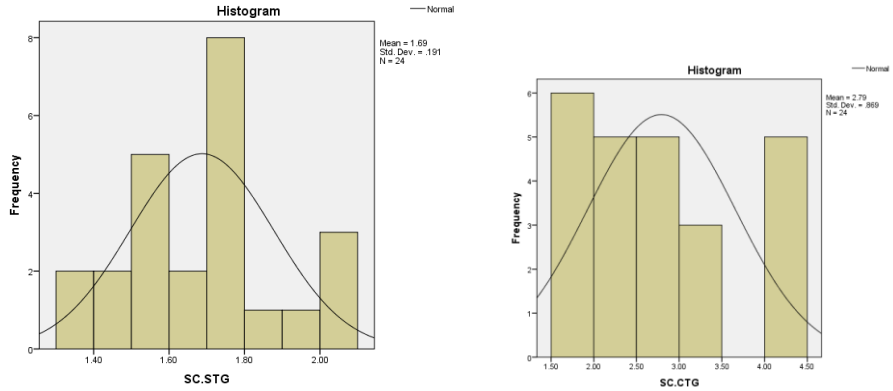
At first, they were randomly assigned to two groups: simple-task Group (STG) (n=24) and complex-task Group (CTG) (n=24). The participants in the STG were given the whole picture (Appendix A). The frames of this picture had been arranged in the correct sequence before its administration to the participants of this group (+ single task). The participants in the CTG were given all the frames of the picture; however, the frames were not arranged in their correct order; therefore, these participants were first asked to order the frames in the right sequence, and then to start writing about it (- single task= double task).

The participants in both groups were asked to write a story of at least 150 words based on the picture. In both groups, the participants could see the pictures while writing about it (+ Here-and-Now dimension). The picture was administered by their normal teacher, and he or she did not give any special guidance with respect to formal features, organizational points, or the content.

4. Results

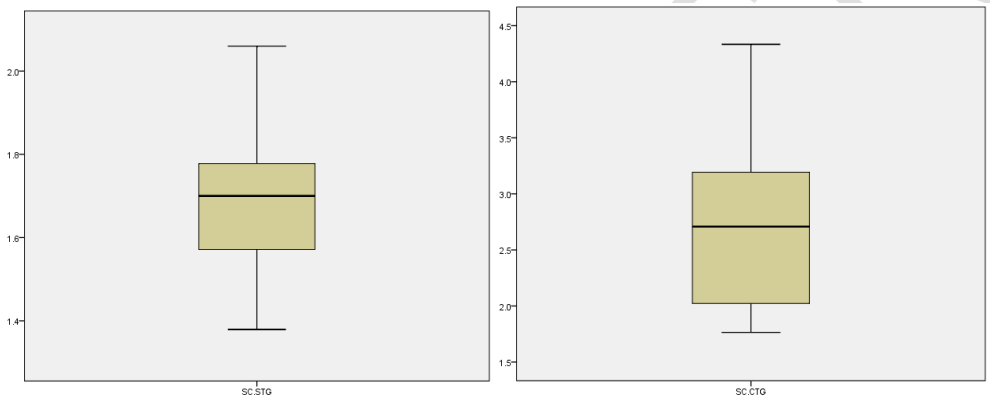
Our research question was concerned to the impact of manipulating task complexity on the structural complexity of the EFL learners' written production. This dependent variable was gauged by "average number of

clause per t-unit" (Larsen-Freeman, 2006, p. 597). Figure 1 and Figure 2 demonstrate the histograms and box plots of the data obtained in the STG and CTG in terms of structural complexity.



(A) (B)

Figure 1. Histograms of the participants' production in the simple task (A) and the complex task (B) in terms of structural complexity.



(A) (B)

Figure 2. Box plots of the participants' production in the simple task (A) and the complex task (B) in terms of structural complexity. Visually, Figure 1 and Figure 2 demonstrate the normality of the data.

Table 1

Results of one-sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests and Shapiro-Wilk test for the data obtained for structural complexity.

Table 1

One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Tests and Shapiro-Wilk tests of the Participants' Performance on Structural Complexity

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]	Shapiro-Wilk

	Statistic	N	Sig.	Statistic	N	Sig.
SC.STG	.109	24	**.200**	.964	24	**.527**
SC.CTG	.109	24	**.172**	.882	24	**.089**

As seen in Table 1, statistically speaking, the data was normally distributed since all the levels of significance were more than.05.

Table 2 reported the descriptive statistics participants' performance in terms of structural complexity.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics of Participants' Performance in Terms of Structural Complexity

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
SC.STG	24	1.38	2.06	1.6872	.19077	.036
SC.CTG	24	1.76	4.33	2.7924	.86896	.755
Valid N (listwise)	24					

As seen in Table 2, the mean and standard deviation of the data obtained from the simple task group were 1.68 and .190 respectively. The mean and standard deviation of the data obtained from the complex task group were 2.79 and .868 respectively. In order to see whether this difference was statistically significant or not, one independent samples t-test independent was run. The results are reported in Table 3.

Table 3

The Independent Samples T-Test for Task Complexity along Structural Complexity

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
SC	Equal variances assumed	29.640	.00	-6.0	46	.000	-1.10522	.18160	-1.47	-.739
	Equal variances not assumed			-6.0	25.2	.000	-1.10522	.18160	-1.47	-.731

Table 3 indicates that the variance of the groups is equal; therefore, the second line must be reported, i.e., $t(25.2) = -6.0$, $p < 0.05$. Since the level of significance is less than .05, it can be stated that the difference between the means of the STG and CTG in terms of structural complexity was statistically significant. Hence, based on the results, our null hypothesis was nullified.

5. Discussion

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The main objective of this study was to examine the impact of task complexity in terms of single/dual task on syntactic complexity. It was measured by "average number of clauses per t-unit" (Larsen-Freeman, 2006, p. 597). The results indicated that the participants significantly produced a greater number of clauses in t-units while performing the complex task. Therefore, -single task had an obvious impact on the enhancement of the structural complexity. One possible explanation for this finding is the greater processing load imposed by the complex task on the learners who were struggling to find out the relation among the frames of the picture. According to Ishikawa (2007), "greater memory demands….accompanies the use of embedded and subordinating means" (Ishikawa, 2007, p. 148), and "manipulating task complexity may have motivated a shift from a less to a more advanced mode of planning, where complex representations were formed" (Ishikawa, 2007, p. 149).

The results of some studies were in consistent with the findings of the present study, such as Abdollahzadeh and Fard Kashani (2012), Berwick (1993), Gilabert (2007), Ishikawa (2007), Robinson (1995b), Rouhi and Marefat (2006), Sotoudehnama and Farahanynia (2014), and Salimi, et al. (2011). Almost all of these studies undertaken on the here-and-now dimension and ascribed the greater syntactic complexity to the greater memory demands of the complex task which propelled the learners to think more deeply about the picture set and to generate larger units of information so as to mitigate the processes of encoding, storing, and retrieving the information from memory.

The findings of this study are also in line with (Hosseini & Rahimpour, 2010) who found that task complexity doesn't have any significant effect on the accuracy of written narratives of L2 learners. The findings also are in line with the results of the studies done by Mehrang (2009), Skehan & Foster (1999), Robinson (2007). The findings of the study are in line with the prediction of Cognition Hypothesis proposed by Robinson (2005, 2007). This high rate of fluency in the written production can be attributed to the fact that increasing cognitive demand of pedagogic task has an important influence on learning. This cognitive demand imposes extra burden of information processing, memory capacity, and attentional resources on learners' mental capacity which pushes the L2 learners to go beyond their current level of language proficiency and stretch their interlanguage system (Rahimpour, 1999).

The findings of this aspect of our study is in line with the predictions of Cognition Hypothesis which states that increasing the cognitive load of a task along resource-directing line will lead to more syntactic production of language. This high rate of structural complexity could be attributed to (Givon, 1989; Robinson, 2007; Salimi & Yusefi, 2009).The fact that increasing task complexity will stretch interlanguage system enabling learners to use syntactic mode of language which is characterized by greater use of morphology, greater syntactic subordination,
and high noun to verb ratio (lexical complexity).

The findings of the study is in line with Ellis & Barkhuizen (2005) in that tasks with more cognitive demands push L2 learners to perform tasks in certain ways, prioritizing one or another aspect of language. Thus, complex tasks push learners to prioritize complexity over fluency. Tavakoli & Foster (2008) also argue that the more demanding a task in terms of its content, the more complex the language a learner will attempt performing a task. The explanation for the enhanced complexity may lie in the fact that complex tasks impose extra burden of information processing to the learners' mental capacities.

Some studies focusing on the planning dimension demonstrated the opposite results; in other words, the learners performed better in the complex task regarding syntactic complexity. Some of them are), Ellis and Yuan (2004), Farahani and Meraji (2011), Foster and Skehan (1996), Kawauchi (2005), Rahimpour (2007), Tavakoli and Skehan (2005), Skehan and Foster (1997), Rahimpour (2007).

However, the results of this study ran against the findings of researchers like (Hosseini, 2009; Ishikawa, 2006) who found no significant difference between task complexity and L2 learners' written performance. They argue that the results support Skehan & Fosters' (2001, p: 193) preposition that "prioritization or predisposition (or both) seem to orient performance toward one (or two) of the three areas of accuracy, fluency, and complexity".

Regarding grammatical accuracy, findings have widely diverged in task-based research owing to different measures of grammatical accuracy. The results of this study showed that task complexity did lead to the production of texts which differ from each other from grammatical accuracy perspective. It was likely that, when working on the least complex task (with the more writing assistance), learners were able to put together their memory and cognition resources and paid their full attention to the form of their productions which, on the whole, led to more accurate language. The results of measuring the grammatical accuracy (via the ratio of error-free T-units to total T-units (EFT/T) and the ratio of error-free clauses to total clauses (EFC/C)) are supportive results to both Robinson‟s Cognition Hypothesis (2005) and Skehan and Foster‟s (2001)

Limited Attentional Capacity Model. They believe that increasing cognitive task complexity (along with the resource-

Discussing the reason why pre-task planning led to the production of more complex language, Ellis and Yuan (2004) claimed that pre-task planning diminished the pressure on working memory via providing more time for conceptualization. In fact, based on Levelt's (1989) Speech Production Model, the participants "prioritized conceptualization over formulation and articulation" (Yuan & Ellis, 2003, p.20) in the pre-planning time. Therefore, during the task, this reduced load resulted in the greater activation of the rule-based system, which led to the generation of more complex language. Ortega (2005) also contended that the use of more types of strategies during the planning time could be the reason why the structural complexity, i.e., the use of embeddings and subordinations, of their output augmented. Farahani and Meraji (2011) also came to the same conclusion.

To recap, our null hypothesis concerned structural complexity and task complexity. This null hypothesis was disconfirmed due to the fact that there was a main effect for the impact of +/-single dimension on this variable, and the manipulation of the double task brought about the enhancement in the structural complexity.

6. Conclusion

This study attempted to investigate the effects of cognitive task complexity, grammatical accuracy, and syntactic complexity in EFL learners‟ argumentative writing. Having identified a gap in task-based research in written discourse, this study attempted to bridge this gap by investigating the effect of cognitive task complexity on learners‟ writing performance. The results of the measures of syntactic complexity provided supportive evidence (although partially) for both Robinson‟s and Skehan and Foster‟s models. In the same vein, the results of grammatical accuracy measures contributed supportive evidence to both above-mentioned models. The present study has a number of theoretical and pedagogical implications for SLA researchers, teachers, syllabus and task designers, and language testing specialists. The first and the most important is that the nature of the different processes and specially information process (involved during completing task) can be clearly established in SLA settings. A valid and crucial criterion for designing, selecting, grading, and sequencing pedagogical tasks is in forefront of teachers‟ and task designers‟ attention. Therefore, the findings of this study can be regarded as practical basis for above-mentioned purposes. Moreover, the findings of the current study suggested that focusing on cognitive capabilities of the learners as well as the cognitive load of the structure of the task is of more importance in language teaching and learning than in any other settings. In spite of some useful findings which can be considered as explicit basis for writing assessment, some limitations need to be acknowledged.

Our findings showed that the provision of task complexity along +/-single task dimension significantly affected Iranian EFL learners' written performance qualitatively and quantitatively. The following conclusions can be drawn from the present study: Regarding the quantitative aspect, this dimension led to greater fluency gains, and in terms of qualitative aspects, syntactic complexity increased due to the manipulation of task complexity. However, the measure of accuracy decreased through the use of a more complex task. The major findings of the present study are that the difference between the means of the STG and CTG in terms of structural complexity was statistically significant. Hence, based on the results, our null hypothesis was nullified.

Concerning pedagogical implications, the findings of this study can shed light on the selection and gradation of the tasks in TBLT syllabi. It shows via the manipulation of different degrees of the task complexity, the teachers can selectively direct learners' attention towards the production dimension in which the learners have problems.

Although many task-based studies have been undertaken so far, there are still numerous baffling challenges waiting to be solved via future research. Regarding task complexity, a longitudinal research can be conducted in order to explore the ability of the learners in transferring their enhanced ability due to the task manipulation to other contexts and tasks. In order to gain rich description, post-task interviews, questionnaires, retrospective and introspective measures can also be utilized. Future research can evolve around other types of tasks being manipulated along different task features. Even individual differences regarding the learners' learning style, learning strategies can also be taken into account in future research.

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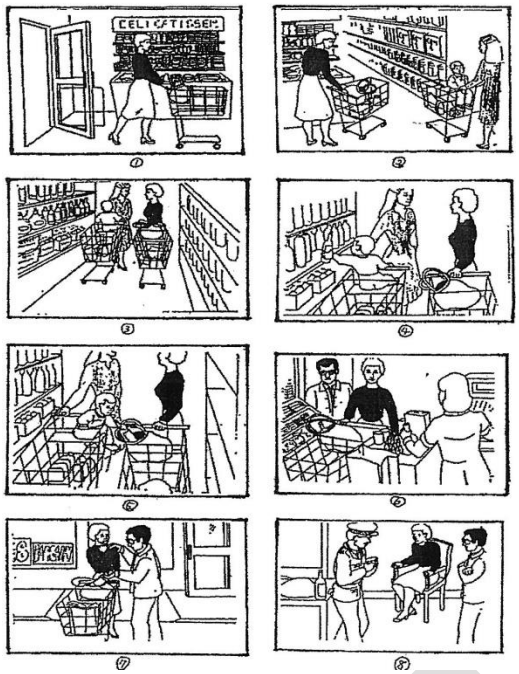
Appendices

Appendix A

Prompt for the simple writing task, taken from Yule (1997)

Begin the story like this: Today, a woman goes to the supermarket…



Appendix B

Jacobs, Zinkgraf, Wormuth, Hartfeil, and Hughey's (1981) scoring profile

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ESL COMPOSITION PROFILE

STUDENT DATE TOPIC

	SCORE	LEVEL	CRITERIA	COMMENTS
CONTENT		30-27	EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: knowledgeable • substantive • thorough development of thesis • relevant to assigned topic	
		26-22	GOOD TO AVERAGE: some knowledge of subject • adequate range • limited development of thesis • mostly relevant to topic, but lacks detail	
		21-17	FAIR TO POOR: limited knowledge of subject • little substance • inadequate development of topic	
		16-13	VERY POOR: does not show knowledge of subject • non-substantive • not pertinent • OR not enough to evaluate	
ORGANIZATION		20-18	EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: fluent expression • ideas clearly stated/supported • succinct • well-organized • logical sequencing • cohesive	
		17-14	GOOD TO AVERAGE: somewhat choppy • loosely organized but main ideas stand out • limited support • logical but incomplete sequencing	
		13-10	FAIR TO POOR: non-fluent • ideas confused or disconnected • lacks logical sequencing and development	
		9-7	VERY POOR: does not communicate • no organization • OR not enough to evaluate	
VOCABULARY		20-18	EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: sophisticated range • effective word/idiom choice and usage • word form mastery • appropriate register	
		17-14	GOOD TO AVERAGE: adequate range • occasional errors of word/idiom form, choice, usage *but meaning not obscured*	
		13-10	FAIR TO POOR: limited range • frequent errors of word/idiom form, choice, usage • *meaning confused or obscured*	
		9-7	VERY POOR: essentially translation • little knowledge of English vocabulary, idioms, word form • OR not enough to evaluate	
LANGUAGE USE		25-22	EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: effective complex constructions • few errors of agreement, tense, number, word order/function, articles, pronouns, prepositions	
		21-18	GOOD TO AVERAGE: effective but simple constructions • minor problems in complex constructions • several errors of agreement, tense, number, word order/function, articles, pronouns, prepositions *but meaning seldom obscured*	
		17-11	FAIR TO POOR: major problems in simple/complex constructions • frequent errors of negation, agreement, tense, number, word order/function, articles, pronouns, prepositions and/or fragments, run-ons, deletions • *meaning confused or obscured*	
		10-5	VERY POOR: virtually no mastery of sentence construction rules • dominated by errors • does not communicate • OR not enough to evaluate	
MECHANICS		5	EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: demonstrates mastery of conventions • few errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing	
		4	GOOD TO AVERAGE: occasional errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing *but meaning not obscured*	
		3	FAIR TO POOR: frequent errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing • poor handwriting • *meaning confused or obscured*	
		2	VERY POOR: no mastery of conventions • dominated by errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing • handwriting illegible • OR not enough to evaluate	

TOTAL SCORE READER COMMENTS

THE STUDY OF INSTRUCTIONAL APPROACH (FONF OR FONFS) IN FACILITATING INCIDENTAL ACQUISITION OF PLURAL *S* AND COPULA *BE*

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Abstract

The current study was designed to examine the effectiveness of focus on form (fonf) and focus on forms (fonfs) teaching contexts on incidental grammar acquisition of two target structures, namely plural-s and copula-*be*. Incidental grammar acquisition refers to identification of a grammatical feature which is not taught directly. The study designed to teach some new words. The two target structures were not taught explicitly, but the lessons provided opportunities for acquiring them during the classroom interactions. Forty-five beginner iranian students were non-randomly divided into three groups of fifteen, namely, fonf, fonfs and control group. They received eight repeated lessons during six weeks. Three tests (multiple listening test for receptive knowledge of plural-s, wug test for productive knowledge of plural-s and tell and do test for productive knowledge of copula-*be)* were used to measure the acquisitions of target features in terms of the differences in interactions that take place in the two instructional approaches and consequently opportunities for noticing of target structures. The study used a quasi-experimental through pre-tests, immediate post-tests and delayed post-tests. Then the statistical analysis was run through one-way repeated measures anovas. The results revealed that the learners in fonf group demonstrated the acquisition of plural-s but not of copula be. This was because fonf instruction made the plural-s salient whereas this did not occur in the case of copula-*be*. Neither of the target structures were acquired by fonfs and control groups. Overall, it is concluded that providing a functional need to process a grammatical feature is required for incidental grammar acquisition to occur.

Key words: incidental acquisition; focus on form; focus on forms; teaching grammar, Iranian EFL learners

Introduction

This study aimed at investigating the incidental grammar acquisition in two different instructional contexts, namely focus on form (FonF) by employing comprehension-based instruction and focus on forms (FonFs) by employing production-based instruction. The study focused on beginner Iranian students with no prior instruction of English. It tried to reveal whether leaners can learn a grammatical structure which is not taught directly and if so, what interactional processes are more facilitative in incidental acquisition of these features.

The current study chose plural *s* morpheme and copula *be* as the target structures. The reason for choosing the plural s was that the researcher as an experienced teacher was aware that beginner learners had problems in distinguishing singular from plural form and copula be was selected because it was frequent in input but the students paid little attention to it.

Incidental acquisition

Incidental acquisition is a challenging concept in second language acquisition. Hulstjin (2003) defines it as the learning of a second language (L2) without intention. So what separates incidental from intentional learning is the lack of any intention to learn not the lack of awareness. As Schmidt argues noticing, that is, conscious attention to linguistic form is a crucial factor in incidental acquisition. Therefore incidental acquisition can be distinguished from implicit learning which includes the lack of awareness.

Incidental acquisition is significant in either theoretical or pedagogical level. In the theoretical level, it is important as in many learning contexts learners develop their grammatical competence mainly through incidental acquisition. It is assumed that learning takes place while learners are exposed to comprehensible input and as a result have opportunities to produce the language during communication. This kind of learning does not require the learners to make a conscious effort to acquire a particular grammatical feature. According to Nick Ellis (2002) the frequency of exposure to grammatical structures in the input is one of the key determinants of acquisition.

Incidental acquisition is also important in pedagogical level as there are restrictions on a learner's capacity to learn the grammar of a language intentionally and therefore restrictions on the extent to which grammatical competence can be explicitly taught. Krashen (1982) points out that that even the best students will only be able to learn a small part of a grammar as a language and therefore they must rely mostly on incidental acquisition.

Incidental grammar acquisition can be explored in two main ways. One is to afford a focused task (R. Ellis, 2002) that involves learners in meaning-focused tasks and then evaluates whether they have learned the particular grammatical structure targeted by the task. In this way the learners are not required to involve in intentional learning, rather they participate in communicative tasks that afford opportunities for incidental acquisition. The other way is to provide instruction planned to teach certain grammatical or lexical items and then to investigate whether they have learned other items which took place in the input but was not the main focus of the instruction. The present study compared the incidental acquisition that happened in these two contexts.

In present study, incidental acquisition is operationalized as the leaning that rises while the learners were incidentally exposed to two target grammatical structures, namely plural s an copula be which were not directly taught. In FonF lesson, learners completed some focused tasks that were planned to teach some new words and on the other hand, expose them to the target features while in the FonFs lesson, the words were explicitly taught and also exposed the learners to the target structures incidentally. The current study aimed to determine whether differences in the types of the interactions that took place in these two kinds of lessons resulted in differences in the incidental acquisition of the two features.

Incidental acquisition in focus on form and focus on forms lesson

The current study examined incidental acquisition in instruction engaging FonF and FonFs instructional contexts. Long (1991) and Long & Crooks (1992) define FonF as a type of instruction in which the main focus is on meaning rather than form. It involves an infrequent shift of learners' attention from meaning to form, while the overriding focus remains on meaning. This shift occurs when both learners and teachers attempt to solve either comprehension or production problem in the communication.

FonF can be planned or unplanned ((R. Ellis, Basturkmen, & Loewen, 2002). Unplanned FonF occurs while the learners' attention is occasionally directed onto specific grammatical structure while they are implementing unfocused tasks. On the other hand, in planned FonF the focus on particular linguistic structure is predetermined and a focused task is planned to afford a context for its use. In this kind of FonF attention to the selected linguistic feature is intensive. Either planned or unplanned FonF aim at incidental acquisition.

FonFs constitutes a traditional approach to language teaching in which according Long (1991, 1996) language is broken down into discrete elements which are then taught item by item in a linear, additive fashion. In this kind of instruction the main focus is directed on linguistic form but this does not mean that meaning necessarily is not excluded. In the FonF lesson grammatical development is of intentional and learners consciously improve their grammatical competence. However, FonFs can also provide opportunities for incidental acquisition by exposing the learners to input containing the target structures. The current study tried to compare incidental grammar acquisition in two different teaching contexts in which some new vocabulary items

were designed to be taught. The FonF lesson was of planned, that is was planned to teach some preselected set of words which were embedded in meaning-focused tasks that is, they were not taught directly. On the other hand, the FonFs lesson taught the same set of words explicitly by employing present-practice-product methodology. Either FonF or FonFs lessons provided opportunities for comprehending or producing plural-s and copula be. But no attempt was made both types of instructions in order to teach the two target structures explicitly.

Interactionist theories like Gass, 1997 & Long, 1981 argue that L2 acquisition happens through interaction while the learners' primary attention is directed at message content but also declare that attention to form is required. Long (1996) claims that this happens while learners notice the positive evidence afforded in the input and also the gap between input and their own interlanguage. Swain (1995) claims that acquisition can occur as the learners try to produce the target language and also they notice a gap in their linguistic knowledge. So either Long or Swain emphasize the role of 'noticing' in incidental learning.

A few studies have examined the incidental acquisition of one feature in instruction that has been planned to teach some other language feature. Slimani (1989) examined FonFs. She used self-report in order to examine uptake by adult beginner learners of English in the language classroom. After receiving a 2-hour teacher –fronted form-oriented lesson that is, by introducing the target features followed by practice exercises, the learners filled in an Uptake Recall Chart in which they stated the 'completely new' language items that they have learned during the instruction. She informed that 11% of the language features that the learners claimed that they have learned in the classroom were not the topic of the instruction. The study concluded that incidental acquisition of features not directly taught can occur.

Loewen, Erlam, and Ellis (2009) also examined incidental acquisition in FonF lesson. The main focus of the instruction was the use of indefinite article but the instruction also provided intensive exposure to third person *s*. An elicited oral imitation test and an untimed grammaticality judgment test were employed in order to measure acquisition. The results indicated no considerable improvement of the learners' knowledge of third person *s*. they claimed that the learners were unable to dual-task that is, to attend to both features at the same time.

Recently, Shintani & Ellis (2010) examined the incidental acquisition of plural *s* in FonF and FonFs lessons. The lessons were planned to teach 24 new words to language learners aged 6 to 8. The FonF lesson used lesson and do tasks and FonFs lesson employed present-practice-product methodology. In order to avoid bias, acquisition was measured by both receptive and productive tests. The results reveal that both groups improved in the receptive test, but only in the production test. They concluded that FonF lesson provided opportunities for learners to negotiate meaning and this enabled them to accomplish a form-function mapping for plural *s*. This did not occur in FonFs lesson.

More recently, Shintani (2014) investigated two grammatical features, namely plural *s* morpheme and copula *be* in FonF and FonFs lessons. The two target features were not directly taught, but opportunities for learning them happened in the classroom interactions. Thirty complete beginner Japanese learners received nine repeated lessons during five weeks. The study investigated the learners' acquisition of the two features measured by tests and sought descriptions for the results in terms of the differences in interactions that took place in the two lessons and, in particular, opportunities for noticing the structures in the interactions. The results revealed that the learners in the FonF lesson showed acquisition of plural *s* but not copula *be*. Neither plural *s* nor copula *be* was acquired by the learners in FonFs lesson. The analysis of the classroom interactions indicated that there was a functional need to attend to plural *s* only in the FonF lesson.

To summarize, these studies reveal that incidental grammar acquisition can occur either in in the FonF lesson (Shintani & Ellis 2010, Shintani 2014) and in the FonFs lesson (Slimani 1989) and in some cases it did not happen in the FonFs lesson (Loewen et al 2009) or occurs less effectively than in fonF lesson (Shintani & Ellis, Shintani 2014). One probable factor that establishes whether incidental acquisition occurs is the functional value of the grammatical structure. Plural *s* is semantically meaning bearing. (Shintani & Ellis, Shintani 2014). Third person *s* is redundant in meaning. Incidental acquisition is possibly to take place while the grammatical feature conveys functional value and requires learners to make a form-meaning connection. The two target grammatical structures examined in present study differed in terms of whether they were

semantically meaning bearing or redundant. So the study aimed at indicating whether incidental acquisition was affected by the nature of the grammatical structure.

To the best of our knowledge very few studies have investigated the incidental grammar acquisition in both FonF and FonFs contexts by Iranian beginner learners, so this study was motivated because incidental acquisition is significant in both theoretical and pedagogical level and also Iranian beginner learners are not very satisfied with explicit grammar teaching and they usually have problem with it.

Methodology

Design

The study employed a quasi-experimental design, namely two experimental and a control group by using a pre-test, immediate posttest and a delayed posttest. This study compared the effectiveness of in incidental grammar acquisition through FonF and FonFs teaching approaches

Participants

45 Iranian male beginner EFL learners aged 8 to 12 were randomly selected and then divided into three groups of 15. The instructional process took place in a private institute (Behgooyan institute) in Miyaneh. The instruction constitute 6 lessons which lasted 8 weeks. The learners met 60 minute instruction per week.

Target features

The current study aimed to investigate the incidental acquisition of two grammatical structures, i.e., plural-s morpheme and copula be. The main reason for choosing plural-s was that the researcher as an experienced teacher was aware that his students have serious problems in distinguishing singular nouns from plural ones. The second grammatical chosen item was copula be. The motivation for selecting this grammatical element was that this feature was very frequent in classroom interactions and in teacher's utterances but students did not pay much attention to this feature and had difficulty in using it properly.

Treatment materials and procedures

Thirty vocabularies (twenty four in single form and six in plural form) were selected to be taught during the instruction. They were divided into three groups, that is, ten items labeling fruits and vegetables, eten for animals and ten for home appliances. In FonF lesson all the vocabularies were introduced in every session, but in FonFs lesson, four words were taught to the learners per session.

Treatment Materials and Procedures for the FonF Group: the lessons contained three listen and so tasks that required the learners to listen to their teacher's command and doing those tasks. The main reason for selecting these kinds of tasks was that learners were beginner learners and this was the only way to provide them FonF instruction. In order to achieve the task outcomes the learners were given thirty flash cards. The learners were required to listen to their teacher's command in order to complete the tasks. Each task had a different goal. The objective of each task was explained in both English and Persian to the learners (E.g. the task one required the learners to collect as many as possible cards for zoo and supermarket). So they had to listen to the teacher's instruction to a complete a task (e.g. take the ostriches to the zoo).

Treatment Materials and Procedures for the FonFs Group: as the nature of this approach requires the goal of the activities explicitly were explained to the learners, that is, leaning some new vocabularies. Every lesson was consist of five activities. The first one required the learners to repeat the vocabularies after the teacher. The second and third activities involved them to say both chorally and individually the words shown on the flashcards. The fourth and fifth activities were game-like. For example, activity five required the learners to produce the items. Six set of cards (60 flash cards) were put face down on the table. The students asked to turn over one of the cards one by one and then all the students repeated the word shown on the card. If a student turned over a card that matched one of the cards already face up, he could keep the pair of cards. If they were unable to name the item, or gave wrong answer, the teacher helped him by affording

recast. When all of the cards had been turned over, the number of pairs chosen by each student was counted.

3.8 Instructional materials for the control group: the lessons for control group consisted of practicing some English songs which contained some verb phrases such as get up, go to bed, wash your hands, get dressed, do your homework, eat breakfast, go to school, go home and so on and involving in Total Physical Responses and also tracing and copying English alphabets on their notebooks. The teacher did his best to avoid using any target grammatical with the control group directly but they were exposed to target features in the teacher's utterances and songs .(See appendix F)

Test Materials: Two tested were used in order to measure the learners' acquisition of plural morpheme-s. A multiple comprehension listening test assessed the receptive knowledge, and the wug test measured the productive knowledge of the learners. A tell and do task was used to calculate the productive knowledge of copula be. As it was impossible to evaluate comprehension of this structure there was not any receptive test for copula-be. (The full explanations of the three tests are reported in Appendix A.)

Data Analysis

The procedure of conversation analysis (CA) was employed in order to investigate the interactions that took place in two kinds of instructional materials. CA is an effective instrument to investigate interaction (Mori, 2004; Markee, 2005) CA was utilized to distinguish the differences in the turn-taking and opportunities for incidental acquisition that may happen in two kinds of instructions. The eight lessons for both experimental groups were audio-recorded and then transcribed. This was used in order to identify the individual participant utterances and nonverbal answers. The target structures made by the teacher and learners were counted. The turn-taking processes in both lessons were analyzed for occasions when chances for acquisition took place in the learner uptake. Uptake occurred in two ways: (1) learners' correction of their incorrect utterance by receiving corrective feedback and (2) learners displaying that they have successfully comprehend the input after they had at first failed to acquire it. In both cases, uptake could be self-initiated (i.e., through self-correction or by asking questions) or other-initiated (i.e., by receiving corrective feedback).

Test scores for both plural tests (i.e., the comprehension listening test and the wug test) were separated into 'old items' (four items) and 'new items' (six items) in order to discriminate between item learning (i.e., participants remembering the items they had been exposed to) and system learning (i.e., internalization of a 'rule' that could be successfully directed new exemplars of the target structure; see Robinson 2005). In the case of production of copula be and also subject-verb agreement, separate scores were calculated. The test scores were analyzed by using SPSS version 19.

Findings

The acquisition of two target structures were investigated by analyzing either the learners' ability to comprehend the target features, namely receptive knowledge and their ability to use them, that is productive knowledge in both classroom communication and tests.

4.2.3.1 Use of the two target grammatical structures during the classroom interactions: learners in FonF lessons indicated the receptive knowledge of plural s morpheme, this was because the students were required to choose the correct singular or plural flash card in order to achieve the task outcome. They developed their ability to identify this structures as the lessons were repeated.

Expert 4 obviously reveals that how one of the students recognized the plural form. When Vahid (line 4) selected the incorrect card, Hassan challenged him by saying that there were three of them (line 5). Then he tried to attract his attention to /s/ segment as the indicator of plural morpheme, which revealed that Hassan has identified the plural morpheme. However, expert 4 revealed that Hassan has improved his receptive knowledge of plural morpheme but not productive knowledge of it as he did not produce the plural noun in the extract or any other time.

EXCERPT 4 (FonF Lesson 3)

1. T: okay the next one. Please take the soaps. Please take the soaps to the supermarket.
2. Ali: چند تا ؟ چند تا (=how many? How many?)
3. T: listen listen (.) please take the soaps.
4. Vahid: ((hold the card with one soap on it)) یکیه(= its one)
5. Hassan: ((talk to Vahid)) سه تاست(= its three)
6. Vahid: یکیه(= it's one)
7. Hassan:/s/ س(= it's /s/)
8. Vahid: ((changes his card to the card with three soaps))

As discussed above, the learners in FonF group did not show any sign of receptive knowledge of copula be, this happened because were simply able to comprehend the teacher's command by just analyzing the content words. As table 2 indicates, the learners in FonF instruction created plural morpheme 13 times and in the term of copula be just once. The plural form was mostly produced in repetition of the teacher's commands by the learners. (e.g. 'take the camels to the zoo', students: camels).there were two exceptions. According to expert 5, Behnam produced the plural form "peacocks" (peacock…s) to demand more explanation on the part of the teacher. It seems that Behnam was aware of the plural morpheme because he elongated it.

EXCERPT 5 (FonF Lesson 6)

1. T: okay the next person. Please take the crocodiles to the zoo. Crocodiles. Peacocks.
2. Hamid: one? Two?
3. Hassan: red?
4. T: no no.
5. Behnam: crocodile::: z?
6. T: yes that's right. Peacocks to the zoo.

As expert 6 displays the other circumstance was while Vahid uttered the plural form in order to request clarification.

EXCERPT 6 (FonF Lesson 8)

1. T: please take the ostriches to the zoo.
2. Hamid: brown?
3. Vahid: ostriches, two?
4. T: yes

As the above-mentioned examples (FonF lessons) indicate although the situations when students uttered plural morpheme were very limited, some learners showed the productive ability during the instructions, indicating that the incidental acquisition had occurred. However the was no sign of productive ability in the case of copula be structure.

On the other hand, in the FonFs lessons as the instructions were planned in a way that they involved the learners just to produce the words shown by the flash cards, there was no evidence of learners' demonstration of receptive knowledge of plural morpheme. As table 2 reveals the FonFs group produced plural morpheme 32 times and copula be 9 times (4 for is and 5 for are).The plural s morpheme production by the FonFs group happened only in the mechanical repetition of the teacher's commands, as a result they were unable in producing the plural morpheme as they asked to name the plural objects. (e.g.: what are they?). The production of copula be by the participants occurred just in mechanical repetition of the teacher's questions. Therefore, there was no evidence of incidental acquisition of both grammatical structures by the FonFs learners.

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4.2.4 The two posttests results. The descriptive statistics of the three groups of comparative tests that is, comprehension test, wug and tell and do tests are displayed in appendix D. in the case of the comprehension test for both old and new items there were no considerable differences between the two experimental and control group in the pretest. However, FonF group increased its scores across the both posttests, while the FonFs and control group stayed at virtually the same level for both the 'old' and 'new' items. As the medium to large effect size reveals that different instructional materials had very different effects on their learners in the case of receptive knowledge of plural morpheme. Because the FonFs and control group scored zero across the repeated tests for both wug and tell-and-do task so no statistical comparisons were attempted. The test results revealed that FonF instruction outperformed over FonFs and control group in the case of plural s morpheme and just for receptive knowledge.

The number the students who acquired the target grammatical structures, namely plural s morpheme and copula be in the three tests (i.e. the achieved the 80% criteria) are shown in table 4. It should be mentioned that none of the learners in the pretest in the case of comprehension test indicated the 'acquired' level and also neither of them demonstrated the acquisition in productive knowledge.

Table 3
Number of students who acquired two grammatical structures in three tests

			FonF (n=15)		FonFs (n=15)		control G (n=15)	
Tests	feature		Posttest 1	posttest 2	posttest 1	posttest 2	posttest 1	posttest 2
Comprehension test	plural –*s*	old items	10	11	3	4	1	1
		New items	10	11	0	0	0	0
Wug test	plural –*s*	old items	2	0	0	0	0	0
		New items	2	0	0	0	0	0
Tell-and-do task	copula *be*	production	1	1	0	0	0	0
		Agreement	0	0	0	0	0	0

In comprehension test there was a significant difference among the three groups. In the FonF lesson both in old and new items, 10 learners in posttest one and 11 of them in posttest two indicated the 'acquiring' level, that is most of them had acquired plural s morpheme as a rule in receptive knowledge phase. But in FonFs lessons just 3 students in posttest 1 and 4 students in posttest 2 showed the acquisition of plural morpheme and also in control group 1 student in posttest 1 and 1 student in posttest 2 revealed the signs of acquisition in receptive knowledge. The students in FonFs lesson did not acquire plural morpheme as a rule because they were unable to pluralize new items. The number of acquired learners in FonF lesson in both posttest 1 and posttest 2 were more than both FonFs and control group, with a greater effect size (see appendix D). The comparison of the three groups revealed that the FonF group outperformed FonFs and control group in receptive knowledge of plural morpheme.

In the wug tests all the groups scored zero and also there was no significant difference among them in both posttests. However two learners indicated the productive knowledge of plural morpheme in FonF lesson. One of them got 100% in the case of old items and 75% for new items and the other student got 100% for both old and new items. As two learners in FonF lesson were able to produce the target items it can be suggested that full incidental acquisition had taken place in the case of these two learners.

He uttered the contracted form of copula be in both singular and plural items. However, he did not acquire subject-verb agreement for copula be structure. To summarize there were no significant differences in the posttests among the three groups.

Results

Test results revealed that first, incidental acquisition did took place only in the FonF lesson. This was due to the nature of FonF lesson that created the need for the learners to distinguish the plural and singular forms and, consequently, opportunities were provided to establish the form–

meaning connection for plural -s. that is why the learners' in FonF demonstrated the acquisition of this feature. This did not happen in the term of FonFs lesson. The acquisition of copula-be did not happen either in FonF or FonFs lessons. This may have been because the copula-be was semantically redundant. Second, most of the learners in FonF lesson improved only receptive knowledge plural morpheme.

The results of the current research question revealed that in order to incidental grammar acquisition happen, providing a functional need to process a grammatical feature seems necessary, at least in the case of complete beginner learners. It appears that, in the FonF lesson, the nature of the tasks required the learners to distinguish plural noun from singular in order to achieve the task outcomes. A significant finding of this study is that it is viable to design and implement highly motivating input-based tasks (FonF) for young beginner learners in an EFL context and that these are more effective than FonFs materials for teaching both vocabulary and grammar.

5.4 Conclusion

The purpose of the current study was to examine incidental grammar acquisition of two target grammatical features by Iranian beginner EFL learners in two different instructional context, namely FonF and FonFs. The findings of this study suggests that providing a functional need to process a grammatical feature is required for incidental grammar acquisition to occur, specifically when there is limited amount of exposure and the learners are complete beginner ones. The most obvious findings to emerge from this study was that incidental acquisition did happen, but only in the FonF group, and the acquisition was only marked in the comprehension test. This can be justified by three proposed factors: the first factor is related to the intrinsic difficulty of the target features, that is plural-s is semantically salient whereas copula be is redundant. The second factor is the kind of instruction- the FonF lessons created the need for the learners to distinguish the plural from singular forms and consequently had opportunities to create form-meaning connection for plural-s. This did not take place in the FonFs group as neither the teacher nor the students focused on the accurate production of this feature and this is because only the FonF group indicated any acquisition of this feature. Nevertheless most of the learners in the FonF only improved the receptive knowledge of plural-s. Repair and uptake showed learners' involvement in learning the language that they were exposed to in the two teaching contexts. As the investigation of the classroom interactions revealed, repairs that happened in FonFs group were almost completely medium-oriented whereas those in FonF group repair managed to be message-oriented, that is the 'trouble' to be repaired in FonFs mostly focused on the accurate production of the target words while 'trouble' was caused by the comprehension that the tasks created. The third factor is related to the extent to which the two types of instructions made the target structure salient. Due to the nature of the instruction, plural form was more salient in the FonF in contrast with FonFs lesson.

To summarize, the results of the this research revealed that in order to incidental grammar acquisition happen, providing a functional need to process the grammatical structures seems necessary at least in the case of complete beginner learners.

The researcher employed input-based tasks in order to conduct this study because they are the suitable ones in the case of young beginner learners and at the same time they afford opportunities for beginner learners to encounter communicative interactions. They also create a context where learners can manage turn-taking process and enable them to self-initiate and self-repair by the help of his classmates and the teacher. That is why the learners were successful in receptive knowledge as input-based tasks were employed in order to teach them. On the other hand, in order to incidental acquisition to occur, the lesson should be designed in a way that attract the learners' attention to grammatical forms by making them salient, that is, motive the learners to process the form in order to accomplish a communicative consequence. In the case of incidental acquisition it seems that it is more likely to happen through FonaF lesson rather than FonFs.

5.5. **Implications**

The findings of the current study may have implications for students, material developers and educators. Currently communicative language teaching approaches like TBLT have become popular all over the world because the learners desire to be communicatively competent in

English. During the implementing of this project the researcher realized how the learners' attitude change from considering English as an object to be learned to viewing it as a tool for purposeful communication, and how this created a context in which English could be acquired naturally. It was obvious that learners were completely satisfied with FonF lesson. So the researcher thinks that implementing FonF instruction would be beneficial for the students especially for beginner learners.

English text books changed after 27 years. The new published text books are designed based on the communicative language teaching approaches, so the result of the present study can be useful for material developers in that it demonstrated that the learners in communicative (FonF) lesson outperformed over other ones.

The researcher also became aware of the importance of his role as a teacher. He did not consider himself as the only source of knowledge, instead he saw himself as a co-communicator to his students who can support them in order to achieve the task outcomes. The researcher confesses that implementing FonF lesson needs much more energy and enthusiasm on the part of the teacher. On the other hand, using tasks with beginner learners requires additional skills on the part of the teacher and they should be familiar with the various strategies of implementing TBLT. Unfortunately, some teachers feel that teaching communicative English is out of their domain and beyond their ability and it seems that they are not sufficiently mastered the task-based strategies. To sum up, the researcher hopes this study can motivate the teachers to change their attitudes toward communicative language teaching approaches, since they seem to be more effective in helping the students in order to be communicatively competent.

It is hoped that the finding of the current study will be beneficial for both EFL teachers and learners in the providing them with a higher awareness of the role of task based language teaching (TBLT) in general and incidental grammar acquisition in particular in their classes.

5.6 Suggestions for future research

The present study raised a number of issues for future studied associated with incidental acquisition. First, it would be desirable to examine the effects of FonF (TBLT) and FonFs (PPP) over a longer period of time and also embedded within authentic instructional setting. Second, more researches considering other grammatical features is needed to examine how the intrinsic difficulty of these features impacts incidental learning. Finally, the intervening influence of individual differences such as aptitude and working memory.

The current study only investigated young beginner learners. Thus, it is also possible for studies to be conducted with older or proficient learners who cognitively mature and might be better equipped to benefit from FonFs.

Here some more important question arises: how teachers and learners view FonF? What difficulties do teachers experience during implementing FonF? To what extent are the learners able to ordinate to regarding language as a tool for communicating rather than as an object for study? Do teachers and learners recognize the importance of incidental acquisition? Thus, there is a need for studies that explore teachers' and students' viewpoints and attitudes to FonF and how these influence on what happens in the classroom and what is learned.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Test materials

Comprehension test .This was a multiple-choice test. The students were given a test sheet consisting of ten pairs of pictures. Each set had two pictures (one representing the item in singular form and one in plural form). The participants listened to an audio-recorded word and then indicated which picture corresponded to the word they had heard. They had five seconds to respond to each item. Ten words were tested in both their singular and plural forms (i.e., there were ten questions in total). Four of them had appeared in both singular and plural form in the treatment (i.e., "old items") while six had appeared only in the singular form (i.e., "new items"). The test

was administered to the participants in their groups. Care was taken to ensure the participants could not see the other students' test papers during the test.

Wug Test. This was adapted from Berko's (1958) test for young L1 learners. The test consisted of ten items. There were five items testing words that had been introduced in the treatment and five testing nonsense words (i.e., ten questions in total). The test was administered to participants individually by the researcher. The researcher first provided the singular form orally while pointing to a picture (e.g., "This is a wug"), and then pointed to the picture depicting two objects while saying "There are two of them. There are two ____" in order to elicit a plural noun. The questions were provided in English and Persian. Ample time was given for the participants to answer.

Tell-and-Do task. This was a one-way information-gap task performed by the researcher working individually with each participant. Two different sheets for the participants and the researcher were prepared. The participants' sheet had ten pictures in various colors (five representing singular items and five plural items). The researcher's sheet had the same ten pictures as the participant sheet but they were not in color. The researcher explained in Persian that the participants needed to tell the researcher how to color the researcher's pictures. The learners were given flash cards representing all the objects and colors needed to complete the test. They were allowed to ask the L2 words for the objects and colors at any time during the task. The task was piloted with five slightly older learners with three to four years of experience in learning English to establish that it successfully elicited the target items. Participants were awarded one point if they attempted to use copula *be* irrespective of subject-verb agreement. They were awarded two points if they used the copula with subject-verb agreement.

Appendix B

Individual Scores for the Comprehension Test, the Wug Test, and the Tell-and-Do Task

	Comprehension test						Wug test						Tell-and-Do task					
	Pre-test		post-test1		post-test2		pre-test		post-test1		post-test2		pre-test		post-test1		post-test2	
	Old	Ne	Old	Ne	Old	Ne	Old	Ne	Old	Ne	Old	Ne	Ag	Pr	Ag	Pr	Ag	pr
FonF	2	2	4	5	4	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
FonF	2	3	1	2	3	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
FonF	2	3	2	3	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
FonF	1	3	4	5	4	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
FonF	1	2	3	6	4	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
FonF	2	2	4	4	4	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
FonF	1	4	4	6	4	6	0	0	2	7	2	7	0	0	9	5	9	5
FonF	1	1	4	5	4	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
FonF	1	3	4	5	2	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
FonF	2	1	3	4	4	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
FonF	1	3	4	5	4	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
FonF	2	2	2	5	4	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
FonF	2	4	4	4	4	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
FonF	2	3	4	6	3	6	0	0	2	4	2	6	0	0	0	0	0	0
FonF	1	2	4	5	2	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
FonFs	1	3	4	5	4	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
FonFs	2	2	2	4	2	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
FonFs	2	4	3	6	4	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
FonFs	1	3	2	3	2	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
FonFs	1	4	2	4	4	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
FonFs	2	3	3	2	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
FonFs	2	4	4	3	3	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
FonFs	1	2	1	2	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
FonFs	3	0	2	3	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
FonFs	2	2	1	3	1	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
FonFs	2	2	2	2	4	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

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FonFs	0	4	4	4	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
FonFs	0	4	1	4	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
FonFs	0	3	2	4	1	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
FonFs	0	4	1	5	2	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Con-G	1	3	0	3	2	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Con-G	2	4	1	2	2	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Con-G	2	3	2	1	2	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Con-G	0	2	1	1	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Con-G	1	3	2	3	4	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Con-G	0	1	1	2	3	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Con-G	2	2	1	2	3	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Con-G	0	1	1	2	3	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Con-G	2	3	3	4	2	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Con-G	1	2	4	3	3	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Con-G	0	1	3	2	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Con-G	1	1	0	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Con-G	1	5	2	1	2	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Con-G	3	2	2	3	3	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Con-G	1	1	2	2	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

NOTE: Prd. = Production scores, Agr. = Subject-verb agreement scores.

Appendix C: Transcription Conventions (adapted from Markee, 2008)

Name: pseudonym of an identified participant
T: the teacher talking
Ss: several or all students talking simultaneously
[ ] overlapped talk
(0.0) length of silence
(.) micro-pause
? rising intonation
! strong emphasis, with falling intonation
. a period indicates falling (final) intonation
, a comma indicates low-rising intonation suggesting continuation
:: noticeably lengthened sound
Underlined marked stress
CAPS loud volume
((words)) comments by the transcriber
/ / phonetic transcription
(= *words*) English translation of the Persian word

Appendix D

Pretest

pretest **ANOVA**

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	5.511	2	2.756	1.587	.217
Within Groups	72.933	42	1.737		
Total	78.444	44			

A one-way ANOVA revealed that there was no statistically significant differences among three groups on pretest, F(2, 42) = 1.58, P = .21 (with an alpha level of .05).

Immediate posttest

immediate **ANOVA**

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	120.044	2	60.022	18.321	.000
Within Groups	137.600	42	3.276		
Total	257.644	44			

A one-way ANOVA revealed that there was statistically significant differences among three groups on immediate posttest, F(2, 42) = 18.32, P < .001 (with an alpha level of .05).

Delayed posttest

delayed **ANOVA**

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	72.933	2	36.467	11.077	.000
Within Groups	138.267	42	3.292		
Total	211.200	44			

A one-way ANOVA revealed that there was statistically significant differences among three groups on delayed posttest, F(2, 42) = 11.07, P < .001 (with an alpha level of .05)

Descriptive Statistics for the Comprehension Test, Wug Test, and Tell-and-Do Task

	Group	Pre-test		Post-test 1		Post-test 2	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Comprehension Test (Plural –*s*)							
Old items	FonF	35.57	14.30	84.55	26.76	90.00	22.76
	FonFs	34.67	29.58	42.33	16.59	40.00	24.62
	Control group	32.00	23.39	35.00	22.52	28.32	22.16
New items	FonF	51.22	15.27	75.44	24.38	79.95	18.05
	FonFs	47.89	21.33	52.20	18.66	51.11	27.78
	Control group	42.89	22.12	47.11	14.66	44.45	13.34
Wug test (Plural –*s*)							
Old items	FonF	0.00	0.00	13.23	35.14	13.31	34.17
	FonFs	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
	Control group	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
New items	FonF	0.00	0.00	12.40	33.07	11.56	29.13
	FonFs	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
	Control group	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Tell-and-Do task (Copula *be*)							
Production	FonF	0.00	0.00	1.00	3.75	1.00	3.75
	FonFs	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
	Control group	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
S-V Agreement	FonF	0.00	0.00	0.32	1.27	0.33	1.27
	FonFs	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
	Control group	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00

Results of comparative test (Mann–Whitney U) for the comprehension test

Test	Old/new	Comparative results	Values
Pre-test	Old items	FonF = FonFs = control group	U=111.000, *p*=.97, *r*=.00
	New items	FonF = FonFs = control group	U=104.500, *p*=.75, *r*=.09
Post-test 1	Old items	FonF>FonFs & control group	U=23.000, *p*=.00, *r*=.67
	New items	FonF>FonFs & control group	U=45500, *p*=.01, *r*=.40
Post-test 2	Old items	FonF>FonFs & control group	U=16.500, *p*=.00, *r*=.72
	New items	FonF>FonFs & control group	U=42.000, *p*=.00, *r*=.51

FonF = FonFs = control group: There was no significant difference between FonF and FonFs
FonF>FonFs & control group: the FonF group outperformed the FonFs and control group

Chi-square tests results

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Comparisons		Results	Values
Frequency of the target features	plural *–s*	FonF >FonFs&Con-G	χ^2 =23.800, *df*=1, *p*<.01, *w*=.10
	copula *be*	FonF >FonFs&Con-G	χ^2=63.022, *df*=1, *p*<.01, *w*=.15
Number of "acquired" students in the Comprehension Test	post-test 1	FonF >FonFs &Con-G	χ^2 =15.415, *df*=1, *p*<.01, *w*=.74
	post-test 2	FonF >FonFs&Con-G	χ^2 =21.927, *df*=1, *p*<.01, *w*=.85
Number of "acquired" students in the Wug test	post-test 1	FonF =FonFs=Con-G	χ^2 =2.132, *df*=1, *p*>.01, *w*=.26
	post-test 2	FonF= FonFs=Con-G	χ^2 =2.132, *df*=1, *p*>.01, *w*=.25
Number of "acquired" students in the Tell-and Do task	post-test 1	FonF =FonFs=Con-G	χ^2 =2.132, *df*=1, *p*>.01, *w*=.26
	post-test 2	FonF = FonFs=Con-G	χ^2 =2.132, *df*=1, *p*>.01, *w*=.26

Appendix E
Sample plural-s comprehension test

1

2

3

4

5

6

7

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8

9

10

Appendix F

camel, ostrich, crocodile, monkey , seal, giraffe., bear, peacock, pan, ladle, spoon, fork, glass, plate, soap, toothbrush, banana, pepper, eggplant, radish, lettuce, pear, zucchini, peach (+ crocodiles, soaps, toothbrushes, ostriches, pears, bananas)

Appendix G
Control group songs
Mulberry Bush

Here we go 'round the Mulberry bush,
The Mulberry bush, the Mulberry bush.
Here we go 'round the Mulberry bush,
So early in the morning.
This is the way we wash the clothes,
Wash the clothes, wash the clothes.
This is the way we wash the clothes
So early in the morning.
This is the way we iron the clothes,
Iron the clothes, iron the clothes.
This is the way we iron the clothes
So early in the morning.
This is the way we scrub the floor,
Scrub the floor, scrub the floor.
This is the way we scrub the floor
So early in the morning.
This is the way we sweep the house,
Sweep the house, sweep the house.
This is the way we sweep the house
So early in the morning.
Here we go round the Mulberry bush, the Mulberry bush
the mulberry bush, here we go round the mulberry bush
early in the morning
This is the way you wash your face, wash your face, wash your face
this is the way you wash your face, every Monday morning
wash, wash, wash your face (repeat)
This is the way you brush your teeh, brush your teeth, brush your teeth
this is the way you brush your teeth, every Tuesday morning
brush, brush, brush your teeth (repeat)
This is the way you comb your hair, comb your hair, comb your hair
This is the way you comb your hair, every Wednesday morning
comb, comb, comb your hair (repeat)
This is the way you take a bath, take a bath, take a bath
this is the way you take a bath every Thursday morning
take, take, take a bath (repeat)

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This is the way you go to school, go to school, go to school
this is the way you go to school, every Friday morning
go, go, go to school (repeat)
This is the way you read a book, read a book, read a book
This is the way you read a book, every Saturday morning
read, read, read a book (repeat)

Twinkle, twinkle, little star

Twinkle, twinkle, little star,
How I wonder what you are!
Up above the world so high,
Like a diamond in the sky.
Twinkle, twinkle, little star,
How I wonder what you are!
****
When the blazing sun is gone,
When he nothing shines upon,
Then you show your little light,
Twinkle, twinkle, all the night.
Twinkle, twinkle, little star,
How I wonder what you are!
****
Then the traveler in the dark,
Thanks you for your tiny spark,
He could not see which way to go,
If you did not twinkle so.
Twinkle, twinkle, little star,
How I wonder what you are!
****
In the dark blue sky you keep,
And often through my curtains peep,
For you never shut your eye,
Till the sun is in the sky.
Twinkle, twinkle, little star,
How I wonder what you are!
****
As you're bright and tiny spark,
Lights the traveler in the dark, —
Though I know not what you are,
Twinkle, twinkle, little star.
Twinkle, twinkle, little star,
How I wonder what you are!

LONDON BRIDGE IS FALLING DOWN

London Bridge is falling down, falling down, falling down
London Bridge is falling down, my fair lady.
How shall we build it up again, up again, up again?
How shall we build it up again, my fair lady?
Build it up with silver and gold
Silver and gold will be stolen away
Build it up with wood and clay
Wood and clay will wash away
Build it up with iron and steel
Iron and steel will bend and bow
Build it up with stone so strong
Stone will last for ages long.

MJLTM

THE INFLUENCE OF WEBLOG ON IRANIAN INTERMEDIATE EFL LEARNERS' ATTITUDE TOWARDS WRITING

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ABSTRACT

NEW MODELS OF COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGY CREATED GOOD PEDAGOGICAL MODELS AND LEARNING FIELD. ON THE OTHER HAND, PAYING ATTENTION TO THIS FACT THAT WRITING IS A SOCIAL PROCESS ACCENTUATES THE IMPORTANCE OF WEBLOG WRITING. IN THIS STUDY A QUASI-EXPERIMENTAL RESEARCH DESIGN WAS APPLIED TO ELICIT DATA FROM 48 IRANIAN INTERMEDIATE EFL LEARNERS RANGING FROM AGE OF 16 TO 18 AND EXTRACTED FROM 60 EFL LEARNERS. LEARNERS TOOK PART IN A GEPT (GENERAL ENGLISH PROFICIENCY TEST) TO BE SURE ABOUT THEIR HOMOGENEITY IN TERM OF ENGLISH PROFICIENCY. IT WAS A STANDARD PROFICIENCY TEST THAT WAS ADAPTED AND VALIDATED TO MY CONTEXT WITH TEST-RETEST. THE LEARNERS WITH SCORE IN BEYOND +/-1SD GEPT (12 LEARNERS) WERE EXCLUDED. ITS INTERNAL RELIABILITY, AND CRONBACH'S ALPHA WAS 0.90 INDICATING THAT ALL ITEMS WERE RELIABLE. THEN, TO AVOID BIAS THEY WERE RANDOMLY PAIRED TO CONTROL GROUP AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUP. THE DATA WAS COLLECTED THROUGH GEPT AND A FIVE-SCALE LIKERT QUESTIONNAIRE RESPONSE AS PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST AFTER TREATMENT. THE COLLECTED DATA WAS ANALYZED BY USING DEDUCTIVE METHODS LIKE USING T-TEST ON SPSS 18 TO FIND OUT THE CONSEQUENCES OF THE RESEARCH ASSUMPTIONS. IT WAS REVEALED THAT WEBLOG HAD POSITIVE INFLUENCE ON THE LEARNERS' ATTITUDE TOWARD WRITING. MEANWHILE, ACCORDING TO STATISTICS, CONFIDENCE INTERVAL OF THE DIFFERENCE IN ALL TESTS OF THE STUDY WAS 95% AND P VALUE WAS LESS THAN 0.05 INDICATING THE FACT THAT THE RESULT WAS DUE TO CONSIDERED VARIABLES, AND NOT DUE TO OTHER VARIABLES. THE FINDING OF THE STUDY DRAWS TEACHERS', COURSE DESIGNERS', AND STOCK-HOLDERS' ATTENTION TO THIS FACT THAT THEY SHOULD INTEGRATE COMPUTER AND ITS TECHNOLOGY INTO EFL EDUCATION.

***KEYWORDS**: ATTITUDE; LEARNING; WEBLOG; WRITING*

Introduction

A weblog (or blog) is a web-based space for writing where all the writing and editing of information is managed through a web browser and is immediately and publicly available in the Internet (Zhang, 2009).Recent developments in the field of technology have led to a rehabilitated interest in using it in language learning and teaching. According to Badrinathan (2013); Noytim (2010); Williams, & Jacobs (2004) blogs expand the opportunities for student interaction and the horizons of learning space" exponentially, provide writers with a far greater audience both within and outside of the classroom. Yih and Nah (2009) cited writing is important for education of EFL

learners for some reasons. Firstly, writing well is a necessary skill for academic achievement. Secondly, writing can be an effective tool for the development of language proficiency itself. Thirdly, writing across the curriculum can be valuable for mastering diverse subject matter, as written expressions allow learners to raise their awareness of knowledge gaps, abstract problem-specific knowledge into schemas that can be applied to other relevant cases, and elaborate mental representations of knowledge that can be more easily retrieved, while simultaneously allowing teachers to better understand the students' state of knowledge and thinking process and thus adjust necessary instructions.

Recent developments in technology have heightened the need for using weblog in the field of learning and teaching because teachers can open a new way for their students to communicate with other students through creating a blog. Moreover, teaching and learning through weblog is a great way to communicate with parents and keep them involved in what is going on in the classroom with their children even if they cannot physically be there. In addition, it enhances learning via visual learning.

A lot of researchers have confirmed the importance of CALL (Computer Assisted Language Learning) and weblog. Weblogs is new and fast form of communication and publishing in the Internet; blog-based learning is a vital part of learning improves traditional teacher – led education potentially (Kim, Turner, Rimal. & Morrison, 2006). As Shahamat and Riazi, (2009) mention blogs allow learners to improve personal content by cooperating and sharing their knowledge with other learners in online community. The other advantage of weblog that outweighs other types of social media is allowing viewpoints on the same subjects to be posted and link to other blogs (Yu, & Watkins, 2011). Meanwhile, it shows potential effect on teacher's instructions, and improves student's self-reflection and self-evaluation of their learning (Kazai, Yusof & Clarke, 2016). The significant literature on the role of technology-based instructions in learning and teaching reveals the key importance of these technologies in education particularly language learning.

In spite of many researches done in this case, far too little attention has been paid to the role of weblog in enhancing of EFL learners' attitude towards writing. Since most of them have concentrated on CALL in EFL teaching and learning. Some of them have focused only on relationship of computer and learning skills; how weblog has changed the learners' performances. Moreover, the problem with those of which have focused on attitude toward technology-based learning in English classroom, is that they have not paid enough attention to the effect of weblog on EFL learners' attitude toward writing in Iran. Additionally, since technology and its sub-sections in Iran, EFL classes haven't been progressed a lot. Besides, our findings may pave the way for teachers and educational stock-holders to integrate computer and its technologies into EFL teaching and learning. The study may also improve teaching methods of English writing.

The purpose of study

This study aims at determining the effectiveness of using weblog in learning English language writing compared with the traditional method. With the help of computer and weblog, language learning environments can be more cheerful, motivating for learners to learn writing.

Literature review

Today, it is undeniable that the revolution of technology in the recent years has modified the way in which pedagogical resources and information are distributed in different institutional levels and fields. So focusing on technology and its usage in instructional and academic curricula has been one of debatable issues. This study aimed to investigate the Iranian intermediate EFL learners' attitudes toward using CALL in the form of weblog in their writing process. These concepts build a foundation of knowledge regarding weblog and its impact on the learning community in EFL classroom. As an important part of research, technology integration requires investigations and explorations in EFL field on the use of CALL and weblog in language classrooms.

Writing

A large number of researchers have emphasized the importance of writing. For example, Yih and Nah (2009) mentioned that writing is important for education of FL learners for some reasons. Firstly, writing well is a necessary skill for academic achievement. Secondly, writing can be an effective tool for the development of language proficiency itself. Thirdly, writing across the curriculum can be valuable for mastering diverse subject matter as written expression allows learners to raise their awareness of knowledge gaps, abstract problem-specific knowledge into schemas that

can be applied to other relevant cases, and elaborate mental representations of knowledge that can be more easily retrieved.

Defining a Weblog

According to the Oxford dictionary, "A blog is a website where entries are made in journal style and displayed in a reverse chronological order." A typical blog combines text, images, and links to other blogs, web pages, and other media related to its topic. A weblog is a web-based space for writing where all the writing and editing of information is managed through a web browser and is immediately and publicly available in the Internet (Zhang, 2009). Similarly, Godwin-Jones, (2011) stated that weblog commonly known as a blog is a contraction of two words: web and log. It is a great way to communicate with parents and keep them involved in learning and teaching, even if they cannot physically be there.

Weblogs and Writing Instruction in ELT

Computers have been used in writing classrooms for a long time. Originally the use of computers in the teaching of writing has been restricted to word processing. It is easy for teachers to make corrections and for students to make revisions. Later, some editing programs provided additional functions such as spelling checkers, and readability scores that helped students with textual errors. However, the use of computers in composition teaching has grown dramatically as new software programs and teacher-designed computer exercises are created. Gorbis and Hallgren (1999) confirmed that "historically, technology of visualization plays an important role in many fields and makes atmosphere of learning enjoyable." Blogs are user-friendly websites which are easy to maintain and frequently updated by their owners. The rise in popularity of technology has resulted in new words being added to the English language, such as: blog, blogging, bloggers, and blogosphere (Embrey, (2002); Izadpanah, & Alavi, (2016). Blog also enables individuals to express their thoughts at their own pace and in their own space so that, in contrast to traditional classroom settings, learners who use blogs do not have to compete with their classmates for the instructor's attention (Burke, & Grosvenor, 2015). To illustrate more, Pinkman (2005) wrote that blogging becomes communicative and interactive when participants assume multiple roles in the writing process, as writers who write and post, as readers/reviewers who respond to other writers' posts, and as writer-readers who, returning to their own posts, react to criticism of their own posts.

Attitude

Attitude is one of challenging concepts which different researches have provided different definitions. For example, Ostrom (1969); Izadpanah, & Asadi, (2015) stated attitude is a reaction or respond to an object or a set of objects. Krashen (1981) defined L2 attitude as learners' tendency toward the culture and speakers of the target language. Marzban (2011) referred to affective states and attitudes as "emotion," "feelings," "attitude," "anxiety," "belief," and "motivation." He added "attitudes" are "psychological states acquired over a period of time as a result of our experiences; these attitudes influence us to act in certain ways". Levine and Donitsa-Schmidt (1998) cited attitude is value, belief, evaluation, acquired motivation. Warschauer, & Meskill, (2000) stated that attitude is second language students' negative or positive feeling about learning of second language which is inter-related with motivation. In other words, students' motivation mainly depends on their attitudes. Vandewaetere and Desmet (2009) stated that cognitive component is beliefs or ideas about related the objects or situations to the attitude. It was defined as what individuals accept or reject in various situations.

Attitude toward Language Learning

Many factors are important learning of language. Among them, positive attitude is more enhancing and facilitating (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993; Izadpanah, & Alavi, (2016); Krashen, 1981; Vandewaetere & Desmet, 2009). Students who have negative attitude toward second language acquisition will learn less input and have high affective filter where as those possessing positive attitude toward second language acquisition will acquire more input, and also have lower affective variable(Levine and Donitsa-Schmidt ,1998).

Previous studies on the effect of CALL especially weblog on learners' attitude and motivation

In a recent study by Ebrahimi, Eskandari and Rahimi (2013), the influence of adopting technology-enhanced language learning framework was found on students' leaning. The participants of this study were selected through accidental sampling. They were 34 Iranian between 17 and 21 years (F=14 and M=20) upper-intermediate EFL students in a communication class in Parto English Institute, Arsanjan, Iran. The study was carried out through a quasi-experimental (Non-equivalent

Comparison) with pretest and posttest in control and experimental groups by means of Cambridge ESOL Preliminary Test (PET), a proficiency test, a five-scale Likert questionnaire. The data collected was analyzed by means of ANCOVA on SPSS 18.They found that a technology-enhanced language learning environment proved to be more effective, learner-centered , and improved students' autonomy .

Jalali and Dousti (2014) conducted an experimental study to investigate the impact of attitudes of three different young EFL students toward CALL. The participants were divided into two control and experimental groups. The control group was taught traditionally, and the experimental group was taught through computers for 15 minutes. Then students answered A-call questionnaire. Results revealed that participants generally showed positive attitude toward use of computers.

Kalanzadeh, Soleimani and Bakhtiarvand (2014) investigated the influence of technology on 60 Iranians EFL students' motivation in university classrooms through questionnaire. In order to gather the required data for this study a group of 60 English students majoring in English translation were selected at random. They were studying English at Payam-e-Noor university of Andimeshk, Iran. The age range, sex, and background knowledge of English of the students were not controlled in this study. This empirical study was based on a questionnaire composed of 15 questions about motivation and technology use in EFL classrooms and developed by Bull, Bull, &Kajder (2003). The questionnaire was distributed among the subjects and then an item analysis was done. Then the data were entered into SPSS and chi-square statistical analysis was used. It was found that there was positive correlation between students' attitude, language learning and technology use in the English classes.

Dashtestani (2014) explored the Iranian EFL teachers' perceptions on use of online instruction by conducting a mixed-method study questionnaire and semi-structured interview on 242 EFL teachers filling in questionnaire phase of the study. In addition, 46 EFL teachers were interviewed. Results from the study revealed that participants support rather positive attitudes toward use of online instruction. In addition, it was found that there are some barriers to implementation of online instruction in Iranian EFL classrooms like lack of online facilities and resources, lack of interaction in online instruction, cultural resistances to online instruction and teachers' limited knowledge of online instruction.

Also in a recent study Rahimi and Askari (2014) studied the effectiveness of using ICT like internet, email, blogs and PowerPoint in developing students' self-regulation. The study used a pretest–posttest. To this end, 60 Iranian female English students in the age range of 16–21 were randomly selected the participants, were divided into two experimental and control groups.

Shana and Abulibdehb (2015) investigated the EFL students' attitudes toward use of computers in a private university on their language learning process. In this respect, 192 undergraduate students filled in a questionnaire to see impact of some factors like gender, experience of using computers, and perceived abilities in using programs on attitudes of students. Findings of the study verified the key role of the computer in learning process of students. Although effect of gender was not found to be significant on students' attitude, skill in using program had positive effect on students' attitude.

Öz, Demirezen and Pourfeiz (2015) investigated the relationship between computer literacy, attitudes towards foreign language learning and computer-assisted language learning among 123 English university students with two different questionnaires, Attitudes towards Foreign Language Learning (A-FLL) Scale and the Attitudes towards Computer-Assisted Language Learning (A-CALL) scale. The present study was conducted in an EFL teacher education program at a major state university in Turkey. A total of 134 EFL learners ranged in age from 19 to 22 (male: $N = 34$ and female: $N = 100$) enrolled in the program voluntarily participated in the study and gave consent for data collection. Result of the study showed that the students who had high positive attitudes toward FLL, had high positive attitudes toward CALL. In addition, it was revealed that there was a positive correlation between gender and computer literacy.

A study conducted on 351 university female students in Japan by Burke and Grosvenor (2015), to investigate their reaction to iPads and EBooks explored that students showed positive reactions to both iPods and eBooks. The survey showed that students' reactions to iPads and EBooks are quite positive but that there are some discrepancies between different groups of students in the use of iPads.All participants were 351 students out of the 450. Not all surveys were complete. Many of the questions on the survey asked students to report on a 5-point Likert Scale, with 1 indicating low and 5 indicating high. Finally, there was a section in which students could give their opinions about the iPad. The result showed that there was a positive correlation between students' attitudes and iPad.

In another study, Sardegna, & Dugartsyrenova, (2014) tried to investigate factors affecting CALL in Chinese senior high schools by asking 340 English teachers to fill in a questionnaire and taking part in semi-structured oral interview. A questionnaire was administered to 340 English teachers and a semi-structured oral interview was conducted as a follow-up. The result showed teachers support using computer and its technologies in teaching and learning English.

Shams and Ketabi (2015) investigated attitudes of Iranian teachers on using Interactive White Boards(IWB) in EFL classrooms with a questionnaire including 22 questions distributed among 174 EFL teachers who used IWBs in their teaching and learning process. Questionnaires items were based on four main themes including: instructional effects, motivational effects, usability, and frequency. Generally, it was proved that teachers had positive attitude toward IWB use and they confirmed that IWB is a powerful motivating tool in teaching process.

Regarding with all of the researches done in this field, fewer researchers have investigated the influence of weblog on attitudes of learners in learning to write and its implication inIran. Thus, the researcher thought itwas more important to study influence of weblog on writing of learners in our country. Consequently, since technology and its sub-sections in Iran EFL classes haven't been progressed a lot, it was important to investigate students' attitudes toward using of weblog to teach and learn writing. Besides, our findings may pave the way for teachers and educational stock-holders to integrate computer and its technologies into EFL teaching and learning.

Method

Design of Study

In this study, the researcher used quasi –experimental method to investigate the impact of weblog and learners' attitude change in the EFL writing classroom.

Participants and Setting

This study investigated the influence of the simultaneous use of weblog on learners' attitudes to write and writing performance. This study was done in Jahade Daneshghahi Language Institute of Miyaneh. The important reason for choosing Jahad Daneshghahi Language Institute for the study was that it is an authoritative and official state institute under supervision of Tabriz University to teach English Skills. The participants were at the same intermediate level of English. In this study a quasi-experimental research design was applied to elicit data from 48 Iranian intermediate EFL learners ranging from age of 16 to 18 and extracted from 60 EFL learners selected out of 70 learners according to Cochran Formula. The participants ought to be at the same intermediate English level. For this reason, initially, students took part in a GEPT (General English Proficiency Test) to be sure about their homogeneity in term of English proficiency. This was a standard proficiency test that was adapted and validated to the context and its reliability was tested with Test-Re-test Reliability through pilot test. The students with score beyond +1/-1standard deviation (12students) were excluded. Then, they were randomly assigned and paired to control and experimental groups to avoid bias. Control group was taught through conventional way of writing in the class on odd days in Jahade Daneshghahi and experimental group was received treatment through weblog with the same instructor, giving them instructions how to use their weblogs in computer site of Jahade Daneshghahi on even days for 20 sessions during three weeks.

Data Collection Tools (Instrument)

The data was collected through a five-scale Lickert questionnaire response as pre-test, intervention (treatment), and post-test.

Pretest

The pre-test was used in this study was a questionnaire. It was a five-scale Lickert questionnaire response extracted from Dr. Yuh-show Cheng's questionnaire (Professor of Department of English in National Taiwan Normal University) commissioned and published by Taiwan's Education in 2002 with her permission and authorization and was measuring the students' attitude before treatment. Meanwhile it was translated by some English experts to avoid any misunderstanding by learners.

The questionnaire was validated according to our context. To this end, questionnaire including 30 questions was given to ten experts to determine which ones are essentials and its content validity was estimated by Lawsh CVR (Content Validity Ratio) for each item. Ten questions were excluded.

After that that twenty questions were distributed among 20 learners to estimate its internal reliability, and Cronbach's Alpha was 0.90 indicating that all items were reliable; no items out of 20 questions were excluded.

Post-test

After treatment learners' learning attitude toward writing were evaluated based on the results of the same test that was five-scale Lickert questionnaire response validated to the context to measure the learners' attitude toward writing after treatment.

Piloting GEPT Questions

The test to be sure about homogeneity of learners in this study was a GEPT (General English Proficiency Test) which was a standardized test was commissioned by Taiwan's Ministry of Education in 1999 included listening, speaking, reading and writing tests should measure the students writing performance. Section two was devoted to reading and writing which had 30questions being presented in six parts; however, it had to be noted that its reading section was scored objectively and its writing was scored by two raters to prevent raters' bias. The researcher shortened and validated the section two which was 30 questions to20 questions including reading and writing questions, and to check the reliability of the test after adaption, first 10 learners who were similar to the target group took the test for the first time and after 15 days again they were given the same test. The correlation of two tests was 0.74 that showed the validated test was reliable enough to be used in our study according to the context. (Table 3.1)

***Table** 3. 1 Correlations of Test and Retest 0f GEPT*

		VAR00001	VAR00002
VAR00001	Pearson Correlation	1	.745*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.013
	N	10	10
VAR00002	Pearson Correlation	.745*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.013	
	N	10	10

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

Piloting the Questionnaire

Another pilot study was conducted on English learners who had not participated in the research, but were similar to the population of the present study. It was hoped that carrying out the pilot study would mean that the succeeding sample might be less affected by any other possible variables, and would help the researcher to develop a reliable assessment instrument, formulating survey items to measure participants' attitudes toward EFL writing through weblog. The items that were used in the pilot version of the instrument firstly was given to ten English experts in Jahad

Daneshghahi of Miyaneh to determine which ones are essentials and its content validity was estimated by Lawsh CVR (Content Validity Ratio) for each item. Ten questions were excluded.

According to Lawsh Formula ➔ CVR = $\frac{(Ne - N \div 2)}{N \div 2}$

Every item in CVR must not be lower than 0.42 unless it is known not to be valid.

***Table** 3.2 Content Validity Ratio of Validated Questionnaire According to Lawsh Formula*

Questions	Numbers of 10 Experts who thought the item was Essential	CVR	Valid
1	8	0.6	Valid
2	3	-0.4	Invalid
3	10	1	Valid
4	9	0.8	Valid
5	8	0.6	Valid
6	8	0.6	Valid
7	8	0.6	Valid

8	**2**	**-0.6**	**Invalid**
9	**7**	**0.4**	**Invalid**
10	**9**	**0.8**	**Valid**
11	**10**	**1**	**Valid**
12	**8**	**0.6**	**Valid**
13	**7**	**0.4**	**Invalid**
14	**9**	**0.8**	**Valid**
15	**6**	**0.2**	**Invalid**
16	**9**	**0.8**	**Valid**
17	**4**	**-0.2**	**Invalid**
18	**9**	**0.8**	**Valid**
19	**8**	**0.6**	**Valid**
20	**4**	**-0.2**	**Invalid**
21	**8**	**0.6**	**Valid**
22	**8**	**0.6**	**Valid**
23	**3**	**-0.4**	**Invalid**
24	**9**	**0.8**	**Valid**
25	**2**	**-0.6**	**Invalid**
26	**9**	**0.8**	**Valid**
27	**7**	**0.4**	**Invalid**
28	**10**	**1**	**Valid**
29	**9**	**0.8**	**Valid**
30	**8**	**0.6**	**Valid**

After that in order to provide an appropriate form of survey instrument for group administration within a short period of time, all items in the pilot questionnaire were translated into Persian. This translated version of the questionnaire was revised based upon the feedback provided by three university professors. They were then dist
ributed to a sample of 10 students to estimate its internal

reliability, and Cronbach's Alpha was 0.90 indicating that all items were reliable; no items out of 20 questions were excluded.

***Table** 3.3Reliability of Validated Questionnaire*

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	20	100.0
	Excluded	0	.0
	Total	20	100.0

[a]

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

***Table** 3.4Reliability Statistics*

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.909	.916	20

***Table** 3.5 Item Statistics*

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Q1	2.30	.657	20

Q2	1.85	.587	20
Q3	2.50	.607	20
Q4	2.50	.607	20
Q5	2.45	.686	20
Q6	2.45	.605	20
Q7	2.65	.745	20
Q8	2.45	.605	20
Q9	2.45	.605	20
Q10	2.65	.745	20
Q11	2.55	.605	20
Q12	2.70	.733	20
Q13	2.50	.607	20
Q14	2.60	.681	20
Q15	2.70	.923	20
Q16	2.60	.821	20
Q17	2.45	.605	20
Q18	2.45	.686	20
Q19	2.75	.786	20
Q20	2.05	.686	20

Data Collection Procedure

Administration of the Questionnaire as a Test to Determine the Learners' Attitude towards Writing

Information was collected by means of five-scale Lickert questionnaire response. It was a validated CALLAI (Computer Assisted Language Learning Attitude Instrument) questionnaire by Cheng (2012).The items of the questionnaire included affective, behavioral, and language skills factors. It was reduced to 2o items and validated for Persian language contexts like Iran by ten English experts and its internal reliability was estimated by pilot test and Cronbach's Alpha was 0.90 indicating that all items were reliable; no items out of 20 questions were excluded. First section of the questionnaire was related to background information of students such as age, gender, grade, accessibility to computer, and their English language level. Second section of the questionnaire was composed of 20 items relating to affective, behavioral, and language skills components. It was distributed among control and experimental groups as pre-test and post-test.

Treatment

The treatment of the research included teaching of writing to experimental group learners through weblog in computer site of Jahade Daneshghahi of Miyaneh by an instructor on even days. It took 20 an hour sessions three times a week, practicing writing with them practically, negotiating, and evaluating their writing through weblog. In a way that firstly, the learners were instructed how to create weblog in computer site of Jahad Daneshghahi for two sessions and after that the instructor taught them to write composition with " Developing Composition Skills " book by Mary K. Ruetten .They were instructed to write paragraph and after that composition included more than one paragraph ,different kinds of paragraph (introduction , body , conclusion) , different kinds of writing (descriptive , explanatory ,and so on) , and punctuation marks. Meanwhile, after having completed their writings, they send and share them with their peers in weblog" classcentral.vcp.ir". Learners were then instructed to read two to three of their classmates' writings in the blog and comment on them. It is better to remind that they should register first of all in weblog and after that they could

upload their own writings or comment on others' writings. But control group learners were instructed writing in conventional way in class three times a week on odd days.

Results

The question that the study addressed to answer, was, "What is the influence of Weblog on the attitude of Iranian intermediate EFL learners towards EFL writing? "

The results shown in Table 4.1 and 4.2 support and confirm the hypothesis.

H_1: There is statistically significant difference in learners' attitude towards writing between EFL intermediate Iranian learners who use weblog in writing and the ones who don't. (H_1: (H_1: $\mu d \neq 0$)

H0: There is no statistically significant difference in learners' attitude towards writing between EFL intermediate Iranian learners who use weblog in writing and the ones who don't. (H0: $\mu d = 0$)

It was important to be sure if test distribution of pre-test and post-test is normal or not. So the researcher used Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test .To this end, indicating that test distribution was normal. Therefore, the researcher used Paired T-Test to analyze the data. (Table 4.1)

***Table** 4.10 One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test*

		Attitude	
		Pretest	Posttest
N		48	48
Normal Parameters [a,b]	Mean	65.90	64.96
	Std. Deviation	3.720	4.242
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.199	.168
	Positive	.199	.168
	Negative	-.093	-.139
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		1.381	1.166
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.044	.132

Test distribution is Normal.

To this end, the researcher compared the mean of learners' scores of experimental group in answering of questionnaire (73.88) with the mean of learners' scores of control group (56.04). Difference between the means of two groups was (17.83). It was revealed that there was significant difference between means of learners' scores of two groups in post-test indicating this fact that weblog can change learners' attitude positively. Because the statistics showed meaningful difference between attitude of learners who use weblog in their writing and the ones who write in conventional way. (t= 12.922, df= 23, P< 0.0005, 2-tailed)(See Table 4.11 and Table 4.12)

***Table**4.11: Paired Samples Descriptive Statistics*

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Control Group	56.0417	24	3.38127	.69020
	Experimental Group	73.88	24	6.081	1.241

***Table** 4.12: Paired Samples Test*

	Paired Differences					t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
				95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper			

***Table**4.11: Paired Samples Descriptive Statistics*

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Control Group	56.0417	24	3.38127	.69020

Pair 1	Control - Experimental	-17.83333	6.76093	1.38007	-20.68822	-14.97844	-12.922	23	.000

To have a strong leg to confirm hypothesis 3 , the researcher compared the difference between the mean of learners' scores of experimental group in answering questionnaire in pre-test (55.96) with their score mean in post-test (73.88) .There was significant difference between two means of the same group (-17.917) . It was revealed that weblog can impact learners' attitude positively. (t=12.955, df= 23, P<0.00025, 1-tailed) (See Table 4.13 & 4.14)

H3: Weblog can influence learners' attitudes for learning positively. (H1: $\mu d > 0$)

H0: Weblog cannot influence learners' attitudes for learning positively. (H0: $\mu d \leq 0$)

***Table**4.13: Paired Samples Descriptive Statistics*

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Pre_test	55.96	24	3.381	.690
	Post_test	73.88	24	6.081	1.241

***Table**4.14: Paired Samples Test*

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
				95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper			
Pair 1 Pre_test - Post_test	-17.917	6.775	1.383	-20.778	-15.056	-12.955	23	.000

The researcher explored significant variations in students' attitude before and after the course (paired t-test for each group). The weblog intervention did change learners' attitudes with regard to the factors of enjoyment, productivity and participation in weblog situation. At the same time, the group of learners who hadn't received any treatments also hadn't significant change in their attitude level towards writing. The researcher attempted to find out whether those dependent variables of attitude performance in the experimental group had achieved a higher level of change in comparison with the control group. The result shows that the weblog intervention had a greater impact on learners' attitudes towards writing. In other words, learners in the experimental group were more likely to enjoy writing in English and showed an increased possibility of using English to express their thoughts and ideas more frequently. The learners in the experimental group were more likely to appreciate their own writing and more willing to participate in the process of revision and self-correction rather than simply reacting to the designated revision tasks.(Table 4.4– 4.5)

Bearing in mind the above findings, it should be noted that different technological experiences such as weblog and online writing represent a form of social learning activity and social interaction. These technological experiences can play a role as a facilitator when learners are engaged in the context of cooperative learning. Based on the quantitative findings, learners who experienced the

weblog writing had a more positive attitude toward the weblog activities and practicing. The researcher found that after twenty sessions of the EFL writing course with the weblog intervention, learners who often used weblog reflected a stronger attitude towards their writing compared with those who never or sometimes used weblog to write in English. This means learners who use weblog frequently are more likely to welcome suggestions and to invite readers or to have their writing proofread by others. Weblog also provides learners a platform to make comments on others' writing activities. Therefore, it is possible to assume that email activity helps the learners to adapt themselves in some writing tasks, particularly when they are asked to proofread and make suggestions on other's writing. The wealth of data provided by the quantitative analysis also demonstrates the fact that learners in the experimental group were more likely to enjoy writing in English and considered the possibility of using English to express their thoughts and ideas more enthusiastically.

Discussion

The discussion of the research findings in relation to the research question can be summarized as follows.To answer the question, "What is the influence of weblog on attitude of Iranian intermediate EFL learners toward EFL writing? "

After being sure about normality of data distribution with Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test and comparing the mean of learners' scores of experimental group in answering of questionnaire with the mean of learners' scores of control group, the researcher explored that there was significant difference between means of learners' scores of two groups in post-test indicating this fact that weblog can change learners' attitude positively. Additionally, the researcher compared the mean of learners' scores of experimental group in answering questionnaire in pre-test with their score mean in post-test .There was significant difference between two means of the same group. Therefore, there is statistically significant difference in learners' attitude toward writing between EFL intermediate Iranian learners who use weblog in writing and the ones who do not and weblog can influence learners' attitudes for learning positively.

The researcher explored significant variations in students' attitude before and after the course (paired t-test for each group). The weblog intervention did change students' attitudes with regard to the factors of enjoyment, productivity and participation in weblog situation. At the same time, the group of students who hadn't received any treatments also hadn't significant change in their attitude level towards writing. The researcher attempted to find out whether those dependent variables of attitude performance in the experimental group had achieved a higher level of change in comparison with the control group. The result shows that the weblog intervention had a greater impact on students' attitudes towards writing. In other words, students in the experimental group were more likely to enjoy writing in English and showed an increased possibility of using English to express their thoughts and ideas more frequently. The students in the experimental group were more likely to appreciate their own writing and more willing to participate in the process of revision and self-correction rather than simply reacting to the designated revision tasks.

It should be noted that different technology-based educations such as weblog and online information exchange represent a form of social learning activity and social interaction. These technological experiences can play a role as a facilitator when learners are engaged in the context of cooperative learning. Based on the quantitative findings, learners who wrote through weblog had a more positive attitude toward the weblog activities and practicing. The researcher found that after twenty sessions of the EFL writing course with the weblog intervention, learners who often used weblog reflected a stronger attitude towards their writing compared with those who did not use weblog to write in English. This means students who use weblog frequently were more motivated and eager to write and to have their writing proofread by others. As we know, weblog is manifested as a kind of powerful tool to cooperate in writing. In other words, weblog provides learners a platform to make comments on each other's writings. Therefore, it is possible to assume that weblog activities help the learners to write according to their own needs. The wealth of data provided by the quantitative analysis also demonstrated the fact that students in the experimental group were more likely to enjoy writing in English and considered the possibility of using English to express their thoughts and ideas more enthusiastically. A lot of previous studies conducted in this case, confirm the study and this study is in line with many previous studies. For example:

In a study by Clément, Dörnyei and Noels (1994) to show importance of attitude, motivation, and anxiety in learning English of 301 grade 11 students explored that socio-cultural, instrumental, and media-use reasons had the most significant effect on students. In this study weblog did increased the learners' motivation to write and learn English.

In a study, Kamhi-stein (2000) revealed that the Web-based communication promoted collaboration and interaction that were driven by the needs and interests of the students and according to the current study; web-based writing improved the learners' cooperation with eachothers.

Mergendoller, Maxwell and Bellisimo (2000) explored the possible effects of computer-mediated collaboration in the improvement of language skills and found that the students hold positive attitudes to collaborate computer in the teaching and learning context. In this study, the learners were very eager to write and evaluate their writings when they write through weblog.

Ushida (2005) showed that among different materials and methodologies in language teaching, attitude of students toward CALL is considered a major factor influencing its influential implementation and this study explored the positive effect of weblog on students' inclination towards using weblog in writing.

In another study, Shin and Son (2007) examined Korean secondary school EFL teachers' perceptions and perspectives on the use of the internet for teaching purposes and suggested that there are three key factors affecting the use of the internet in the classroom: teachers' personal interest in internet use; teachers' abilities to integrate internet resources into classroom activities; and computer facilities and technological support in schools. The current study is in line in the third case with this study and both confirm that computer – based teaching and learning can influence the learners' viewpoints on language learning.

Che, Li and Liu (2010) investigated attitude of 140 college students of non-English major toward integration of information and communication technologies into English learning and revealed that female students had more positive attitude toward ICT than male students. But in this study the researcher ignored the gender factor in studying of effect of weblog on the learners' attitude towards writing.

Rahimi (2011) studied Iranian high-school students' attitudes towards learning English in CALL environment and revealed that students hold positive attitude toward using of CALL after experiment and this is in line with the current study.

In another experimental study, Tilfarlioglu (2011) investigated students' attitude toward use of technologies videos, sharing writings, joining groups, creating groups, joining groups to learn English, playing games, on learning English. The finding revealed that students hold positive attitude toward technologies. In the study, the learners enjoyed a lot when they wrote through weblog.

Regarding teachers' attitude toward technology in EFL classroom, Arani, (2005) conducted an experiment on 82 EFL teachers in using of interactive whiteboards (IWBS) in different EFL institutes in Turkey. The result showed teachers' positive attitude toward IWB use in the process of English teaching. The finding of the current study showed learners' tendency towards technology use in their writings.

In addition to aforementioned studies, Bijeikienė ,Rašinskienė and Zutkienė (2011) conducted a qualitative study on 24 English teachers taking the role of the respondents to explore their attitudes toward blended learning and ICT implementation in general English classes at the CFL. Teachers revealed moderately positive attitude toward ICT application through multimedia language laboratories. In this study the learners showed positive attitude toward writing through weblog.

Mokhtari (2013) investigated the Iranian EFL students' attitude toward using of computer-assisted language learning and concluded that students hold positive attitude toward implementation of computer technology in their courses like this study.

Rahimi & Katal (2012) examined influence of CALL in different levels of education on attitude of 50 Iranian female junior high school students, and found the higher education level creates the higher positive students' attitude towards CALL, but this study ignored the influence of educational level on the learners' attitude. In general, the learners showed positive attitude towards weblog writing.

In another study by Talebinezhad and Abarghoui (2013) Iranian high school students' general attitude toward using CALL for receptive skills (listening, reading) was studied and it was found that

when they used CALL in their learning, they could understand content better and this study showed positive effect of weblog on the learners' attitude towards writing.

In other study conducted by Handal, Mac Nish and Petocz (2013) on 186 female university students in Australian, it was revealed that university students were more inclined and active to use mobile in learning. In this study students were more enthusiastic to use weblog in their writings.

Aydin (2013) investigated Turkish EFL teachers' knowledge of software and their reasons for personally using computer, including the attitudes and viewpoints of self-confidence among teachers in integrating computers and the school climate. The results indicated that Turkish EFL teachers even with little computer and software knowledge have positive perceptions of computer integration and attitudes toward computer use and in this study learners showed positive attitude towards computer and weblog.

Jalali and Dousti (2014) conducted an experimental study to investigate the impact of CALL on attitudes of three different young EFL students and revealed that participants generally showed positive attitude toward use of computers; in the current study the learners were more inclined to use weblog in their writings.

Kalanzadeh, Soleimani and Bakhtiarvand (2014) investigated the influence of technology on 60 Iranians EFL students' motivation and found that there was positive correlation between students' attitude, language learning and technology use in the English classes like this study.

Tri and Nguyen (2014) investigated use of ICT (information and communication technologies) on 149 EFL university students in English learning programs and explored that most of students maintain positive perceptions of ICT use to study English. The study showed that the learners enjoyed a lot when they wrote through weblog.

Also in a recent study Rahimi and Askari (2014) studied the effectiveness of using ICT (Information Communication Technology) like internet, email, blogs and PowerPoint in developing students' self-regulation and explored that using soft - wares had a great effect on students' self-regulation. Again the factor related to self-regulation revealed that the learners could regulate their writing and revise them when they used weblog in their writings.

Shana and Abulibdehb (2015) investigated the EFL students' attitudes toward use of computers and verified the key role of the computer in learning process of students. In the study the researcher investigated the EFL learners' attitude towards weblog as sub-section technology of computer.

Öz , Demirezen and Pourfeiz (2015) investigated the relationship between computer literacy, attitudes towards foreign language learning and computer-assisted language teaching among 123 English university students and explored that the students who had high positive attitudes toward FLL, had high positive attitudes toward CALL and this study showed high correlation between EFL learning specially writing and computer-based learning like weblog.

Shams and Ketabi (2015) investigated attitudes of Iranian teachers on using IWBs in EFL classrooms and proved that teachers had positive attitude towards IWB use and they confirmed that IWB is a powerful motivating tool in teaching process. Unfortunately, the researcher in the study couldn't consider teacher as dependent variables, but technology – based teaching and learning had positive effect on the learners' attitude towards writing.

A study conducted on 351 university female students in Japan by Burke and Grosvenor (2015) to investigate their reaction to IPods and EBooks explored that students showed positive reactions to both iPods and eBooks and there was a positive correlation between students' attitudes and iPad. In this study there was positive correlation between the learners' attitude towards writing and weblog.

The researcher had some limitations in conducting the study that lack of equipment like computers, laptops, and other things in educational settings was the most important one. Therefore, the researcher had some problems in getting permission of Jahade Daneshghahi officials to use their computer site. Additionally, a large number of teachers could not use technological equipment like computer or projector. The researcher again had only some choices that were familiar with weblog environment. Lastly, some learners thought that learning to write through weblog is informal and too flexible that distracts them from doing their writings. Therefore, it was a hard for the researcher to encourage learners to participate in the writing course.

Nowadays, One of the most important challenges is educating EFL learners who are able to catch up with the progressing technology especially CALL. The increasing progress of computer especially weblog environment necessitates evolving educational system to train autonomous and motivated learners who study all the time. This needs a kind of education that makes learners and students

interested in learning. Meanwhile according to psychologists, the educational environment should be adjusted to learners' needs. In addition, it should enhance critical thinking; in other words, it must educate learners who are able to revise their own learning processes. Moreover, it can help learners learn without being limited in time and space; A learner can study and learn disregarding distance and without being present in class. This motivates learners to explore and learn better. Moreover, it should train flexible learners' adapting themselves with learning environment and educational curriculums. Potentials of weblog can provide all mentioned cases. Importantly, it is a verbal and visual tool that causes learners to learn what they see especially in writing that is necessary language proficiency for academic achievement, but difficult burden for learners. In addition, it creates some new ways of teaching and learning at schools and language institutes .It can change the learners' and teachers' outlook and viewpoints on computer – mediated education and weblog .That leads to real and effective learning and academic success as an important summit in our context. Therefore, investigating the influence of weblog on attitude of EFL learners' towards writing is one of crucial studies to conduct that can facilitate the way for learners to learn better , teachers to teach effectively , and educational stock-holders to integrate computer in general , and weblog in particular in their educational system and policies.

Conclusion

The paper has given an account of and the reason for influence of weblog on EFL learners' attitude and writing performance. The main conclusion to be drawn from this study was that according to statistics, weblog activities have positive effect on EFL learners.

First major finding of the study was the positive effect of weblog on EFL leaners' writing performance that most of the previous studies confirm it and the second major finding was this fact that there isa strong correlation between weblog intervention and EFL learners' attitude toward writing that again many previous studies support this finding of the study. In spite of the fact that this study could investigate the influence of weblog on EFL learners' writing performance and their attitude toward writing simultaneously , that most of the previous studies disregarded, there were some other variables like gender, age, cultural, personal, social factors which the researcher couldn't focus on. Therefore, Future investigations need to be done in Iran to establish whether there is any correlation between weblog and mentioned factors.

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