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International journal of language learning and applied linguistics world is a double-blind peer-reviewed international journal dedicated to promoting scholarly exchange among teachers and researchers in the field of language teaching and applied linguistics.

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IJLLALW

TABLE OF CONTENTS

IJLLALW

SYNONYMY ENRICHMENT IN LANGUAGE EDITING

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ABSTRACT
A simple definition of synonymy is a word that has the same meaning. Although the similarity is not perfect because it means there are still differences of meaning that depend on the context of the sentence. Each word has different shades of meaning. However, the most important is how words are synonymous in the context of the sentence proper placement and can understand by the general public. It is not easy receiving new vocabulary or language, especially for the common people. This is where the importance of the role of the editor to make the language becomes more varies, but still easy to read, easy to understand, does not pose a double meaning, and correct language. Research on synonymy enrichment of language editing uses descriptive qualitative method. Synonymy in a language can not be avoided because of the many factors that affect the appearance of the synonymy, one of which occurs due to absorption processes, either foreign language or languages of the region. In fact, the value of emotive and evaluative factor that led to synonymy. The script editor whose primary job fixing words, phrases, and sentences writen by writers and authors by replacing, changing, add, or reduce, required to always follow the various changes of linguistic developments of various factors including synonymy which can enrich editors vocabulary.

KEYWORDS: synonymy factors, the enrichment of language editing and editor

INTRODUCTION
As we know that language is dynamic, not static. So, the language will change and develop in line with the development of world technology, culture, and human knowledge. The scientists, linguists, and many authors contributed to the development of language. Books with various themes and genres are very varies, the texts provide new knowledge for many readers, especially in terms of language. Lots of new words or not generally known by the public, was introduced by the authors.

If we consider the use of written language, especially in religion -themed motivational book, the authors explore to express ideas in words more diverse. For some readers, the words that consider new and not commonly used in everyday language, sometimes quite difficult for the reader to understand the meaning. At first, each word has clear meaning and it only refers to one meaning. However, with the development of thought and language user need towards terms or new words so that it required phrase or a new term to represent it. Although with a different meaning, the expanding area of language users also increases human experience. It causes the appearing of new wordin term of language, one of them is synonymy.

There are so many definitions from the expert about synonymy, but basically they agreed that the synonymy is a word that has the same meaning. Verhaar in Pateda (2010: 223), synonymy is the expression it in the form of words, phrases, or sentences that have more same meaning. Although in reality there is no word that has same meaning exactly because each word has different shades of meaning. So, the similarities are not absolute because if the form different, the meaning would be different though. Threre are not many words are synonymous perfectly, it means it can exchange in any context without the slightest change of meaning of the object. A word that has a different form,

7

the meaning would be different. These differences are quite difficult for the reader or the people who use the language of understanding of a word with a new word or phrase. When readers see a different word, surely would think that was definitely a different meaning. In this case the editor should be able to put synonyms according to the situation, context, taste, language, and meaning of language. Here are some examples of synonymous words contained in books of religious motivation.

1. *mau - ingin*
Kalau anda mau membuka mata lebih lebar lagi
Mereka hanya ingin kepastian
2. *terkabul - terwujud*
Jika anda ingin mempercepat terkabulnya doa.
Jika anda ingin mempercepat terwujudnya impian.

Here the task of an language editor, to obtain all the developments that occurred in the synonymy so that it becomes a factor that can enrich the vocabulary of the language editors in doing her job. Supposedly with more and more new words will be more easily for language editors to create variations of words in a sentence context. However, the editors should be able to consider is how the synonymous words could exchange in a sentence context so there is no overlap of meaning and ambiguity. Many synonymous words are able to change each other in some contexts, but it cannot be change in certain contexts. Therefore, from the problem above the research of synonymy factor is important so it can answer all of the problems that appear in the user community language, especially for editors. Of course, the more important is that they can describe it clearly. Based on the description of the background, the issues to examine in this study are how synonymy influences the enrichment of language editing and how these synonymous words are interchangeable, but does not cause ambiguity and overlapping meanings.

LITERATURE REVIEW
Discussion about the development of language by the public or the user changes the language that affect the meaning of language, one of that is synonymy, which attract the attention of researcher as an editor. Developments and changes in the language must follow by the editors because it is important to understand and know to increase the diversity of vocabulary and word choice. Discussion about this synonymy motivates by the understanding of the people who understand the meaning of synonymy. The simple definition of the synonymy is the words that have the same meaning without considering placement of the word in the context of the sentence. In fact, many factors must be consider by the users of the language, especially the editors in built-up words, phrases, or sentences with a good, correct, easy to understand, and did not set out the rules of the language.

Linguist's expert such as Bloomfield, Verhaar, and Lyons agreed that absolute synonymy or synonymy semetris not actually exist in Indonesian. The reason for every form of language always has the specific meaning which different with other languages. So that differences will lead to different phonemes meaning.Therefore, the editors and users of language cannot arbitrarily put a word without knowing its true meaning. The impossibility to exchange a word with another word is synonymous influence by the several reasons. Some of the causes Chaer, (2009:86) elaborate as follows:

1. Time factor
For example, the word *hulubalang* is synonymous with the word *komandan*. However, the usage cannot exchange because the word *komandan* is only suitable for ancient situation, classical, or archaic (out of date). *Komandan* is suitable for the present time (the present).

2. Place or area
For example, the word beta and *saya* are synonymous, butused differently. *Beta* suited to the context of use of the East Indonesian (Maluku).The word *saya* can use in general.

3. Social factors
For example, *aku* and *saya* are synonyms. However, the word *aku* is suitable in informal situation, but cannot be used to people of a higher social status. The word *Saya* is more formal and general.

4. Factor activity areas
For example, the word *matahari* is synonymous with the word *surya*. However, *surya* is commonly use in the literature. The word *matahari* can use ingeneral.

5. Factors shades of meaning
For example, the word *melihat*, *melirik*, *mengintip*, *melotot*, and *meninjau*, *melihat* can use in general. The word *melirik* only use to see in the corner of the eye. *Mengintip* typically used for meaning see through a narrow space. The word *melotot* is look with eyes wide open. *Meninjau* only used forseen from far away or high places.

In connection with the absence of absolute synonyms because there are differences, in this case refers to the theory of Collinson (see Ullman, adapted by Sumarsono 2012:177) tried to tabulate the differences between synonyms as follows.

1. One word more common than others (compare *hewan - binatang*).
2. One word more intense than others (compare *mengamati - memandang*).
3. One word more emotive than others (compare *memohon - meminta*).
4. One word can encompass moral acceptance or rejection, where as the other neutral (compare *sedekah – pemberian)*.
5. One word more professional than others (compare *riset - penelitian*).
6. One word more literally than others (compare *puspa - bunga*, *ibu - ibunda*).
7. One word more kolokial (daily) than others (compare *aku - saya*).
8. One word more local or dialect than others (compare *lu -gua* [Jakarta], *kamu - saya*).
9. One of the synonyms including children language (compare *mama - ibu*, *mimi-minum)*.

There is no determination of absolute synonyms and it needs further investigation. The word has a resemblance or similarity with a variety of meaning, which connect with the meaning of contextual, referential, or intentional meaning. Anchor by the context of usage, both grammatical and social, or situational, we can see, is there any absolute synonym? To determine the possibility of synonymy, Aminuddin (2008:116), reveals several ways:

- 1.   A set of possible synonyms are words used in the different dialect.
  If the word in each dialect has different meaning, that word cannot specify as synonym.

- 2.   A word, which was originally considered to have a similarity of meaning, after being in various usages there may be different meanings. For example, the word *bisa* and *dapat* although they are lexicaly as a syononym and still consider as synonym.
  Example: *Saya bisa melakukan itu dengan baik.*
  However, it is different if it happens to the sentence below:
  Bisa ular itu *berbahaya*. Obviously both sentences above do not have similar meaning.

- 3.   If a word in terms of the meaning of emotive, cognitive, and evaluative view, the word will have its own characteristics even it use in daily life andithas synonymy with other words. For example, the word *ilmu* and *pengetahuan*, *mengamati,* and *meneliti*. These words were originally considered as synonymous, but inthe context of a particular sentence it will be a word with it own meaning.

- 4.   A word collocation initially possess the same meaning as the word *kopi* and *minuman*, *pohon,* and *batang*, in the context of the sentence, the different linguistic form often considered as synonymous.
  Language users should pay attention to the issue above especially the editors in expressing their ideas in written form. Error in determining the semantic feature to each other will cause an error message or information. It is fatal .Therefore, an editor has an important role in making the script becomeeasy to read and have a good linguistic. An editor should have more knowledge in terms of language, one of them is synonymy which can enrich our vocabulary word has a different meaning.

- 5.   Ignorance language user towards a value of the meaning of a word or group of words. The theory from several experts above will be used as reference in analything data according to the type of data obtained.

METHODOLOGY
The method used in this research is descriptive qualitative method. The data collection is done by using written

technique. This method illustrates the data objectively and factually. Sources of data are all forms of synonymy taken from the book with the theme of religious motivation entitled *7 Keajaiban Rezeki* (2011).

RESULT AND DISCUSSION
Classification of Synonyms
Based on the results of a study of the data, if the sentence form is different, the meaning would be different even though the difference is slight or not exactly the same. If a different word appeared, we will assume that the word would certainly have different meaning. Although there are perfect synonymous words, which can be exchanged in a variety situations and various contexts sentences with exactly have the same meaning, but the number is very limited. There are many words that considered as synonymous word. Which group these word belong to, can be done by determining (a) the difference between synonyms, (b) synonyms variation, and (c) co-location (alignment) synonyms.

The Different Between Synonyms
In terms of classification of synonyms, experts divided the differences between synonyms. However, they agreed that there is no absolute synonyms, it means there are no perfectly interchangeable word and can be exchanged in a variety of contexts. When finding different words, we will assume that the meaning will be different as well. The differences become a big challenge for the editors to be able to use the language that has synonymous word carefully and correctly, so they can put the correct words in context. The difference between these synonyms can be seen in the example below.

1. One word **more local** or **dialect** than other:
Example: *saya - gua*
Example: -Menurut teman *saya*, berbeda pendapat itu wajar.
          -Kalau mukul *gua*, ya pasti *gua* hajar.
The word *saya* and *gua* are synonymous, but the use is different. The word *gua* is suitable for the context of language use in Jakarta, while the word *saya* can be used in general.

2. One word **more common** than others.
Example: *sering- seringkali*
inti – kata kunci
cepat - segera
jika - bilamana
saya sendiri–saya pribadi
dan - pula
canda - gurau
Example: - Setiap orang mempunyai cara tersendiri untuk meraih kemenangan lebih *cepat.*
          - Anda harus *segera* melakukannya

The word *sering* is synonymous with the word *seringkali*, the word *inti* is synonymous with *kata kunci*, *fast* is synonymous with *segera*, *ganti* is synonymous with *ubah, jika* is synonymous with *bilamana* , *saya sendiri* is synonymous *saya pribadi*, the word *dan* synonymous with *pula*, *canda* is synonymous with *gurau*, and *mau* is synonymous with *ingin*. In everyday use, both formal and informal, the word *sering*, *inti*, *cepat*, *ganti*, *jika*, *saya sendiri*, *dan*, and *canda* more commonly used by language users. The word *seringkali*, *kata kunci*, *segera*, *ubah*, *bilamana*, *saya pribadi*, pula, and *canda* only use in a particular sentence context and are not commonly used by language users.

3. One word is **more emotive** than other.
Example: *berwasiat - berpesan*
          pendamping hidup - jodoh
          terkabul - terwujud
          memohon – berdoa - meminta
          pantaskan ilmu - belajar
          pantaskan uang- menabung
Example:
- Akulah *pendamping hidupmu* yang dikirim Allah.
- Kalau dia memang bisa menjawab dengan meyakinkan, berarti dia memang *jodohmu.*

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The word *wasiat*, *pendamping hidup*, *terkabul*, *memohon*, *berdoa*, *pantaskan ilmu*, and *pantaskan uang* are synonymous with *dengan berpesan*, *jodoh*, *terwujud*, *meminta*, *belajar*, and *menabung*. However, *berwasiat*, *pendamping hidup*, *terkabul*, *memohon*, *berdoa*, *pantaskan ilmu*, and *pantaskan uang* are emotive and has a different taste value for users. For example, when someone said the word *pendamping hidup* would sound more polite compared with *jodoh*.

4. One word is more **kolokial** or daily than others.
Example: - besar - gede
Example: - Kita malah menolak dan mengeluh "Papa, mama, aku sudah *besar*!"
          - Aku malu. Akukan sudah *gede.*

The word *besar* and *gede* are synonymous. The word *besar* can be used in a large variety of situations, both formal and informal while the word *gede* is usually used in everyday conversation and informal situation.

Variations of Synonyms
Using synonyms variation is essential for language editors to avoid repetition of words, for the same purposes and ideas. However, more important is how a language editor can put the words synonymous with good order so there is no duality of meanings (ambiguity), and fault reader's understanding.

1. Shades of meaning factor (**nuansa makna**)
Example: *menengok - melongok*
Example:
- Jangan sampai Anda sibuk *menengok* ke luar.
- Namun Anda lupa *melongok* ke dalam.

The word *menengok* and *melongok* are synonymous that have meaning *melihat* (to see). However, *menengok* means to see in a glance, mean while *melongok* means seeing a bit longer.
Example: *diulas- diperbincangkan*
Example:
- Soal perdagangan *diulas* dalam Simpul Perdagangan.
- Soal ikhtiar juga *diperbicangan* dalam Pelangi Ikhtiar.

The word *diulas* and *diperbincangkan* are synonymous words that have meaning to talk about something. The word *diulas* means with talking something with comments or further discussion, while *diperbincangkan* means discussed something to negotiate or just conversing.

2. Synonymy, which is the uptake of foreign languages.
Example: *buhul - ikatan*
Example:
- Tahukah Anda, terdapat satu *buhul* yang menghubungkan Anda dengan orang - orang di sekitar Anda.
- *Ikatan* ini akan mempengaruhi terwujud atau tidaknya impian Anda.
The word *buhul* is an uptake of foreign languages, it comes from Arabic which is synonymous with *ikatan*.
Example: *doorprize - hadiah*
Example: -Tak disangka- sangka dia malah memenangkan *doorprize.*
          • -   Mana *hadiahnya*? Katanya mau membelikan ini dan itu.
The word   doorprize uptake of foreign languages, namely English, which means gift. The door prize is a common word used in the Indonesian language, especially in the diversity of languages spoken, as in certain occasions people prefer to use the word *doorprizes* rather than *hadiah*.
Example: *double – lipat ganda*
Example: - Membeli ranjang ukuran *double.*
          - Ibadahnya harus ia *lipatgandakan.*

The word *double* is uptake from English language, which is means *lipat ganda*. The word *double* is often use by users of the language, both written and spoken. In fact, the word *double* had gone in to Indonesian writing, in

Indonesian writing the word *double* become *dobel.*
3. Synonymy that is uptake from local language
Example: *nganan – kanan*, *kiri - ngiri*
Example: - Gimana pun, *nganan* itu lebih baik daripada *ngiri*.

The word *nganan* is synonymous with right and *ngiri* is synonymous with left these word are up take of regional languages, Java language.

4. Influence of **social factors**
Example: *gadis - wanita*
Example: -*Wanita* pulang pagi, lazimnya menghasilkan duit.
        -Ia bertemu dan saling tertarik dengan seorang *gadis*.

The word *gadis* and *wanita* are synonymous words. However, *gadis* is suitable for unmarried girls or virgin. The word *wanita* more formal and general and it can be used for all women, either already married or not.
Example: *pria – laki-laki*
Example: - Anda seorang wanita yang mempunyai seorang teman dekat *pria.*
        - Bagi *laki-laki*, apakah Anda sudah pantas menjadi imam.

The word *pria* and *laki – laki* are synonymous. The word *pria* is use to refer adult male. The word *laki-laki* is more general and can be used for all people, from children, teens, to adults.

Collocation (Alignment)
Synonyms alignment is very important for the editor to be able to clarify the meaning of the language. In this collocation, editors may reveal a variety of words to one meaning which words considered similar or have a relationship. Collocation synonymy or alignment intend to clarify and emphasize a word. In fact, it could be the addition of the words in the alignment synonymy to change a word with another word that is considered more appropriate and have meaning relationships.

1. Relationship of different meaning.
Example: *orangtua – ayah ibu*
Example: - Ketika kuliah dan ujian, *orangtua* selalu berdoa dan shalat dhuha untuk anaknya.
        - Itu tidak cukup untuk membiayai haji dua orang, *ayah* dan *ibu* saya.

The word *orangtua* and *ayah ibu* are synonymous. Both words have the same meaning, our parents. However, when included in a particular context or sentence, the word can mean older man, those who are older. Of course here has different meaning relation between the first sentences with the second sentence.

2. Have similar meanings
Example: *mengubah* - *mengganti*
Example: Cukup sulit meminta orang tua untuk *mengubah* apalagi *mengganti* doa mereka.

The word *mengubah* dan *mengganti*, which derives from the word ubah, has a similar meaning. The meaning *mengubah* is to make something *different*, and in certain contexts can also mean *mengganti*. The words *mengubah* in the phrase could also have another meaning. However, a word, which is often, juxtaposed use in the same context with a view to give emphasis.
Example: *segera* - *cepat*
Example: Anda harus *segera* dan *cepat* melakukannya.

The words *segera* and cepat are synonymous. Both almost have the same meaning. However, the word *cepat* has more meaning than *segera*. As shown in the example above, the word *cepat* gives more emphasis, so that people is not put off a task or action.

How to Determine Synonymy
In the world of writing and editing the selection of the right words is very important. Precise word choice will give correct understanding for the reader, the right choice of word will give the right understanding and clear meaning to a sentence that does not give rise to ambiguity/ double meaning. In the use of synonymous words often cause problems for the language editor, where words are more appropriate. Therefore, some experts, such as Lyons, Palmer , and Ullman points out, there are several ways to determine synonymous words, which is (a) substitution

(penyulihan), (b) conflict, and (c) connotations.

A. Subtitution
The term substitution or penyulihan in synonymy is that if a word in a particular context can be dubbed in other words, the context and the meaning does not change, both of that word is synonymy. Lyons argued that if two sentences have the same structure, the same meaning and different only because there is in a different context, such words are considered synonymous.
Example : *duit - uang*
Example : - Anda dapat menyulap pelanggan jadi pesuruh dan sakit jadi *duit*.
         - Memperkecil sedekah dan bersedekah tidak dalam bentuk *uang*.

The words *uang* and *duit* are synonymous. Both words can interchange without changing the meaning. Although the context is different but the meaning of the word *duit* and *uang* fixed/ unchanged.
Example: -*tubuh - badan*
Example: - *Tubuh* yang sehat menjadi nikmat kedua terbesar.
         • - *Badan* Anda akan terasa lebih ringan dan pikiran Anda akan terasa lebih jernih.
Tubuh and *badan* has the same meaning, which is part of our body or bodies. The use of both words could exchange, either in the same or a different context, its meaning is not changed.

B. Conflict
Synonyms can be generated from the words to the contrary or opposite. If there are words that have the opposite, it will generate synonyms.
Example: - *sempit - lapang*
Example: - Tidak ada masalah, kita dalam keadaan *sempit* atau *lapang*.

The word *sempit*, which is, means not large opposite with the word *lapang* that has broad meaning. Both opposite words above will certainly generate synonyms.
Example : - *kiri- kanan*
Example : - Kata si *kiri*, "Makanannya enak dulu, ntar baru ramai."
         - Balas si *kanan*. "Dibikin ramai aja dulu, ntar kesannya enak."

Kiri is the opposite of *kanan*. Everything is done by part of hand or left foot sections are considered unfavorable or impolite, while the right is considered good. Left considered static, where as the right is considered dynamic.

To determine synonymous words can be done also by determining connotations. If a word has the same cognitive meaning, but the emotive meaning is different, the words are classified as synonyms.
Example: - *nikah - kawin*
Example: - Di sini saya bicara soal *nikah* bukan *kawin*.
         - Kalau *nikah* pakai surat, kalau *kawin* pakai urat.

The word *nikah i*s the bond of marriage (contract) is conducted in accordance with marriage laws and religion. *Kawin* is family is form a family by the opposite sex; husbands or wives; has husband or has wife is married. So, *nikah* and *kawin* are synonymous and have the same cognitive meaning, but it has a different emotive meaning. The word *nikah* is considered more polite and formal than *kawin*.
Example: - *tidak memiliki orang tua -meninggal*
Example:
- Bagi Anda yang *tidak memiliki orang tua*, cobalah temui sahabat-sahabat orang tua Anda.
- Bagi Anda yang orang tuanya sudah *meninggal*, senangkan hati mereka dan mintalah doa dari mereka.
Tidak memiliki orang tua is synonymous with *meaninggal*. Both have the same cognitive meaning, but have a different emotive meaning.

CONCLUSION
Based on the discussion above it can conclude as follows in a language synonymy factor become very important

because it can add the vocabulary for writers, language user, and language editors? In connection with synonymy, the thing to know is there are many synonymous words. However, the words, which has absolute synonymous can exchange in a variety of situations and various contexts sentences with exactly the same meaning, the amount is very limited/ little because every word has different shades of meaning. Therefore, to avoid overlap of meaning, it can see from the classification by looking at the differences between synonyms, variations of synonyms, and collocation (alignment) synonyms.

The appearance of synonymous words can influence by several factors, such as language dialects, the generality of a word from another word, emotive nature, and kolokial or daily. Ignorance and editors limitations of language in expressing words that fit the context of the sentence would lead to multiplicity or ambiguity of meaning. There are so many linguistic factors that need to know by the language editors, one o that is synonymy. Therefore, the editor must know the language synonymy variations, such as shades of meaning factor, synonymy that is the uptake of foreign languages, uptake of the local language, and the presence of social factors.

In synonymy also known collocation or alignments, the purpose is to clarify and emphasize a synonymous word. Collocation synonymy or alignment can occur because of differences in the meaning and significance similarity.

To simplify the language users to know whether a word synonymous or not, can be determined in several ways, such as substitution (penyulihan), conflict or opposite, and connotations.

Limitation of the study
This study emphasizes the enrichment factor of synonymy in language editing. Of course this research could be developed more widely on other factors linguistic elements that must be mastered by an editor is very complex because to get the right application word in the context of the sentence, an editor must have a knowledge of language and words choice/ diction, as well as many rich vocabulary. Therefore, other factors that influence the development and change of language as antonymy, metaphor, hifonymy that can enrich the language editing needs to be further investigated.

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THE SOCIO-AFFECTIVE FACTORS ACCOMPANYING CROSS-CULTURAL INTERACTIONS

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ABSTRACT
The disparity between Persian as a second language learners studying in Persian language centers in Iran and Iranian Persian speakers especially language teachers with respect to cross-cultural backgrounds may cause these students to develop some affective problems and negative attitudes which might also impact their socio-cultural appreciations to a substantial extent. Accordingly, the present study targets at exploring some cross-cultural concerns in Persian language teaching centers and the relationships existing among students' L2 anxiety, their attitudes towards L2 teachers' personality features , and their cross-cultural sensitivity levels as well as the differences between these learners with differing Persian vs. non-Persian would-be majors and levels of proficiency as to the three variables under scrutiny. For the purpose of the study, a number of the international students were recruited from some intact classes in the international university of Imam Khomeini (IKIU) located in Qazvin province who were either taking (1) beginning level Persian courses (n=37), or (2) intermediate level classes (n =31). The results may allude to considerable relationships existing among Persian L2 learners' decrease in degrees of anxiety, and increase in their cross-cultural sensitivity as well as attitudes towards the out-group members especially their language teachers.

KEYWORDS: *Persian as a second language, L2 anxiety, attitudes towards L2 teachers, cross-cultural sensitivity*

INTRODUCTION
In the past, Iranian university campuses used to be rather homogeneous. Throughout the years and with the development of Iran's international relationships and cooperation with countries from various parts of the world, however, some of these universities such as IKIU are becoming more and more diverse. International Persian language students like many other learners in an L2 milieu are required to complete a couple of general Persian language pre-university courses to an at least intermediate level before they are eligible to meet their undergraduate educational requirements in the state-run universities. This L2 learning opportunity will improve their chances of a better-prepared affiliation with the upcoming educational settings in either Persian or non-Persian majors. And they will mostly have to pass these courses on the first try if they are supposed to enroll in Iranian universities promptly otherwise they will be divested of signing up in better surpassing universities by others being more prosperous in taking advantage of the few choices available. According to the anecdotal evidence and the self-reflective accounts of these students' emotional difficulty encountered in IKIU settings, many of these students experience some sort of anxiety which might develop over time. It is so unfortunate however to observe little attempt made on the part of those involved with these students' educational concerns to resolve the difficulties many of the learners might be grappling with, to the effect that the actual state of second language education in Iranian universities is heavily biased towards designing a curriculum which is deprived of the affective and socio-cultural considerations.

This is while curriculum designers all over the globe in recent years have shown growing attention to at least some affect-related concepts. This paradigm switch stemming from increasing awareness of "the centrality of our emotional reactions in the learning process" (Arnold, 2006, p.7) has also had profound implications for language teaching. Improving proficiency and competence in a new language incorporates a new character which is a "profoundly unsettling psychological proposition" (Guiora, 1984, cited in Hurd, 2007, p.488). No one can take for granted the impact of developing a humanistic-affective setting in escalating a wholesome milieu where both teachers and learners from a variety of cultural backgrounds can most effectively communicate. So an important challenge for educational settings to meet is to reduce the perplexity, suspense, and disturbances that evolve in cross-

15

cultural relationships. Despite this axiomatic reality, it has been an unfortunate let-down to observe a rather recent penchant on the part of the researchers for exploring the relationship between affect and language learning. According to Spielmann and Radnofsky (2001), learning a language does not materialize spontaneously in the lack of affective blocks, but that it requires a positive appeal to follow something.

The affective aspects of language acquisition can be taken into consideration from the diverse perspectives of the teacher, the learner or the intercommunication between the two parties, in other words, the learning process. Positive attitudes, sensations, preferences and manners, on both parts highly contribute to language learning failure or success (Golkowska, 2007). Quite a few number of teachers are cautious about the potentially hurtful and detrimental effect on intercommunication of feelings of nervousness, apprehension and anxiety which are frequently experienced and articulated by language learners in the learning surroundings and of the necessity for encouraging the learners' esteem and confidence (Graham, 2004) in subduing the L2 challenges especially in a literally unfamiliar and unadjusted cross-cultural milieu.

The matter of anxiety as one of the crucial affect-related truths and conceptualizations in L2 learning has been vastly identified as how critically it impacts L2 learners especially in the socio-culturally varied contexts where they are required to communicate in a language they afford to manage little (McIntyre, 1999; Young, 1991; Zheng, 2008). Though sometimes regarded as a facilitative energizer in approaching L2 tasks, the potentially harmful effects associated with so-called "debilitating anxiety" can have pernicious repercussions leaving the L2 learner at a state of quandary. It makes language learners nervous and frightened, hereby contributing to substandard aural/oral performance.

On the basis of a research carried out by Han (2006), anxious students show some signs such as getting absent-minded, involving in little interaction with others, and avoiding speaking aloud in class. Students who undergo L2 anxiety often tend to miss L2 classes and do not manage to accomplish their assignments (Phillips, 1991).The factors contributing to L2 anxiety can then impact students' achievement in their other courses. Students may feel they require spending more time studying for their L2 class and therefore are not able to put as much effort into their courses (Phillips, 1992; Yan & Horwitz, 2008). In addition, students who normally gain high grades may find themselves expending a great deal of effort in acquiring L2 skills (Mills, Pajares, & Herron, 2006; Price, 1998). Having failed to perform at anticipated levels of achievement, the L2 learners may begin to experience and grow a feeling of low self-esteem beginning to be uncertain of their academic capabilities (Ohata, 2005; Phillips, 1992; Phillips, 1999).

Although this phenomenon has been widely investigated and recognized as a correlate to a variety of instructional variables, little research has been carried out concerning the nature or the potential sources of anxiety underpinning its manifestation (Aydin, 2009; Young, 1991). L2 learning students settling in cross-cultural situations may suffer from anxiety for varied reasons such as their incompetence to comprehend the target language, worries that they show impotence in speaking accurately the L2 in class, and distress of being reproached by their language teacher (Ohata, 2005). Some similar reasons were mentioned by a group of the international students in IKIU who were supposed to present comments in their diaries on the grounds on which the anxiety is set up in the milieu of their educational settings. The present researcher studied the statements to analyze why many of these students succumb to the tensions and fears and achieve less than expected. One very crucial reason that a number of them pointed out overtly or implicitly was attributed to their perceptions of the L2 teachers as a member of an out-group who consistently corrects their mistakes, does not allow them to communicate verbally in the classroom and acts very strictly. They also regarded their Persian language teachers as the strangers who were culturally different from themselves. Since many L2 classes experience the presence of native speaking teachers, and comprise students of many diverse nationalities and cultural backgrounds, cultural disparities may take the role of a predominant factor in the degrees by which L2 anxiety is experienced by the students (Yashima, 2002). Concerned with this, several interpretations have ventured conceptualizing and justifying the affective demands that L2 learning makes upon the individuals. One interpretation might be the trauma a language learner experiences upon entering a foreign country or better yet a totally new and unfamiliar culture and, it should not be taken for granted that teachers are no exceptions in devastating or improving these students' perception of their own self-image and status.

Several decades of research on cross-cultural communication alludes to the relative difficulty of setting up effective and satisfying communication between the ethno-linguistically diverse out-groups (Dickson, Den Hartog, & Mitchelson, 2006; Martin, 1993) including L2 teachers and learners. These individuals have to encounter the challenges of linguistic and emotional barriers, unfamiliar customs, and cross-cultural diversities such as the verbal and non-verbal communication styles in order for achieving a flourishing cross-cultural understanding (Dodd, 1995; Travis, 2004). In many cases there is a mismatch between the attitudes, beliefs, views and even the styles of the teacher and those of the L2 students (Vedder et al., 2006). The existing disparity in L2 classrooms will pose a real

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challenge to the L2 teacher which in many cases is unable to cope with so that s/he would consequently set up a cross-cultural communication barrier. Unfortunately, L2 teachers often lack the necessary knowledge, skills, awareness and even the motivation to successfully cope with increased heterogeneity and to confront the challenges of multicultural societies. The existing varieties of barriers in socio-culturally diverse settings may carry negative affective and attitudinal consequences for the interactants. In accord with this, L2 learners studying in an L2 milieu are required to meet and overcome the formidable challenges of a variety of factors which substantially impact the favorability of out-group links overtly or covertly. These individuals might feel gauche and upset when communicating with culturally diverse others (Stephan & Stephan, 2001) especially their L2 teachers who, predominating an ethno-linguistic situation, leave the learners with a sort of frustration and impatience which characterizes the interaction with culturally diverse others. The conclusive result might be that the learners may develop a negative attitude towards their teachers' personality characteristics which might stand to reason or not. To illustrate, based on the anecdotes of the L2 Persian language learners who were invited to take part in the present study, one could attribute their lack of success in a considerable and speedy rate to their teachers' unexpected affective and personal features such as the lack of kind-heartedness, intimacy, and attentiveness which may strengthen the likelihood of both verbal and non-verbal miscommunication in the classroom. These attributes are boosted by some non-verbal behaviors such as facial expressions, eye contact and even the teacher's postures, and gestures which may be interpreted diversely by individuals belonging to different cultural backgrounds. A systematic investigation of the learners' attitudes towards their instructors' personality features will undeniably contribute a lot to unveiling mysteries attributed to the troubles associated with the domain of cross-cultural interactions (see e.g. Shimizu, 1995). No research studies have been found to investigate this.

In addition to L2 teachers' interculturally interpreted personality type, students' levels of cross-cultural sensitivity may also be associated with their experiences of L2 anxiety. The term *cross-cultural sensitivity* typically alludes to sensitivity to the cruciality of cultural disparities and to the points of view of people dwelling in other cultures. Chen et al. (2004) believe that this type of sensitivity mirrors a person's capacity to develop a positive feeling towards recognizing cultural disparities which results in a normally acknowledged behavior in intercultural interactions. However, there is a desperate requirement to move from ethnocentrism to ethnorelativism - that is, from seeing the world through one's own cultural perspective to viewing it from multiple angles. Cross-cultural sensitivity is necessary in order to fathom that the favored way in which we tend to do things is merely one of several possible approaches, and that other cultures may have different favorites, inclinations and considerations. Neuliep and McCroskey (1997) wrote that "individuals who are confronted with cultural differences tend to view people from other cultures as strangers" (p. 147). According to McCroskey (2002), the individuals tapped by the sources of anxiety tend to get involved in rigid thinking when they come into contact with strangers. In a study by Moore (2007), it was interestingly found out that as students' degrees of foreign language anxiety increased, their ratings of intercultural sensitivity decreased. This might have to do with the fact that a majority of individuals are dreaded by the mere thought of having to communicate with someone whom they regard as a stranger. Along the same lines, Van Laar et al. (2005) found that even the mere anticipation of having to interact with a member of a different group (cultural or ethnic) often leads to anxiety for many people.

On the basis of a number of research studies, individuals have difficultly being critically judgmental towards individuals who are known compared to those who are considered to belong in an unknown group (see e.g. Anderson et al., 2006; Bennett, et al., 2004; Lopes, 1994). For the same thing, the individuals will be prone to applying stereotypes when they come to interpret the strangers' including the teachers' manners. Also, many of these students will not be fully able to extend their learning experiences across other cultures and traditions. Some studies have strived to depict that the L2 learners' academic prosperity is to a high proportion related to their cross-cultural communication-related skills and the extent to which they are familiar and sensitive towards the cultural standards and values of other societies they come into contact with (Koo, 1998; Straffon, 2003). Accordingly, any positive or negative propensity for the cultural values of the intergroup members like teachers bears upon how these people are understood by the individuals belonging to the out-groups. If the student has low levels of cross-cultural communication and the teacher is from another country, then the student may prematurely cast false and negative interpretations and judgments on the teachers' affective behaviors. Teachers' personal features in creating a positive atmosphere where the students are highly motivated to pursue their studies could impact how they conceive the information being presented in the L2 classroom (Marshall, 2005; Norton, 1978).

17

PURPOSE AND SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY
The present study is framed to investigate the relationships existing among students' L2 anxiety, their attitudes towards their L2 teachers' personality features, and their cross-cultural sensitivity. It also aims to investigate how differently L2 anxiety, teacher's personality characteristics and cross-cultural sensitivity are perceived by the students completing different levels of language classes (beginning and intermediate) and the would-be Persian or non-Persian major students with Iranian teachers of diverse cross-cultural features. Due to the limited number of international students in Iran unfortunately, to the researcher's knowledge, no such study has already been carried out in an Iranian context hence the cruciality of the findings for the Persian as an L2 centers located in Iran especially as to the role language teachers play in ameliorating or worsening cross-culturally diverse learning situations. The results of this study are furthermore beneficial as any L2 learning can be a stressful experience for students (Yashima, 2002) especially the international students coming from a variety of miscellaneous cultural backgrounds. It goes without saying that for a committed teacher tutoring these students living far-off their homelands to study, the number-one priority will be to explore any probable factors especially the psychological and socio-cultural barriers that may interrupt the learning process.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS
1- Are Persian as L2 learners' attitudes to teacher personality features significantly related to their degrees of L2 anxiety and cross-cultural sensitivity?
2- How differently do Persian vs. non-Persian intercultural majors experience L2 anxiety, regard their teachers' personality features, and perceive intercultural sensitivity?
3- How differently do beginners vs. intermediate-level cross-cultural majors undergo L2 anxiety, perceive their teachers' personality features, and sense intercultural sensitivity?

RESEARCH METHODS
Participants
For the purpose of the study, all the international students aged 18-21 attending the preliminary Persian courses in the international university of Imam Khomeini located in Qazvin province who were either taking (1) beginning level Persian courses (n=37), or (2) intermediate level classes (n =31) were recruited. With regard to the nationality of the total number of students who attended the survey (n=68), a number of 57 of the students were Asian including 12 Syrians, 17 Lebanese, 7 Iraqis, 2 Afgans, 7 Chinese, 9 Koreans, 2 Turks, 1 Indian, and 11 were European of these there were 10 Russians and 1 Bosnian. In addition, about 72% of the students spoke English as their international language rather well. The majority of the instructors teaching these students came from Tehran and spoke Persian as their first language. They were between the ages of 23-32 and held an MA in the so-called ASFA (Teaching Persian to speakers of other languages) from among whom only one was able to cooperate with the researcher in the process of the study. She was one of the chief professors in the center teaching both beginning and intermediate level students.

Materials
To collect data on research questions, a nine-page survey both in English and in Persian was devised and distributed to the students. Part one, including 9 questions, was devoted to biographical profile and the self-rating of the students concerning their background which was related to the purpose of the study including race, nationality, the level of Persian course that they were currently completing and the Persian or non-Persian major they were to follow during their BA studies. The latter had to do with the questionnaires regarding the variables under scrutiny, that is, learners' L2 anxiety, attitudes towards teachers' personality features, and cross-cultural sensitivity.

L2 *anxiety:* In order to measure the students' degrees of L2 anxiety, an adaptation of the questionnaire developed by Aida (1994) and Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope's (1986) on foreign language anxiety was applied. According to the latter, this kind of anxiety is "a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process" (p.31). There was a moderate correlation (r=0.53) between the adapted version of anxiety test and the cited inventory illustrating a rather good degree of validity for the former to start with. The reliability coefficient of the questionnaire was found to be 0.81 showing that the items were reliable enough for the purpose of the study. The 32 items included mirror L2 learners' opinions about any possible sources of class-related anxiety including teachers. Two sample items are as follows: "I feel feared when talking with my Persian teachers. I forget Persian when I sit a test". The items were supposed to be rated based on a 5-point Likert scale.

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Learner attitude: This survey had to do with the students' conceptualizing their teachers' personality attributes as manifested in the cross-cultural circumstances where they practice teaching. Though a large number of studies have been carried out pervasively targeting at students' needs and furthering the educators' improvement (see for example Ryan, 1995; Deci & Ryan, 2000), few have dealt with the tiring struggle students especially those in cross-cultural conditions are faced with as to the personality characteristics of their L2 teachers. The categories of the survey were adapted by analyzing the results of a cross-cultural ethnographic project carried out in Japan, where the students were supposed to identify the qualities of a good foreign language teacher. The present survey targeted just at the personality-type features including such categories as the L2 teachers' enthusiasm, cheerfulness, kindness, and so on (see Shimizu, 1995). In order to create an index and ensure that its constituent items load on the same factor, a factor analysis procedure was carried out and 22 personality characteristics were chosen. A semantic differential scale was set up using a 5-point Likert-like scale that presents generalized evaluative beliefs, e.g. kind (vs. unkind). The reliability of this scale using spilt-half method was estimated to be 0.73.

Learners' cross-cultural sensitivity: The tool the researcher adopted in this part was adapted from the survey on the Intercultural Sensitivity Measure devised by Chen and Starosta (1996) to assess cross-cultural understanding of the individuals from a variety of cultures. It primarily included a number of 73 items. After being piloted, the number of the items of this instrument was reduced to 24 using factor analysis procedure.

A reliability of .69 was obtained for the inventory which was considered rather high by the researcher. To test the construct validity, the relationship between this questionnaire and the one developed by Chen and Starosta (1996) was compared and found to be .71 deemed desirable for the purpose of the study. Some sample items used are as follows: "I can not stand it when people from distinct cultures disagree with my views" and "I feel so sure of myself when I communicate with people from different cultures".

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
Results
Data were obtained in terms of the students' identification criteria, their degrees of L2 anxiety, attitudes towards their L2 teachers' character-related features and their cross-cultural sensitivity. Prior to any analysis, the students' ratings for each subscale were calculated and averages were obtained for each student ranging between 1 and 5. Also, to explore the differences between the groups of students with different would-be majors, and their differing levels of study at present (beginning vs. intermediate), other analyses were conducted where the differences between the cited groups of the students became evident.

As to the dominant research question concerning if there were relationships existing among students' degrees of L2 anxiety, their attitudes towards their teachers' personality features, as well as their cross-cultural sensitivity, interesting results were obtained (see Table 1) presented as follows:

Table 1: Correlations between the Persian learners' degrees of anxiety, attitudes and cross-cultural sensitivity
(p<.05*)

	L2 Anxiety	Cross-cultural Sensitivity	Attitudes	mean	sd
L2 Anxiety		-.54 P=.06	-.70 P=.002*	3.02	.43
Cross-cultural Sensitivity	-.54		.80 P=.000*	2.48	.56
attitudes	-.70	.80		3.45	.39

Table 1 reveals the mean and standard deviation for each variable as well as the coefficient of correlations and level of significance. The analyses demonstrated a moderate degree of negative correlation between the students' ratings of their L2 anxiety and cross-cultural sensitivity (r= -.54, p= .06). And as for the relationship between the students' L2 anxiety and attitudes towards the teachers' personality features, the researcher came up with a marked measure (r=-.70, p= .002). In other words, the more anxious the international students felt, the less credibility they attached to their instructors' affective support. There apparently however existed a high correlation of .80 (p=.000) between the learners' levels of sensitivity and their attitudes towards the teachers as members of a culturally diverse out-group.

19

IJLLALW

Regarding the second research question, the data obtained through the survey questionnaires contributed interesting information as to the degree of anxiety, sensitivity and perceptions of teachers' character for the two differing groups of students who were to pursue either a Persian or non-Persian major through their forthcoming academic studies. To analyze the results, the non-parametric test of Mann-Whitney U was applied. As seen from the table, the obtained means for the major groups for anxiety, sensitivity and attitude were respectively 2.89, 2.98, and 4.03 for the Persian group and 1.38, 2.03 and 2.29 for the non-Persian major group. According to an analysis of the three measures for the two groups, it was revealed that the students with a Persian or non-Persian major prospect showed significantly different degrees of L2 anxiety (p=.008) and cross-cultural sensitivity (p=.001) where Persian majors turned out to be more anxious and surprisingly more sensitive. Meanwhile Persian major students had better ideas as to their L2 teachers' personality features (p=.000) (see Table 2).

Table 2: Mann-Whitney U test analysis by the students' would-be Persian or non-Persian major (p<.05)*

Groups/ Variables	Persian major mean	Non-Persian major mean	Persian major sd	Non-Persian major sd	Level of sig.
L2 Anxiety	2.89	1.38	0.54	0.56	.008*
Cross-cultural Sensitivity	2.98	2.03	0.24	0.23	.001*
attitudes	4.03	2.29	0.4	0.37	.000*

The third question of the present study had to do with the difference between the various levels the students completed regarding the three variables under scrutiny, that is, the students' L2 anxiety, cross-cultural sensitivity and attitudes towards their teachers' personality features. Due to the unavailability of the advanced-level students, analyses were only computed for the students taking beginning and intermediate levels of Persian courses (see Table 3). According to the obtained analysis, the learners completing beginning-level classed experienced a higher degree of anxiety (mean=2.9) compared with the intermediate level (mean= 1.35) at the .002 level of significance, but attributed better personality type features to their L2 teachers (mean=3.96, p= .000) maybe because they perceived their L2 teachers as being more helpful in backing the students to overcome the struggle they have while learning another language. However, regarding the means for the beginners and intermediate level students (2.29 vs. 2.33), there was found no significant difference between the levels with respect to the cross-cultural sensitivity (p=.91).

Table 3: Mann-Whitney U test analysis by the students' various levels of study (p<.05)*

os/ Variables	Beginner mean	intermediate level mean	Beginner sd	intermediate mean	I level	Level of sig.
L2 Anxiety	2.9	1.35	0.59	0.66		.002*
Affective attitudes	3.96	2.09	0 .24	0.23	0	.000*
Cross-cultural sensitivity	2 .29	2.33	0 0 .44	0.37	0	.91

It was so interesting to notice that at intermediate levels of Persian courses, anxiety developed in an L2 classroom may not be considered as a determinant factor at this level of language instruction (mean=1.35, sd=.66) as it probably does not hinder classroom activity to a great extent.

Discussion

The present study was schematized in two directions. In the first place, it was supposed to explore any possible relationships that may exist among the international students of IKIU learning Persian as a second language, with respect to their degrees of L2 anxiety, cross-cultural sensitivity and their attitudes towards their L2 teachers' personality features. The study was designed so that it would come up with some suggestive results as to the dominant role an L2 teacher can take in influencing the learners' perception of their capacity to acquire a second language, as revealed by the previous research studies (Young, 1991; Moore, 2007). Needless to say that the intercultural students' perception of their language teacher can to a great extent be impacted by some other variables like the students tendencies for ethnocentrism and their interaction anxieties in a cross-cultural milieu.

According to the results, a moderate degree of negative correlation existed between the students' ratings of their L2 anxiety and cross-cultural sensitivity, to the effect that the more anxious the international students felt, the less cross-culturally sensitive they turned out to be while encountering the challenges of unfamiliar customs, and cross-cultural diversities, that is, as the levels of anxiety among the students increased, regardless of the level of L2 they completed or their would-be undergraduate majors, they attributed lower ratings to the appreciation of the individuals belonging in other cultures including the native-speaking Persian teachers. And it can not be taken for granted that the extent to which an L2 learner is contented with the L2 learning milieu is considerably related to their attitudes towards their teachers as a superior member of the interaction community perhaps because, as Schulz (2007) suggests regarding the source of anxiety, this feeling is closely affiliated with L2 learners' perceptions of the culturally diverse others with whom they may be required to communicate.

Meanwhile, as the their levels of L2 anxiety increased, the students attributed markedly less credibility to the personality type a teacher carries with him/herself to a cross-culturally diverse milieu. These finding somehow agree with some previous studies where there were found strong relationships existing among some teacher attributes such as teachers' being regarded as approachable or non-approachable and their communicative ability and the students' perceptions of their foreign language anxiety and intercultural sensitivity (Moore, 2007). One can not take it for granted that L2 teachers as cross-culturally anomalous individuals may easily impact the students' perceptions of second language anxiety, ethnocentrism, and attitudes. Regarding Yashima's (2002) theory that the individuals from culturally different backgrounds could raise differing degrees of anxiety in L2 learners, one can claim that Persian native-speaking teachers can play a rather important role in arousing anxious feelings in international students with rather far-off cultures from those of Iranians. Negative attitudes, also, might arise from the fact that these students spend a good portion of time with their L2 teachers representing the members of the L2 out-group. The hardship with which they have to study a variety of academic subjects in Persian language and not their own, considering the fact that these students are still not that proficient in this language while having to hurry up to complete their pre-university courses, might distort the very supportive and caring figure of Persian teachers. This might lead to the students' negative interpretation of their teachers' attributes.

As for the second research question, interestingly enough, considerable degrees of anxiety were found for students with a would-be Persian major, as well as the differences detected for these students' higher ratings of attitudes towards teachers' personality type features and cross-cultural sensitivity. The noticeable level of anxiety in these students might have to do with the fact that they have a demanding prospect of what involvement in the deeply rich and splendid Persian literature and culture might look like.

The sensitivity-related findings could be argued in terms of ethnocentrism effect. That is, as individuals of a particular cultural community hold their "own cultural ways up as the norm for measuring those of others" (Oswalt, 1970, p.20) not considered to be in their "in-group" (Archibald, et al., 2004), the students with a non-Persian major prospect seem to be more afraid of conforming to a system of beliefs, values, and behavioral patterns which outwardly deviates from their own cultural patterns than Persian major students. One explanation for this might be that the former inapt to familiarize themselves with the cultural standards of a new alien language as Persian seem to adhere to a myopic extreme that denies consideration of any opinions other than those of their own. This stance, though giving an understandable sense of identity and assurance, might encourage intolerance especially when the new culture seems to be to a great extent diverse (Kondo-Brown, 2006). The non-Persian major students have no such an expectation in mind to get deeply involved with the cultural foundations of the new language as they will draw upon it only as a medium to acquire the required knowledge, awareness, and skills through their content-based

academic courses related to their own majors such as medicine. This lack of familiarity with the commonalities and differences between the target culture and those of their own will give the would-be Non-Persian majors a vague idea about many questions which will remain unresolved in their minds.

The contrary findings with respect to the Persian (vs. non-Persian) major students' expressing high appreciation of their teachers' personality suitability may be due to the positive teacher effects. Some teachers succeed in keeping up the rapport in class by establishing a sympathetic and harmonious relationship with the students creating a classroom atmosphere in which students are stimulated to learn despite much fear they might bring with them to the L2 classroom. These features might appeal more to the Persian majors who experimenting with such teachers in their pre-university courses, who might develop a brighter prospect of their would-be academic situations where their Persian-speaking teachers would extend considerable help and care to them.

In the third place, the study was designed to investigate the differences existing between the students' degrees of anxiety, cross-cultural sensitivity and attitudes towards teachers' personality features in terms of the level of study they completed and their prospective academic majors either Persian or non-Persian. As a result of the analysis, it was found out that the students completing the beginning-level Persian courses rated their L2 teachers as possessing better personality features while experiencing higher levels of anxiety. One possible reason could be due to the fact that students in higher levels of classes have more experience in the content area; therefore, they may be less likely to experience a high level of anxiety. This is very normal as any new learning situation with a culturally different background can impose great amounts of anxiety. However, the beginning level learners attributed higher ratings to their teachers' affective features than the higher levels. One way to explain this is that for the beginners any change inherent in the learning milieu is threatening since they fear that they will not be able to act to the best of their potentials for internalizing a new strange language or that they might appear foolish in front of the cross-culturally diverse others or might not be accepted by them. For this reason, they will be naturally too dependent on the supposedly all-knowing creature of the class namely the teacher and attach any security with which they operate to the teacher's supportive personality characteristics. By understanding the L2 students' fear and internal struggle, the teacher will help the students overcome their contradictory feelings and change them into positive energy in order to ameliorate their learning.

And as for the intermediate level students, the possible explanation for a less credibility attributed to the teachers' features might have to do with ethnocentrism. It seems that these students are more apt to be critical of the individuals, especially their language teachers, who are not regarded to be in their in-group (Archibald, et al., 2004). This might be the result of their cognitive growth and a better understanding of the crucial and basic differences existing between their own cultural practices and customs and those of the other cultures with which they are supposed to interact. According to the Persian center teachers' experiences, the intermediate-level international students turn out to be more aggressive and assertive in the course of time. They can more actively get involved in the cross-cultural interactions with no need to get help from their teachers meaning that at this level they can conduct interactions on their own.

The lack of any significant difference found between the beginning and intermediate levels of study regarding the cross-cultural sensitivity might somehow allude to the fact that the culturally diverse situations were equally demanding and challenging for both levels creating the same degree of sensitivity and feeling towards recognizing cultural disparities which results in a normally acknowledged behavior in intercultural interactions

CONCLUSION
The pupose of the present study was to investigate such socio-psychological factors as anxiety and cross-cultural sensitivity which may improve or hinder the process of learning in Persian as a second language classroom. The results of the study allude to many facts in the field of teaching international students who come from cross-culturally various milieus to complete the requirements before embarking upon any undergraduate studies. On the basis of the obtained results, when these learners feel threatened and anxious by the learning situations, they may grow more susceptible towards the people whom they regard as strangers even their teachers they might also change attitudes and behaviors towards and judge as an incompetent outsiders. A way for the administrators, curriculum designers and language teachers to deal with any sort of anxiety, dread, and suspicion is for them to become skillful understanders of the struggle students face in some cross-culturally outlandish environment where they attempt to internalize a second language. By realizing any such fears and being sensitive to them, they can help such students overcome their negative impressions and change them into positive energy whereby the students can get the most out of the opportunities including some momentous interactional decisions. One way to do this is to provide a more relaxed atmosphere where the psychological trauma associated with total immersion in another culture gradually

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vanishes. Developing a much broader perspective on different ways of life can cause the individuals to emerge triumphant after the primary unsetting upshots of culture shock have faded away even though it takes considerable time for an individual to adjust him/herself accordingly. An L2 teacher should be sensitive to students' feelings and be well-organized to take worthwhile steps to ameliorate any negative reactions. It should not be taken for granted that in no way the students' beliefs in their own cultural system should be threatened. This kind of consideration is anticipated to develop in them a soaring level of sensitivity to and tolerance for cultural dissimilarities than they had prior to language study. As they pass through the academic years, they may begin integrating with some of behavioral systems and merits of the new culture they become acclimatized to.

It is furthermore suggested through the research findings that along with the growth of psychological anxiety degrees, the students' ratings of the cross-cultural sensitivity as well as their perceptions of the teachers' affective features wane noticeably. It should be of utmost importance for educators, teacher trainers, and language teachers to get a vast insight into the probable effects of the L2 teaching practices on the type of psychological problems the students might suffer from. Language learners' affective sides are most probably supposed to impact their learning processes. Thus, a proper appreciation of affect in L2 learning can be highly productive and conducive.

Any possible barrier might hinder or at least decelerate the process of learning an L2 to a marked extent. Further research should investigate the behavioral patterns of L2 teachers in the classroom atmosphere including the types of techniques they adopt, how they tackle a psychological problem like anxiety in class, how they treat students of differing nationalities, ages, genders, proficiency levels and majors, how they engage the students in solving cross-cultural puzzles, and how outwardly and purposefully they help students in overcoming their struggle for internalizing an L2. To investigate the classroom events where all these interwoven variables are at work, an ethnographic orientation is deemed more desirable and helpful.

Limitations and delimitations
The present study encountered a number of limitations and delimitations which will undoubtedly impact the research outcomes to a great extent. In the first place, the researcher decided that she could contact a noticeable number of the students studying in the international schools all around Iran. However, due to the lack of cooperation on the part of some Persian language centers, the original design met with failure. So a good chance available was IKIU located in Qazvin city to be surveyed for the fall 2007 semester. Even in IKIU, despite the previous arrangements made, not many teachers were willing to cooperate with the researcher for miscellaneous reasons under the pretext of lacking in time. Therefore, only one teacher consented to participate in the study. Another big problem which might be a sensible reason why these teachers refused to cooperate might be that a number of these instructors are definitely competent when it comes to teaching English. They are, nevertheless, unable to transfer the knowledge of the same strategies and techniques they adopt in the former classes to a Persian as a second language milieu as though teaching their own mother tongue to a group of people from different cultural backgrounds requires some mystifying and bizarre strategies they have never adopted before. The sad fact is that they lack the prerequisite knowledge, skills and awareness affiliated with how to teach their first language to a group of international students. What adds to the quandary is that the pre-university Persian courses outwardly include the students from the three levels of study: beginning, intermediate, and advanced. In reality, however, the difference between the last two levels seems to be rather blurred to the effect that a more formal evaluation is needed to integrate these students into a level of study they will be able to complete. As an example, one could refer to some intermediate level pupils who have already been exposed to the Persian language. These students bring with them to the class settings some dialects of Persian language spoken in the adjacent countries like Afghanistan, Pakistan, or Tajikistan. These students typically confront a different alphabetic system they have to be imparted on. The mere presence of these students in the beginning levels in contrast might result in more anxiety experienced by other students with an already limited amount of exposure to the Persian language.

It should be mentioned that a rather similar topic has been extensively explored in related literature on cultural differences in the dimension of individualism-collectivism (Hofstede, 1980; Triandis & Albert, 1987; Choi, Nisbett, & Norenzayan, 1999; Nisbett & Masuda, 2003). It was assumed by the present researcher that students' ethnic background itself was a factor that would influence their cross-cultural sensitivity, which in turn affected their perception of teacher's personality suitability. The dimension was not further explored in the study due to the scope of the focus of the present study, that is, teacher's impact. However, given the role of different ethnic backgrounds of

23

each group of L2 students of Persian, participating in the cross-cultural context, this can also be mentioned as a limitation, and suggested for directions of inquiry in future studies.

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ASPECTS OF SOURCE TEXT LOST AND UNDERGO CHANGE THROUGH TRANSLATION

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ABSTRACT
This review paper deals with and draws forth individual aspects of source text which are lost in translation. No doubt scores of elements and features like authenticity, readability, literal equivalences of the source text go missing. Thus produced text or translation will be a hybrid text according to Schaffner and Adab (1997). The translator shall be always mindful of the best solution available. Further, the translator should try to be loyal to the source text and not to sacrifice the source text to the acceptability of the target translation for the eyes of target readers. The translator needs to have a comprehensive understanding of the original text, with regard of the meaning, the writing style and also its cultural values before he or she can translate it into the target language. This paper helps translator deliver somehow readable text. Helps other researcher to probe other areas like gain in translation and problems of lack of equivalence, authenticity etc. We tried to draw the attention of text developers and translators to respect other cultures in the texts.

KEYWORDS: Loss in translation, hybrid text source text, target text, aesthetics of translation, authenticity, readability and equivalence.

INTRODUCTION
Translation is a kind of cross-linguistic, cross-cultural and cross-social communication. Yinhua (2011) claims that translation as a kind of communication; its main purpose is nothing but to establish equivalence between the source text and the target text. Always the equivalence finding in its full form is not established, is not possible and is not appropriate. In the process of moving the ideas of the source text (hereafter ST) to the target text (hereafter TT) according to Gandinn (2009), always something go missing and something changed, reshaped or replaced. Almost every time that someone compares the translation of a text with its original, there are always some aspects of the original that are inevitably left behind, even when it is recognized that the translator has done a remarkable job (Gandinn, 2009).

These attacks targeting the ST may result from different cultures, different linguistic structures, and different decisions from behalf of translators themselves such as inaccuracies and inattentions and of their counterparts i.e., machine translators and untranslatability of the texts themselves.

Aiewei (2005) claims that translation is a purposeful endeavor which needs accommodation to target cultural conventions; and the translator should be conscious of linguistic and cultural adaptations to make it easy for readers to understand translated works without too much pain and effort. According to her, translation is then understood as a much more complicated activity with a much broader scope. Moreover, she suggests that target readers desire the pleasure of reading texts with features like being informative, didactic, cognitive, practical, entertaining as well as aesthetic. The aesthetic function stays at the top of the list.

However, we wish to see is there any way to not to lose building blocks of the ST or the loss is certain. Some methods have been put forward. These methods are just some operations on the texts done; they don't take into consideration the target readers and clients. There are two methods to adhere to in translation: domesticated method of translation or foreignized one. Venuti (1995) defines domesticated translation as "an ethnocentric reduction of the foreign text to target language cultural values, bringing the author back home." In this case translator should erase every shred of foreignness and create a familiarized and immediately recognizable text, adjusted to the target text's linguistic and cultural dimensions. On the contrary, followers of the foreignized method wish to transfer the original idea of the text as exactly as possible without any additional interpretations, explanations or adaptations. Based on the idea of foreignized method and believe in the unique being of every culture and its narrow tie with related society language, it is not possible always to transfer the whole elements of the ST to the target readers. Unlike foreignized method, the domesticated method to some extent please us and our favored readers in the target place.

However loss is investable as well as gain is; but here we intend to talk about loss. The translator must find a balance between maintaining the accuracy of source content and altering the content in order to preserve the general significance and aspects of the source. Moreover, the target values and linguistic structure should be taken into consideration.

Statement of the problem and purpose of the study
No doubt, a score of different facets of texts in the process of translation go missing and changed for various reasons. Therefore, we found this issue intact and dormant and attempted to probe it energetically. We felt that this is a gap in literature and by any means should be filled. Moreover, those above mentioned facets to be indicated, the causes to be found and solutions to be given if possible.

ASPECTS OF THE SOURCE TEXT WHICH GO MISSING
Aestheticity or aesthetics of translation
Aesthetics is a branch of <u>philosophy</u> dealing with the nature of <u>art</u>, <u>beauty</u>, and <u>taste</u>. It is more scientifically defined as the study of <u>sensory</u> values, sometimes called <u>judgments</u> of <u>sentiment</u> and taste. Regarding the texts or translations, aesthetcity is if pleasing to the senses, or a pleasing appearance or effect gained from them. From among the aspects of the texts which are lost in the process of translation is aesthetcity of the text or aesthetics of the text. Aiewei (2005) believes that the only criterion in evaluating and assessing what is a successful piece of translation is aesthetics of translation.

As with anything else that human beings need to enjoy and gain pleasure from, the concern of quality occupy the minds. The term quality is with two horns: good and bad. One opening the first page of a story and start reading it; at the first glance he reacts with phrases like: oh! What a nice story or he may also say: it is not beautiful story. However, the good or bad refers to beauty and the amount of enjoyment one obtain from that story. The quality may sometimes in relation to translation or texts be connected with "well written"; i.e. well structured, cohesive, coherent, correctly substitute pronouns for nouns, etc.

Therefore, in creating aesthetics in translation one must put more time and energy on making his text look good. He picks a nice font and page layout which go well with the genre and spend ages playing with the justification, spacing and pagination. All of us are familiar with attractive, the unattractive, the inspiring, and the stylish; of taste, criticism, and fine art; and of contemplation, sensuous enjoyment, and charm. Various translation theorists have defined "ideal" translation differently. Had the writer of a text, had a native – like competency in the target language, (perfect bilingual) and had he wanted to rewrite the text she had previously written in the source language, in the target language, the target text (TT) she would have written, would be the ideal manifestation of the best conceivable translation of the original text. Each and every assessment or evaluation of any given translation should be based on this precious imaginary model. Any translator should try to translate as similarly as possible to this best model. And his translation is as "good" as it is similar thereto. The appearance of what was just said sounded as if it were rather something written about the ideal "translator" and not the ideal "translation". The best or the ideal translation is the one which communicates the **intentions** of the original writer in the best possible way. Now, it goes without saying that it is not always possible to maintain all of these aspects while transferring the meaning from L1 to L2. This problem exists even in the case where the writer and the translator are the same. Most presumably, however, he/she will do his/her best to work out a compromise between them, his/her goal always being to express the same intentions in the target language. Apart from his/her knowledge of the two languages (which we assume to be native-like), whether he/she succeeds or not to re-express himself/herself depends, for the most part, on his/her **aesthetic discernment** and **mental agility**. We can easily approach the criteria for an aesthetic literary work; but what about a translation? Is a high quality translation (as defined above) always an aesthetic literary work? Let's take the

translation of a poem, for instance. Shall the translation necessarily be ironical, moving, expressive, balanced, and harmonious to be assumed as "of high quality"? First, we should make a very important assumption: the original text (poem) possesses such qualities. That is because sometimes it lacks them, in such a case it sounds redundant to talk about the necessity of lack of the qualities in the translation. (Although even in such cases, some translators render the original text into a highly aesthetic one) Second, is transferring such qualities linguistically possible? No matter what approach to aesthetics we take, no matter if we believe in the translatability of poetry or not, we do agree that artistic beauty is a product of human soul. In the case of our imaginary writer & translator (who were the same) this soul (the producer of artistic beauty) is the same, too. So, the aesthetic value of both source text and target text should be the same. However, here another crucially important factor comes into, i.e. the aesthetic capacity of the two languages, which are almost never equal. That is exactly why they say that poetry is impossible to translate, although no theoretical proof has ever been given for this impossibility. Anyway, in our imaginary case, the aesthetic level of both texts (ST and TT) will be **aesthetically as close to each other as possible.** Aesthetics by itself is not a criterion of a good translation. Instead, it is the equality of aesthetic levels in both the ST and TT that counts. As far as exact equality usually cannot be achieved, the most desirable case would be "an as closely equal as possible".

Readability
The text which we take under our hands for translation for target readers and users, however, needs to be readable. That is, it needs to have all of its original components (provided that it had those elements before) so that reader is able to make sense of those elements. We know any original text is authentic as well. This authentic piece of writing no doubt has been written purposefully. Moreover, it is with all of its components available, such as context. Context as example helps the reader to get the message clearly out of the text. Unfortunately, for the following reasons all useful building blocks of the text tore down by the translators in order to make it fits with their culture or suitable for children or lack of equivalences in the target literature. Nevertheless, readability of authentic original text is replaced by unreadability of the text. Readability is the ease in which our text could be read or understood. How speedy can we perceive the message from the text also depends on readability. Besides readability can be defined as fit to be read, interesting, agreeable and attractive in style and enjoyable. The process of translation destroys pronouns, prepositions, punctuations, content words and mixes the arrangement of all of the sentences. By this way the text cannot be readable.

Loss due to problems of equivalence (unique counterparts)
According to Yinhua (2011), translation is a kind of cross-linguistic, cross-cultural and cross-social communication. This means that the process of translation somehow behaves like waves that start from one direction and spread to so many directions at the same time. This process is called wave theory in sociolinguistics in relation to changes in language. As a kind of communication, the main purpose is nothing but to establish equivalence between the source text and the target text. In other words, as the receiver of the source message and the sender of the target message, the translator should try his best to convey all the contents of the source text into the target text, otherwise, translation as a kind of communication would end in failure. Undoubtedly communication failures are abounds in the way that translation goes on, since unlike Yinhua (2011), all contents could not be transferred unchanged. Of any kind, however, factors affect the text; such as culture and religion which most of the times lead to deletion or substitution of some elements of the ST. These operations on the ST no doubt prevaricate important aspects of the text.

The process of transferring the exact contents of the ST to their proper places in the TT is that of equivalence; which is most of the time unlikely to do it. As Catford points out, "the central problem of translation-practice is that of finding TL equivalents (1965). Unique counterparts of the target texts elements, however, may be found or not; this is the problem of equivalence. No two languages are eversufficiently similar to be considered as representing the same social reality. The worlds in which different societies live are distinct worlds, not merely the same world with different labels attached.

Any discussión of untranslatability or equivalence brings us to the question of loss and gain in translation. Once we accept the fact that sameness can not exist between two languages, the question of loss or gain can be obtained. The concept of lost isconsidered when the translator faces difficulties of any kind such as equivalence in the TL. There are two kinds of losses according to As-Safi ( ): First, inevitable loss: It occurs because of the divergent systems of the two languages regardless of the skill and competence of the translator who cannot establish equivalence and

therefore resorts to compensatory strategies. Second is an avertable loss which is attributed to translator's failure to find the appropriate equivalence. Both kinds of loss can be seen on all levels. In relation to the problem of loss in translation between two texts, however, high majority of loss is due to lack of equivalence or the problem of equivalence finding. Accordingly, as counterparts or equivalents are not found or are deviant and different, aspects of the ST go missing. Regarding the discussion of equivalence finding and problems of equivalence, we follow the classification of Baker (2006).

1.   Equivalence at word level- deals with the meaning of single words and expressions;
2.   Equivalence above word level- explores combinations of words and phrases (stretches of language);
3.   Grammatical equivalence- deals with grammatical categories;
4.   Textual equivalence- discusses the text level (word order, cohesion, etc.);
5.   Pragmatic equivalence- how texts are used in communicative situations that involves variables such as writers, readers, and cultural context.

All of the sets above any way barricade the translator path in delivering an exact translation of the ST; i.e., the TT succumbs to mirror the SL main and original elements of any kind. Fortunately, thanks to proximity of languages, cultures and linguistic systems of languages many elements find their way to their deserved places in TT and communication get accrossed. Further, communication and conveyance of the message of any text is made possible provided that all or to some extent many of the aforementioned factors observed to be transferred successfully considering equivalence. If the reverse proved, message conveyance fails; and the failure is said to be the result of many factors like the following in relation to Baker (2006) equivalence typology.

> Culture specifity of concepts,
> deficiency in the lexicalization of source text concepts in TT text,
> complex semantic systems of either ST or TT,
> different distinctions in meaning of both texts ,
> super ordinacy of ST concepts and lack of super ordinacy in TT,
> differences in expressive meaning between two systems,
> difference in forms of concepts of the two systems,
> differences in frequency and purpose of using specific forms of the two systems,
> the use of loan words in the source text,
> context of use of idioms may be different,
> the tense and aspect systems are highly developed in both systems,
> different ways of organizing various types of discourse in both systems.

Loss of authenticity

A piece of text, here we mean ST, which has been devised for some ideal people, ideal places and times is authentic text. As Shomoosi and Ketabi (2007) put it forward a key feature of texts, or discourse samples in general, have long been said to be their authenticity. Authenticity is synonymous with truthfulness, realness, naturalness, validity, reliability and legitimacy. Lee (1995) contends that teaching materials are usually regarded as textually authentic if they are not written for teaching purposes, but for a real life communicative purpose. Authenticity of a text remains intact provided that it remains the same as before in cases of voice, structure, vocabulary and semantic features in same and different situations. However, this text for the purpose of translation may seem sometimes unfortunate, even its translation becomes complex and many aspects of it may not appear in the target language for the intended people for which it is going to be translated. Besides some translators violently skip some parts of the text intentionally, however this may be the result of their low knowledge of translation and their eye problems and etc.

The inappropriacy or even the complicacy of the ST, as we said above deals with the problems of absence or presence of linguistic, semantic, discoursal and structural like lack of equivalence, lack of presence of items in the target language. Therefore, if the intended piece of text undergoes change of any type in the source features, we say it loses its authenticity.

Loss of the form of different genres of writing

There are four main types of writing: narrative, descriptive, expository and persuasive. Based on these types of writings or here texts we should inculcate that they have their own specific topic, audience, editing and revision, mechanics, rubrics, discourse markers, organizations, style and purpose. A good text certainly follow stimulating ideas logical organization, engaging voice, original word choice, effective sentence style, correct accurate copy.

Thanks to the aforementioned qualities and their functions, according to Sanning (2010) the translator has to think of 'genre conventions' and follow the target reader's reading habits and feelings when translating the text. Nord (2001) states, "Genre conventions are the result of the standardization of communication practices. As certain kinds of text are used repeatedly in certain situations with more or less the same function, these texts acquire conventional forms that are sometimes even raised to the status of social norms." In this context, the translation should attach importance to the equivalence of the informative contents and stylistic functions between the original and the translated texts, rather than the equivalence in linguistic forms. Therefore, as we said every genre possess its unique characteristics. In the process of translation this genre undergoes changes of any kind. Its framework and form twisted and deformed; its specific topic, audience, editing and revision, mechanics, rubrics, discourse markers, organizations, style and purpose also tore down due to:

> complex semantic systems of either ST or TT,
> context of use of idioms may be different,
> Culture specifity of concepts,
> deficiency in the lexicalization of source text concepts in TT text,
> difference in forms of concepts of the two systems,
> differences in expressive meaning between two systems,
> differences in frequency and purpose of using specific forms of the two systems,
> different distinctions in meaning of both texts ,
> different ways of organizing various types of discourse in both systems.
> super ordinacy of ST concepts and lack of super ordinacy in TT,
> the tense and aspect systems are highly developed in both systems,
> the use of loan words in the source text,

Loss of cultural specific features
It is known that culture is the integrated pattern of human knowledge, beliefs, and behavior that is both a result of and integral to the human capacity for learning and transmitting knowledge to succeeding generations. Culture thus consists of language, ideas, beliefs, customs, taboos, codes, institutions, tools, techniques, works of art, rituals, ceremonies, symbols. (Stevens, 2008). According to Nida (1969), language and culture are correlated with each other and that different cultures develop different languages

It is clear enough to claim that every writing or text which is created in a place certainly comply with the rules and ways of social conduct or living in that place. More, culture and language are twins' brothers which are thoroughly interlinked. If we believe every area or region speaks or writes in a particular language, we should also believe that place has its particular culture which is different from those of other places. A text which is considered to be translated to another language which is labeled by a different culture, no doubt loses its label; because in the new place it sees itself a fish out of water. However, the translator fails to represent the culture-bound and emotionally charged words of the source text.(Ginter**,** 2002); since every translator, especially inexperienced ones are not thoroughly familiar with societies and their cultures and multi-cultures.

Further, it is of much more interest to say that all translated texts are to some degree hybrid; since each of them can be viewed as a transplant of the source text into an alien, target culture environment. Hybrid text is a text that results from a translation process. It shows features that somehow seem 'out of place', strange', unusual' for the receiving culture, i.e. the target culture.   The main problem for the translator is how to comply with cultural issues, i.e. to decide which issues take priority: the cultural aspects of the source language community, the cultural aspects of the target language community, or perhaps a combination of the two, a compromise between two or more cultures? The choice of cultural strategy may result in source-culture bound translation (the translation stays within the source language culture – so called foreignisation), target-culture bound translation (the translation stays within the target language culture – so called domestication) or in a 'hybrid', where the translation is a product of a compromise between two or more cultures. In the process of translation the form content unity of the source text is disrupted. Inevitably, some pressure is exerted upon the target language; as the transfer of foreign elements is impossible without certain 'violence', which we call it "lose of those components". The translator, as it has been proved, should be an 'intercultural mediator'. As Wolf (1997), writes in her study of aspects of cultural anthropology in translation, 'translating between cultures' means that 'other' meanings are transferred to (con) texts of the industrialized world

which is coined by its institutions, traditions, and its history (1997). Such intercultural activity requires a carefully considered choice of cultural strategy. The choice, however, should be subject to the purpose of translation and the message of the source language text. Thus, a creative translator should be always mindful of the best solution available; otherwise the message would not reach the destination as it has been said to in the ST by the writer and without damage to members of its family. Accordingly, the translator is the one who is bearing the responsibility of the loss, as he/she is the medium between the author and the target language readers. Since there are differences between the source language and the target language with respect to the language system and the cultural background. Translation loss seems to be inevitable during the translation process. However, there are still various strategies and approaches which can be adopted by the translator in order to reduce the level of translation loss.

Pushing the discussion ahead, according to Al-Masri (2009),cultural understanding during the process of translation is extremely essential especially in the translation of literary texts, which require an effort on the part of the translator to retain the cultural information (reflected mostly in the figurative language) of the source text in the target text. Such cultural translation is known to be one of the most challenging aspects of translation (Larson 1984; Farghal 1995; Baker 1996; Anderson 2003). It involves the translation of linguistic structures as a part of culture, in which the translator takes into account not only the equivalence of meaning, but also investigates higher levels of content, context, semantics, and pragmatics.

More supportively; the losses of cultural aspect of the ST are the losses of cultural norms, religious beliefs, social customs, and proverbial wisdom that are inherited through generations and comprise the identity of the source culture. Besides, Al-Masri (2009) also pointed out that such losses occur during the process of correlating the verbal signs of one culture to another different culture and result mainly from misrepresenting the literariness of the source text and its pragmatic forces. Cultural losses could be explicit (causing a loss of the cultural meaning of the source text both on the surface and deep levels), implicit (causing a loss on the deep level/ concealed cultural information), modified (altering the realities of the source text, as experienced by the source readers), or complete (deleting cultural characteristics that are unique to the source language). It is assumed that cultural equivalence depends on the degree of relatedness between two languages that represent two different cultures.

CONCLUSION

Translation is a kind of cross-linguistic, cross-cultural and cross-social communication (Yinhua, 2011) and during these crosses verily some components crossed. Therefore; cross or loss is unavoidable during the translation process. In addition in the process of translation the form-content unity of the source text is disrupted. In this process similarity and full equivalence finding of the two texts is not possible due to different cultures, linguistic structures, religions etc. So, a handful of the source text bits and pieces go missing and cannot be seen in the target text. According to Ginter (2002) inevitably some pressure is exerted upon the target language, as the transfer of foreign elements is impossible without certain 'violence'. Further, As-Safi (n.d) supporting our discussion of unavoidability of loss put forward this truth that one kind of loss occurs because of the divergent systems of the two languages regardless of the skill and competence of the translator who cannot establish equivalence and therefore resorts to compensatory strategies; which is inevitable loss.

We as translators shall bear some responsibility and go through the process with some conservative strategies equipped with decision, awareness and choice. As Wolf (1997), the translator, as it has been proved, should be an 'intercultural mediator', such intercultural activity requires a carefully considered choice of cultural, semantic, linguistic, strategy. The choice, however, should be subject to the purpose of translation and the message of the source language text. Thus, a creative translator should be always mindful of the best solution available. Further, the translator should try to be loyal to the source text and no to sacrifice the source text to the acceptability of the target translation for the eyes of target readers. The translator needs to have a comprehensive understanding of the original text, with regard of the meaning, the writing style and also its cultural values before he or she can translate it into the target language.

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THE EFFECT OF VOCABULARY CONSOLIDATION STRATEGY TRAINING ON VOCABULARY LEARNING AND VOCABULARY CONSOLIDATION STRATEGY USE OF INTERMEDIATE IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS

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ABSTRACT
This study investigated not only the significant differences between the vocabulary proficiency levels but also the differences between the use of vocabulary consolidation strategies of the students who received vocabulary consolidation strategy training and those students with no consolidation strategy training. This study was conducted in Tabriz Azad University with the participation of 50 female intermediate level first year ELT students who were in the age range of 18 to 21 during eight weeks. For the experimental group the instructional model of the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach was used to help learners and teacher in developing awareness of learning strategies. Data concerning strategy use gathered from pre- and post-questionnaires were analyzed quantitatively by using statistical procedures and the data concerning vocabulary proficiency level gathered from pre- and post vocabulary proficiency tests were also analyzed quantitatively. Data analysis indicated that strategy use and vocabulary proficiency level increased significantly after instruction. It might thus be inferred that vocabulary learning strategies should be considered to be included in the English language classrooms in the university-level Iranian EFL context and it also reveals that training vocabulary learning strategies may have a role to play in learners' independence in learning vocabulary.

KEYWORDS: cognitive academic language learning approach (calla), vocabulary consolidation strategies

INTRODUCTION
Background
As for Krashen and Terrell (cited in Aksungur, 2000, p. 170), "Acquisition will not take place without comprehension of vocabulary." Akn and Seferolu (2004) refer to Harmer's idea about vocabulary like this: "If language structures make up the skeleton of language, then it is vocabulary that provides the vital organs and the flesh" (cited in Akn & Seferolu, 2004, p. 1). As for Wallace, he states that "it is possible to have a good knowledge of how the system of a language works and yet not to be able to communicate after a fashion" (cited in Akn & Seferolu, 2004, p. 9).

The words which occur frequently in reading passages are important to learn. Which words need special attention can be decided by means of these questions posed by Allen: "Which words must the students know in order to talk about people, things and events in the place where they study and live? Which words must the students know in order to respond to routine directions and commands? Which words are required for certain classroom experiences? Which words are needed in connection with the students' particular academic interests?" (Allen, 1983, p. 108).

As a result of these comments on vocabulary, it can be said that vocabulary is a very important aspect of language learning. There are different vocabulary-related problems faced by teachers and learners during teaching and learning process. As Oxford and Scarcella (cited in Waring, 2002) point out, there are a lot of common deficiencies in strategies adopted by the teacher. To begin with, teachers regard vocabulary learning as the student's responsibility and rarely present vocabulary learning strategies and techniques to the students.

"Vocabulary instruction should go beyond just helping the learner to internalize dictionary meaning. A central purpose in teaching should be to encourage and help the learner to become more aware of how native speakers and other proficient speakers use the target language and to be more sensitive to differences in nuances and shades of meaning". (Ooi & Kim-Seoh, 1996, p.56).

To Nation (2001), language learning requires language items such as pronunciation, vocabulary, grammatical constructions, subject matter knowledge and cultural knowledge. We should shed enough light on vocabulary since it

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is an inevitable part of language learning. Learners should try to improve their vocabulary by means of speaking and writing activities which are important ingredients of vocabulary. Productive activities such as speaking and writing make learners focus on words and so strengthen their knowledge of previous vocabulary. To highlight this importance Nation (2001, p. 2) says: "Having to speak and write encourages learners to listen like a speaker and read like a writer." They become more fluent. Both learners and teachers should devote enough time to effective vocabulary learning.

Considering the comments of these researchers, it can be seen that vocabulary learning is an unavoidable part of language which can be facilitated by appropriate strategies. Although there are a lot of vocabulary-related problems faced by teachers and learners they can be prevented easily by devoting more time to vocabulary.

Statement of the Problem
Vocabulary learning is a difficult process, which usually takes place outside the classroom (Sökmen, 1997). However, in this significant and problematic part of language learning, learners are usually left alone and most of them do not know how to proceed. Their understanding of vocabulary learning strategies is usually limited to a few traditional vocabulary learning strategies like repetition (Schmitt, 1997). This restricted notion may have two reasons: first, they may not be aware of the existence of many other strategies; second, they may not know how to benefit from these strategies. Besides, they may not be conscious enough to realize that vocabulary learning requires extra effort outside the classroom as any other aspect of foreign language learning. Therefore, it seems necessary to raise the consciousness of learners about vocabulary learning and to expand their repertoire of vocabulary learning strategies through strategy instruction. What can be done to tackle the problem is to teach the strategies either directly or indirectly, though the former is recommended.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE
Vocabulary Learning Strategies
For more than two decades, language learning strategies has received recognition from educators and researchers. This, to some extent, affected the increase of interest in vocabulary learning strategies because learning strategies include vocabulary learning strategies, as stated by Nation (2001, p. 217): "Vocabulary learning strategies are a part of language learning strategies which in turn are a part of general learning strategies."

At this part the meaning of vocabulary learning strategies is going to be clarified. In this study, vocabulary learning strategies means techniques, tools, or devices consciously employed by the learners to facilitate their vocabulary retention. Moreover, the vocabulary learning strategies are teachable in that learners can be taught other types of vocabulary learning strategies and how to operate them effectively. Thus, they are provided with a choice of vocabulary learning strategies and are taught how to use them so as to develop their vocabulary learning or to solve their vocabulary learning problems effectively.

Additionally, vocabulary learning strategies taught in the classroom probably builds up learners' confidence to learn vocabulary independently. Most vocabulary learning strategies share similarities and differences under the taxonomies devised by Schmitt (1997, pp. 207-208), i.e. determination strategies, consolidation strategies, initially based on Oxford's (1990) language learning strategies taxonomy, and O'Malley and Chamot's (1990, p. 126) language learning strategies taxonomy classified as metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies, and social-affective strategies.

The Classification System for Vocabulary Learning Strategies
Despite the fact that vocabulary acquisition/learning and vocabulary learning strategies have recently gained more interest from SLA/FLL researchers, there is still inadequate work on vocabulary learning strategies. Schmitt (1997, p. 203) mentions that though learning strategies in fact entail vocabulary learning strategies, we see the lack of studies in the latter field, especially the lack of a comprehensive list or taxonomy.

Since our study mainly concerns training in the vocabulary learning strategies, we will first look at the vocabulary learning strategy taxonomies which are used as the models to classify our vocabulary learning strategies. To date there are two prominent vocabulary learning strategy taxonomies; the first by Schmitt (1997, pp. 207-208), and the second by Nation (2001, p. 218).

In Schmitt's taxonomy, fifty-eight vocabulary learning strategies were obtained from the survey of a sample of 600 Japanese students who had taken and were still taking EFL classes. Schmitt's vocabulary learning strategy taxonomy is shown in Table 2.2. Schmitt based his vocabulary learning strategy taxonomy on Oxford's (1990) language learning strategy classification because of its practicality in categorizing vocabulary learning strategies. He states: "Of the more established systems, the one developed by Oxford (op. cit.), seemed best able to capture and organize the wide variety of vocabulary learning strategies identified."

Hence, he basically selected four strategy groups (e.g. Social, Memory, Cognitive, and Metacognitive) which he considered useful for his vocabulary learning strategies classification.
The fifty-eight vocabulary learning strategies were grouped under two main headings: Discovery Strategies and Consolidation Strategies. The former entails strategies which are used to obtain "…initial information about new words", i.e. identifying affixes and roots of a new word. The latter involves strategies learners use to help them memorize the words once taught or encountered, such as using semantic maps, using new words in a sentence, and so forth.

Table 1: Vocabulary Learning Strategies Taxonomy originally compiled and classified by Schmitt (1997)

Strategies for consolidating a word once it has been encountered		Strategies for the discovery of new word's meaning	
COG	Verbal repetition	DET	Analyze part of speech
COG	Written repetition	DET	Analyze affixes and roots
COG	Word list	DET	Check for L1 cognate
COG	Flash card	DET	Analyze any available pictures or gestures
COG	Take notes (in class)	DET	Guess from textual context
COG	Use your vocabulary section in your text book	DET	Bilingual dictionary
COG	Listen to tape of word lists	DET	Monolingual dictionary
COG	Put English labels on physical objects	DET	Word list
COG	Keep a vocabulary note book	DET	Flash card
MEM	Study word with a pictorial representation of its meaning	SOC	Ask teacher for L1 translation
MEM	Image word's meaning	SOC	Ask teacher for paraphrase or synonym of new word
MEM	Connect word to a personal experience	SOC	Ask teacher for sentence including new word
MEM	Associate the word with its coordinates	SOC	Ask classmates for meaning
MEM	Connect the word to its synonyms and antonyms	SOC	Discover new meaning through group work activity
MEM	Use semantic maps		
MEM	Use scales for gradable adjectives		
MEM	Peg method		
MEM	Loci method		
MEM	Group words together to study them		
MEM	Group words together spatially on a page		
MEM	Use new words in sentences		
MEM	Group words together within a storyline		
MEM	Study the spelling of a word		
MEM	Study the sound of a word		
MEM	Say new word aloud when studying		
MEM	Image verb form		
MEM	Underline initial letter of a word		
MEM	Configuration		
MEM	Use keyword method		
MEM	Affixes and roots (remembering)		
MEM	Part of speech (remembering)		
MEM	Paraphrase the word's meaning		
MEM	Use cognates in study		
MEM	Learn the words of an idiom together		
MEM	Use physical action when learning a word		
MEM	Use semantic features grids		

36

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MET	Use English language media (songs, movies, newscasts etc)
MET	Testing oneself with word lists
MET	Use spaced word practice
MET	Skip or pass new word
MET	Continue to study word over time
SOC	Study and practice meaning in a group
SOC	Teacher checks student's flash cards for word lists for accuracy
SOC	Interact with native speaker

	Key abbreviations:
SOC	Social strategies: Use interaction with other people to improve language learning
MEM	Memory strategies: Relate new material to existing knowledge
COG	Cognitive strategies: Manipulate or transform a target language
MET	Metacognitive strategies: A conscious overview of the learning process and making decisions about planning, monitoring, or evaluating the best ways to study
DET	Determination strategies: discover a new word's meaning without recourse to another person's expertise

Vocabulary Learning Strategies Training in Consolidation Strategies
Clearly we see a number of studies which examine the effect of training in a well-known memory strategy, e.g. the keyword method, initially developed by Atkinson (1975) in an experimental context. Up to now, the keyword method (KW) has appeared in several studies conducted in order to examine its effectiveness on learners' L2 word retention. For instance, Raugh and Atkinson (1975) found that KW successfully helped learners in learning Spanish nouns (Cohen & Aphek, 1980). Nation (2001, p. 311) states that over one hundred studies have been conducted to find how effective the keyword method is. Nation also adds: "The keyword technique is primarily a way of making a strong link between the form of an unknown word and its meaning." Keyword method involves two core operational steps. For example, a learner may think of an L1 word which has a similar sound to L2 word, and then the learner creates an imagery linkage of both L1 and L2 meanings in order to retain the new word effectively. Many proponents of the keyword method, for example, Pressley, Levin, and Delaney (1982); Avila and Sadoski (1996); Rodriguez and Sadoski (2000); Kaminska (2000); Kasper (1993), and so forth claim that the technique probably benefits language learners in terms of facilitating L2 word retention. We, therefore, will look at some studies reporting teaching the KW method in a normal classroom environment.

Pressley and Levin's (1981) study suggests that the keyword help learners recall L2 vocabulary (Pressley, Levin, and Delaney, 1982). In addition, a number of studies consecutively conducted by Pressley et al., in 1977, 1980, 1981, and 1982 reconfirm the consistent findings: most of their studies indicate that most of the experimental groups using the 'keyword method' outperform the control groups. Presumably it can be noted that the KW method has a positive effect on learners' word retention and recall.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES
The present study tries to find appropriate answers to the following questions:

1. Is there any significant difference between the vocabulary proficiency levels of the students who receive vocabulary consolidation strategy training and those students with no consolidation strategy training?

2. Is there any significant difference between the use of vocabulary consolidation strategies of the students who receive vocabulary consolidation strategy training and those students with no consolidation strategy training?

Based on the above questions, two hypotheses of the study are stated as follows:

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H1. There is a significant difference between the vocabulary levels of the students who receive vocabulary consolidation strategy training and those students with no consolidation strategy training.

H2. There is a significant difference between the use of vocabulary consolidation strategies of the students who receive vocabulary consolidation strategy training and those students with no consolidation strategy training.

METHODOLOGY
Participants
50 homogeneous intermediate level first year female ELT students were chosen out of 80 female students of Tabriz Azad University who were in the age range of 18 to 21. Three aspects were considered in selecting these participants: participants' level of language proficiency, their level of vocabulary knowledge, and the amount of participants' consolidation strategy use.

Instrumentations
In order to determine the homogeneity of the participants, the participants' level of language proficiency was tested through a TOEFL proficiency test, their level of vocabulary knowledge was tested through a vocabulary proficiency test PET (Cambridge English vocabulary proficiency test), and the amount of participants' consolidation strategy use, was measured through a vocabulary learning strategy questionnaire which was adapted from Fan (2003) questionnaire.

Procedure
This study was experimental, with one pre-test, treatment for the experimental group, no treatment for the control group and one post-test. Here, the control group typically took the same pre-test and post-test as the experimental group did, but did not receive the treatment the experimental group did between the tests. Participants were given a pre-test to ensure comparability of participants groups prior to their treatment, and a posttest to measure the possible effect of treatment. That is why the design used in the study can be called *pre-test/post-test experimental design*. The design can be schematically presented as follows:
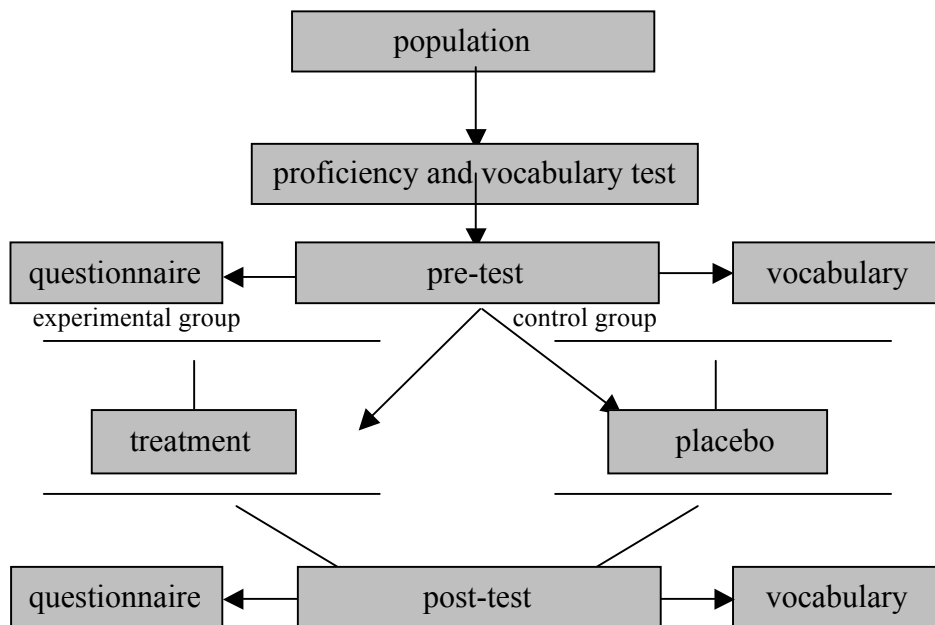
In order to answer the research questions 50 female intermediate level first year ELT students were chosen out of 80 students of Tabriz Azad University who were in the age range of 18 to 21. Three aspects were considered in selecting these participants, the first aspect was the participants' level of language proficiency which was tested through a T0EFL proficiency test, the second aspect to be considered was the level of vocabulary knowledge of them, which was tested through a PET vocabulary test, and the third one was the amount of participants' consolidation strategy use, which was measured through a vocabulary learning strategy questionnaire which was adapted from Fan (2003) questionnaire. The reliability of the data collection instruments was determined in a pilot study before this study.

After choosing 50 homogenous participants, they were divided into two groups, experimental and control. Based on the results of the questionnaire which was administered before strategy training, the consolidation strategies that students needed were determined and the lesson plan suited to those strategies was developed by the researcher.

For both experimental and control groups, the training period lasted 8 weeks (one hour a day, three days a week). The textbook for this course was vocabulary builder 1. The authors have emphasized the role of lexical knowledge in learning the English language. The same teacher worked with the both groups.

For the experimental group the instructional model of the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach, developed by Chamot and O'Malley (1986) was used to help learners and teachers in developing awareness of learning strategies.

In fact CALLA investigates content, topics, academic language development, and learning strategies to meet the needs of students with limited proficiency of English (Chamot & O'Malley, 1986). The CALLA model provides explicit instruction in learning strategies.

The CALLA design has five stages combining content, language and learning strategies, which do not have to be followed in a strict order:
• Preparation
• Presentation
• Practice
• Evaluation
• Expansion

The preparation stage focuses on the activation of learners' background knowledge about the content and the strategies appropriate to what students need to learn. The presentation stage is the point where teachers explain, demonstrate and model the strategy being introduced. The next stage, practice, goes hand in hand with the presentation stage as the students practice the presented strategies. The fourth phase, evaluation, is a significant part for developing learner autonomy as students find the opportunity to self-evaluate the strategies and their own performance. The final stage, expansion, is essential to encourage students to transfer this knowledge in a specific strategy to other subject areas or to real life situations.
Seven consolidation strategies which were focused in this study are as follows:

Taking note, verbal repetition, grouping words together, keyword method, using affixes and roots, using part of speech, studying and practicing in group

After training the strategies in each session there was classroom discussion about the name of the strategy and the reason of using it. The experimental group's students share a common first language (Azari) so the teacher can use the native tongue where necessary.

In the control group the same materials was taught without consciousness raising and discussing about the strategies. In this group learners were not taught why and when to use a particular strategy.

After strategy training in the experimental group, and regular instruction in control group, two tests were administered as post test, a vocabulary proficiency test for measuring the improvement in vocabulary proficiency level and Fan (2003) questionnaire to determine the changes which might have occurred in terms of strategy use.

IJLLALW

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
In order to give a balanced account of the data analysis procedure, first, the descriptive statistics is dealt with then the inferential. It presents the number of the participants, the mean and standards deviation of the participants' responses to the questionnaire items followed by the inferential statistics of one-way ANOVA. Second, the independent samples t-test of both groups is presented in terms of descriptive and inferential statistics. Before going into details, there is a point to be made. Quantitative data from the questionnaire of this study is composed of the data gathered from pre- and post-vocabulary learning strategy use questionnaire. Items in the questionnaires were designed on a five-point Likert-scale and were given values from 1 to 5. Respondents indicated frequency of use about the strategy in each item. Statements of 'frequency of use' were scored as 1 = Never, 2 = Seldom, 3 = Sometimes, 4 = Often, 5 = Very often. The reliability of the questionnaire was found to be .94 using Cronbach alpha coefficient of internal consistency.

What follows is a descriptive statistics of control and experimental groups of their pre- questionnaire data:

Table 2: Descriptive statistics of pre-questionnaire

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Note Taking	50	2.00	2.80	2.3160	.20836
Verbal Repetition	50	3.40	5.00	4.3320	.38249
Group Words Together	50	1.10	2.10	1.5780	.19825
Keyword Method	50	1.75	3.00	2.3640	.33244
Affixes and Roots	50	1.40	3.00	2.3628	.29019
Parts of Speech	50	1.00	2.00	1.5400	.41453
Study and Practice in Group	50	1.10	2.10	1.6440	.18644
Valid N (listwise)	50				

The two groups enjoy roughly the same level of value attached to different components of the questionnaire with the verbal component which has the highest value. Having reviewed the descriptive statistics, it is time to turn to pre-questionnaire data analysis through a one-way ANOVA to compare the experimental and control group in terms of their responses. What follows is the relevant table:

Table 3: One-way ANOVA of pre-questionnaire

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Note Taking	Between Groups	.080	1	.080	1.876	.177
	Within Groups	2.047	48	.043		
	Total	2.127	49			
Verbal Repetition	Between Groups	.039	1	.039	.264	.610
	Within Groups	7.130	48	.149		
	Total	7.169	49			
Group Words Together	Between Groups	.005	1	.005	.125	.725
	Within Groups	1.921	48	.040		
	Total	1.926	49			
Keyword Method	Between Groups	.205	1	.205	1.887	.176
	Within Groups	5.210	48	.109		
	Total	5.415	49			
Affixes and Roots	Between Groups	.009	1	.009	.102	.751
	Within Groups	4.118	48	.086		
	Total	4.126	49			
Parts of Speech	Between Groups	.000	1	.000	.000	1.000
	Within Groups	8.420	48	.175		
	Total	8.420	49			
Study and Practice in Group	Between Groups	.180	1	.180	5.672	.21
	Within Groups	1.523	48	.032		
	Total	1.703	49			

Looking through Table 3, one can easily claim that there is not any statistically significant difference between the experimental and control group in terms of their answers to the questionnaire administered before the treatment provided for the experimental group.

The next step is to look the participants' performance on the vocabulary test. What follows is the table of descriptive statistics of the independent samples t-test:

Table 4: Descriptive statistics of pre-test

	Grouping	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Vocabulary Test	Experimental	25	18.12	1.301	.260
	Control	25	18.40	1.323	.265

It can be easily asserted that the two groups enjoy a high level of homogeneity by having roughly equal values for the mean and standard deviation.

To be more confident statistically, it's necessary look at the results of the independent samples t-test:

Table 5: Independent samples t-test of pre-test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Vocabulary Test	Equal variances assumed	.311	.579	-.754	48	.454	-.280	.371	-1.026	.466
	Equal variances not assumed			-.754	47.987	.454	-.280	.371	-1.026	.466

Table 6: Descriptive statistics of post-questionnaire

	Grouping	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Vocabulary Test	Experimental	25	22.32	1.651	.330
	Control	25	19.72	1.568	.314

Table 7: One-way ANOVA of post-questionnaire

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Note Taking	50	2.00	4.40	3.0320	.66897
Verbal Repetition	50	4.00	5.00	4.4280	.21763
Group Words Together	50	1.30	4.10	2.5272	1.00174
Keyword Method	50	1.50	5.00	3.3810	1.02658
Affixes and Roots	50	2.00	5.25	3.4610	1.00647
Parts of Speech	50	1.00	5.00	3.0100	1.41958
Study and Practice in Group	50	1.30	4.20	2.6560	1.06869
Valid N (listwise)	50				

Table 5 displays the inferential statistics of independent samples t-test. One can easily perceive that the difference between the experimental and control groups is not statistically significant.

What went above was related to the questionnaire and vocabulary test as they appeared before the treatment was given to the experimental group. In what follows, we will deal with the post-treatment data. First the descriptive statistics of the participants' responses on the post-questionnaire comes:

Having reviewed the descriptive statistics, it is time to turn to post-questionnaire data analysis through a one-way ANOVA to compare the experimental and control group in terms of their responses. What follows is the relevant table:

Having looked the post-questionnaire data in terms of descriptive and inferential statistics, the next step is to look the participants' performance on the vocabulary post-test. What follows is the table of descriptive statistics of the independent samples t-test:

Table 8: Descriptive statistics of post-test

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Note Taking	Between Groups	18.483	1	18.483	257.486	.000
	Within Groups	3.446	48	.072		
	Total	21.929	49			
Verbal Repetition	Between Groups	.001	1	.001	.017	.898
	Within Groups	2.320	48	.048		
	Total	2.321	49			
Group Words Together	Between Groups	45.620	1	45.620	616.759	.000
	Within Groups	3.550	48	.074		
	Total	49.171	49			
Keyword Method	Between Groups	45.792	1	45.792	375.926	.000
	Within Groups	5.847	48	.122		
	Total	51.639	49			
Affixes and Roots	Between Groups	45.792	1	45.792	571.810	.000
	Within Groups	3.844	48	.080		
	Total	49.636	49			
Parts of Speech	Between Groups	91.125	1	91.125	574.016	.000
	Within Groups	7.620	48	.159		
	Total	98.745	49			
Study and Practice in Group	Between Groups	52.839	1	52.839	811.870	.000
	Within Groups	3.124	48	.065		
	Total	55.963	49			

It can be claimed that, on their performance on the vocabulary post-test, the participants have enjoyed a relatively large mean difference equal to 2.6.

However, in order to see whether this difference reaches statistical significance, it's needed to look at the results of the independent samples t-test:

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Table 9: Independent samples t-test of post-test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Vocabulary Test	Equal variances assumed	.034	.855	5.708	48	.000	2.600	.455	1.684	3.516
	Equal variances not assumed			5.708	47.87	.000	2.600	.455	1.684	3.516

According to Table 9, one can easily claim that the difference between the experimental and control groups is statistically significant because the value of Sig. (2-tailed) amounts to .000 (less than .05) which means that the difference between the two groups reaches statistical significance.

Regarding the research questions, based on what we reviewed above, in a nutshell, it can be safely argued that providing the learners with vocabulary consolidation leads to their better performance on the vocabulary proficiency as well as an increase in the frequency of use of the mentioned strategies while it comes to vocabulary learning. This was evident in the mean scores of the gathered data both in terms of the questionnaire and also the test of vocabulary proficiency.

Discussion
The analysis of the quantitative data gathered from pre-questionnaire revealed that in general vocabulary learning strategies were not used frequently before the treatment. This was the case for all the participants in experimental and control groups. This finding is not that much surprising as it might be expected having an eye on the results of earlier studies.

Post-questionnaires' findings presented an increase in the overall frequency of use of strategies in the experimental group. There was a significant difference between the scores of post-questionnaires of control and experimental group.

As for the findings in terms of strategy categories, the respondents reported using strategies of repetition, note taking, and keyword method more frequently before the treatment. On the contrary, categories of study and practice in group and using parts of speech were the least frequently used one.

The analysis of the quantitative data gathered from vocabulary tests showed the significant difference between control and experimental groups' post test scores. This result indicates that instruction of consolidation strategies is effective in vocabulary level of students.

CONCLUSION
This study investigated the effects of vocabulary consolidation training in vocabulary learning and strategy use.

Data analysis indicated that strategy use and vocabulary proficiency level increased significantly after instruction. It might thus be inferred that vocabulary learning strategies should be considered to be included in the English language classrooms in the university-level Iranian EFL context. To conclude, it must be said that this study reveals that training in vocabulary learning strategies may help the learning process by offering learners a mirror to discover themselves even if it may not wave a magic wand to change them into independent learners overnight.

As it was mentioned earlier, language learning strategies particularly those for vocabulary learning help learners take control of their learning process, thereby improving their confidence, motivation and even performance. It is important, therefore, that teachers become familiar with theoretical and practical perspectives concerning these strategies. They must try to do their best to bridge the gap between their theory and practice of strategy instruction by using the expertise of other researchers in academia or undertaking action research in their own classrooms.

Pedagogical implications
Results of the data suggested that the vocabulary consolidation strategy training had a positive impact on the process of vocabulary learning by increasing strategy use. What is more, the gains in the process of learning bring gradual learner independence with it. Thus, when the positive effects of strategy training found in this study are combined with the positive findings of earlier studies, it can be concluded that training in vocabulary learning strategies should be given in the Iranian foreign language classrooms.

Based on the findings of this study, it can be concluded that that if regular instruction of vocabulary learning strategies is provided, and if learners are consciously aware of their own learning, learning will be dramatically enhanced. In this way, teachers can have a stronger effect on the learning process. But it should be kept in mind that sheer presentation of these strategy instructions in and of themselves is not enough. What is needed, in addition to instruction, is that teachers should routinely conduct research in their own classroom to better understand the nature of these learning strategies. Teachers' awareness of the role and importance of these strategies, as well as the right application of them to the right task is also of great value. It requires the teacher a full-commitment to their jobs not as an authority of the classroom, but as a facilitator.

However, in order for the strategy training to reach its aims, the trainings should be incorporated in the regular schedule and follow a well-organized explicit instruction model. Through such training, students should be provided with the opportunity to practice the strategies together with their friends in the guidance of the teacher. Then they should be encouraged to self-evaluate their own strategy use, as this procedure gives them the occasion to think about their own learning and the ways to improve themselves.

Even if the strategy instruction cannot be totally incorporated into the curriculum or even if it is not possible to give long-term training, short-term training may also be beneficial. In other words, it must be considered that even short-term strategy trainings have a role to play in EFL settings. Curriculum designers, program administrators and classroom teachers should consider integrating the training in vocabulary learning strategies in their curriculum. However, if the strategy training is to become part of the regular program, teachers should know the principles behind strategy training and learn how to give explicit strategy training. Directly related to the findings of this study the following implications are listed below:

- teachers of Iranian EFL context should try to discourage application of noncomunicative learning strategies such as translation, rote memorization, and repetition, and try to raise students' awareness of topics such as metacognitive (thinking about thinking) strategies, which are profitable weapons for fighting the difficulties, dilemmas, embarrassments, and potholes which are luring at every corners and bends of the road to the EFL town.

- Closely related to the first implication is the fact that learners need to be provided with tasks to help them organize their mental lexicon.

- Learners need to be provided with opportunities to be actively involved in the learning of words.

- Learners have to be encouraged to take the responsibility for vocabulary expansion.

- Teachers should raise students' consciousness of the importance of these strategies by explaining the nature and significance of learning strategies to their students.

Limitations of the study

This study has its own limitations. It is important to remind that because of the small number of participants, the present study cannot offer a concise description of the vocabulary learning strategy use by intermediate students. In addition to the difficulty of making generalizations based on the findings of the study due to the fact that all the participants are female there is also limited number of participants.

The present study also concentrated on the current situation of vocabulary learning and did not take into account the fact that learning strategy use changes over time when the learner's skills develop . For example, conducting a longitudinal study could be a useful tool in order to develop the study further and investigate how the vocabulary learning strategy use changes over time. In addition, interviews or observations could serve as useful tools for data acquisition instead of or together with a questionnaire which was used in the present study.

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CRITICAL THINKING ABILITY OF IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS AND THEIR LEARNING STYLES

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ABSTRACT
Developing critical thinking ability and knowledge of different learning styles among the students are very important in language education. This study aimed to examine the relationship between critical thinking ability and learning style dimensions of Iranian EFL (English as a Foreign Language) learners. To do so, two instruments, Kolb Learning Style Inventory, and a questionnaire of Critical Thinking, were administered among 123 intermediate college students majoring in English Translation and English Literature at Roudehen Islamic Azad University in Iran. The data were analyzed using Pearson correlation coefficients as well as multiple regression analysis. The results revealed a statistically significant and positive relationship between all learning style dimensions and critical thinking ability. Moreover, the results of regression analysis indicated that Abstract Conceptualization dimension of learning style predicted best the critical thinking score. The findings may provide language teachers with deep insights into the way they match their own teaching styles with students' learning styles to enhance learners' critical thinking ability.

KEWORDS: Critical thinking ability, learning styles, learning style dimensions

INTRODUCTION
In recent years, language educational system has witnessed a gradual shift from teacher-centered education to learner-centered one. In line with this movement, instructional activities have undergone massive changes, one of which is a need to provide opportunities for learners to think critically. Critical thinking holds a central role in modern education, the goal of which is to provide an environment where students construct their own knowledge and take the responsibility for their own learning (Khatib, Marefat, & Ahmadi, 2012). Critical thinking is best understood as the ability of thinkers to take charge of their own thinking, it is the art of analyzing and evaluating thinking with a view to improve it, and it is self-directed, self-disciplined, self-monitored and self-corrective (Paul & Elder, 1994). To Schafersman (1998), critical thinking encompasses the entire process of obtaining, comprehending, analyzing, evaluating, internalizing, and acting upon knowledge and values. A critical thinker, according to Schafersman, has several characteristics, the most important of which are: Distinguishing between facts and opinion, asking questions, making detailed observations, listening carefully to others and giving feedback, willing to examine beliefs, assumptions, and opinions, assessing statements and arguments, having a sense of curiosity, rejecting the information that is incorrect or irrelevant, etc. Furthermore, to Hooks (2010), "critical thinking involves first discovering the who, what, where, and how of things, and then utilizing that knowledge in a manner that enables individuals to determine what matters most." (p. 9)

Current trends in learner-centered language education have also put an emphasis on the learners' individual differences as one of the determining factors in effective learning. The view that a common instruction can meet the needs of all seems no longer acceptable. As a result of such view, the role of learning styles is emphasized as well, as one of the factors accounting for differences in students' learning (Dornyie, 2005). In the literature, different scholars define learning styles in different ways. Keefe (1979, p. 4, as cited in Reid, 1987, p. 87), for instance, defines learning style as "characteristic, cognitive and psychological behaviors that served as relatively stable indicators how

learners perceive, interact with, and respond to the learning environment". To Reid (1995, as cited in Dörnyei, 2005) learning style is: "An individual's natural, habitual, and preferred way(s) of absorbing, processing, and retaining new information and skills." (p. viii) Regardless of how the term is conceptualized, styles have some basic characteristics, the most important of which are enumerated by Sternberg (1995, pp. 268-269) as follows: a) Styles are not abilities but rather ways of using abilities; b) Styles can vary from one task or situation to another; c) Styles are socialized; d) Styles can change over the course of one's lifetime; and e) Styles are not better or worse, but merely different.

Various studies have so far investigated different aspects of critical thinking and its implications in EFL contexts. Yet, not much is known about the relationship between learners' critical thinking and their learning styles. Accordingly, the purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between critical thinking of Iranian EFL learners and their learning styles.

LITERATURE REVIEW
Critical thinking
 A variety of definition is provided for critical thinking in the literature. Chance (1986), for example, defines critical thinking as "the ability to analyze facts, generate and organize ideas, defend opinions, make comparisons, draw inferences, evaluate arguments and solve problems" (p. 6). Chaffee (1988) views critical thinking as "our active, purposeful, and organized efforts to make sense of our world by carefully examining our thinking, and the thinking of others, in order to clarify and improve our understanding" (p. 29). Norris and Ennis (1989) note that "critical thinking is the reasonable and reflective thinking that is focused on deciding what to believe or do" (p. 3). Brookfield (1991) provides a much simpler definition, stating that "critical thinking involves recognizing and researching assumptions that undergird thoughts and actions" (p. 17).
One of the contradictory issues with regard to critical thinking is whether it can be taught and improved in formal educational settings or not. Some scholars such as Atkinson (1997) question the teachability of critical thinking and believe that it is a culture-bound construct and teaching this non-overt social practice in the classroom is hard if not possible. However, to Schafersman (1991, p. 3) critical thinking is not an inborn capacity. Rather, it is a learned ability that must be taught. In a similar vein, Hooks (2010) asserts that critical thinking is an interactive process, one that demands the participation of both teachers and students. Those who believe in the teachability of critical thinking, assert that instead of teaching students what to think, we should teach them how to think (Clement & Lochhead, 1980, as cited in Schafersman1991, p. 1). Moreover, critical thinking skills should not be taught separately but incorporated in the curriculum (Kabilan, 2000). Researchers propose several teaching techniques that can be implemented in classrooms to foster learners' critical thinking. Schafersman (1991), for instance, suggests that teaching activities such as lectures, laboratories, homeworks, quantitative exercises, term papers, etc. can lead to higher critical thinking skill development.

A massive body of literature deals with the role of critical thinking in language education. In Iranian context, for example, efforts have been made to investigate the relationship between critical thinking and other related constructs and also to find out whether teaching critical skills could help students improve their language proficiency (Fahim & Ahmadian, 2012). In this regard, Fahim and Sa'eepour (2011) conducted a study to investigate the impact of teaching critical thinking skills on reading comprehension ability, as well as the effect of applying debate on critical thinking of EFL learners. The results indicated a significant difference between the two groups on reading comprehension test, but a non-significant difference on critical thinking test. Based on the results of this study, teaching critical thinking skills in EFL context can improve language learning. Yarahmadi (2011) investigated the relationship between extraversion personality dimension of Iranian EFL learners and their critical thinking and reported a significant correlation between these two variables. Hashemi and Zabihi (2012) explored the relationship between Iranian EFL learners' critical thinking and their receptive English language proficiency skills and reported a significant relationship between them. Nosratinia and Sarabchian (2013) examined the relationship among EFL students' five personality traits and predictability of their critical thinking ability. The results indicated that there was a significant relationship between critical thinking and domains of personality. Moreover, Nosratinia and Zaker (2013) in their study indicated that there is a significant and positive relationship between EFL learners' critical thinking and their autonomy. And finally, Mall-Amiri and Ahmadi (2014) reported a significant and positive relationship between EFL learners' critical thinking and metacognitive strategies.

Learning styles
Needless to say, learners learn in different manners. Some prefer to learn individually while others prefer to interact with their peers. Some enjoy listening to lectures whereas others like to do more experiments. Put another way, they have different learning styles. Learning styles are an interesting concept for researchers because they are not used for

distinguishing the talented from the untalented learners but rather they just refer to "personal preferences" (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 122) which are not dichotomous. Rather, they represent a continuum from one extreme to another (e.g., being more holistic vs. being more analytic) and so there is no need for a value judgment to decide where a learner falls on the continuum (Dornyie, 2005).

There is lots of learning styles models and taxonomies in the literature, among which Kolb's (1984) learning style inventory following his *Experiential Learning Theory* (ELT) was chosen for this study. ELT defines learning as "the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience. Knowledge results from the combination of grasping and transforming experience" (Kolb, 1984, p. 41). The ELT model portrays two dialectically related modes of grasping experience including *Concrete Experience* (CE) and *Abstract Conceptualization* (AC) and two dialectically related modes of transforming experience including *Reflective Observation* (RO) and *Active Experimentation* (AE) (Kolb & Kolb, 2005) (see Figure 1). Kolb (1984) conceptualizes the process of learning as an idealized learning cycle or spiral. As Kolb and Kolb (2005) assert:

> Immediate or concrete experiences are the basis for observations and reflections. These reflections are assimilated and distilled into abstract concepts from which new implications for action can be drawn. These implications can be actively tested and serve as guides in creating new experiences. (P. 2)

The CE ability involves grasping immediate experience through sensing and feelings, producing tacit knowledge. In contrast, the AC ability entails generating concepts and ideas as explicit knowledge through logical thinking and analytical reasoning. The RO abilities require reflecting on immediate experience in the form of tacit knowledge by observing it from various perspectives within the self. In contrast, the AE abilities necessitate taking action to test explicit knowledge generated by the AC abilities (Kolb, 1984; Kolb & Kolb, 2005). Based on the combination of the two style continuums (four learning modes or orientations), four basic learner types, or learning style patterns, are proposed and described with the following characteristics:

- *Divergers* (CE & RO) are best at viewing concrete situations from many different points of view. In formal learning situations, they prefer to work in groups, listening with an open mind to different points of view and receiving personalized feedback.
- *Assimilating* (AC & RO) are best at understanding a wide range of information and putting it into concise, logical form. They prefer readings, lectures, exploring analytical models, and having time to think things through.
- *Converging* (AC & AE) are best at finding practical uses for ideas and theories. They prefer to experiment with new ideas, simulations, laboratory assignments, and practical applications.
- *Accommodating* (CE & AE) have the ability to learn from primarily "hands-on" experience. They prefer to work with others to get assignments done, to set goals, to do field work, and to test out different approaches to completing a project. (Adopted from Kolb & Kolb, 2005, p. 5)
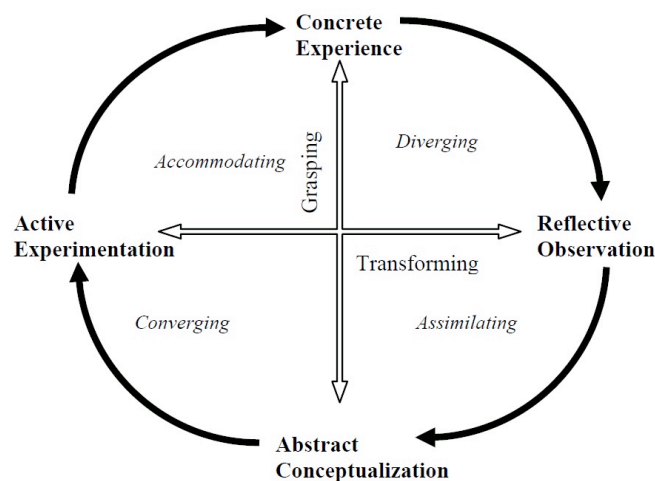
Figure 1: The experiential Leaning Cycle and Basic Learning Styles
(Adopted from Kolb & Kolb, 2008, p. 6)

There are some empirical studies applying Kolb's model in language education. For example, Johnson (2001) aimed at investigating potential relationships between learning style and changes in communication variables (self-perceived communication competence, communication apprehension, and willingness to communicate) in several conversation classes. Self-perceived communication competence score was negatively related to an assimilating style. Communication apprehension score was negatively related to active experimentation and willingness to communicate score was negatively associated with reflective orientation. The results of this investigation indicated that while there were some statistically significant relationships present, learning style was not an important predictor of changes in communication variables across the basic communication course. In another study, Sabbaghan (2004) examined the relationship between Kolb's learning styles and multiple intelligences and reported the significant relationship between them; all learning styles had a significant and positive relationship with math-logical intelligence. Regarding other intelligences, assimilating learning style correlated significantly with intrapersonal, interpersonal, and kinesthetic intelligences, while converging style correlated just with intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligences. In addition, both diverging and accommodating learning styles correlated with musical and spatial intelligences. Finally, Şirin and Güzel (2006) assessed the relationship between learning styles and problem-solving skills among Turkish students. It was found that problem-solving skills had a positive relationship with reflective-observation learning style and a negative relationship with abstract conceptualization learning style.

Statement of the problem and purpose of the study

Researchers have raised concerns about factors affecting the development of critical thinking ability. For instance, to Kuhn (1999), critical thinking is a form of metacognition. Similarly, Halonen (1995) asserts that a person's propensity, or disposition, to demonstrate higher-order thinking relates to their motivation. Moreover, Paul and Elder (1994) note that creativity can be related to critical thinking ability. What about learning styles? It is assumed that matching learning styles with teaching styles will nurture learners' critical thinking ability which respectively increases their ability to process information, and enhance academic performance (Suliman, 2006; Mahmoud, 2012). Moreover, by gaining a better understanding of the influence of learning styles on critical thinking ability, teachers can become better equipped to assist students in developing critical thinking skills (Myers & Dyer, 2006). As far as the researchers know, however, the relationship between critical thinking ability and learning styles is rarely examined in TEFL in an Iranian context. Accordingly, the purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between Iranian EFL learners' critical thinking ability and their learning styles dimensions based on Kolb's (1984) model.

REREARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESIS

In order to investigate the relationship between critical thinking ability and learning styles modes of the Iranian EFL learners, the following research questions were raised:

> Q_1: Is there any statistically significant relationship between critical thinking ability of Iranian EFL learners and their learning style dimensions?
> Q_2: Is there any significant difference between the dimensions of learning style in predicting the scores of critical thinking?

> Given the above research questions, the following null hypotheses were proposed:
> $H_{01:}$ There is not any statistically significant relationship between critical thinking ability of Iranian EFL learners and their learning style dimensions.
> $H_{02:}$ there is not any significant difference between the dimensions of learning style in predicting the scores of critical thinking.

METHODOLOGY

Participants

The participants of this study consisted of 123 male and female EFL learners, ranging in age from 18 to 30 years old and majoring in English Translation and English Literature at Roudehen Islamic Azad University in Iran. Of these 123 students, 23 were eliminated because of invalid data. As a result, 100 students remained for data analysis. Sampling of the subjects was based on intact available groups.

Instruments

To achieve the purpose of this study, the following two instruments were utilized:

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1) Honey's Critical Thinking Questionnaire
Critical Thinking Questionnaire, developed by Honey (2000), is a Likert-type 30- item questionnaire aiming at exploring the critical thinking ability of the participants by evaluating the three main skills of comprehension, analysis, and evaluation. More specifically, the questionnaire identifies learners' ability in note-taking, summarizing, questioning, paraphrasing, researching, inferencing, discussing, classifying, outlining, comparing and contrasting, distinguishing, synthesizing, inductive and deductive reasoning.

The participants were asked to rate the frequency of each category on a 5-point Likert-scale, ranging from never, seldom, sometimes, often, to always (1-5 points, respectively) in 20 minutes. In this study the Persian version of this questionnaire, translated and validated by Naeini (2005), was employed. The reliability of the questionnaire was estimated to be 0.79 using the Cronbach's alpha by Nosratinia and Abbasi (2013).

2) Kolb's Learning Style Inventory
To determine the learning styles of the participants, Kolb's learning style inventory version 3.1(2005) was employed. Official permission was obtained to use it in the current study (see www.Haygroup.com). The format of the inventory is a forced-choice format that ranks an individual's relative choice preferences among the four modes of the learning cycle (Kolb & Kolb, 2005).

The participants were asked to read an item and then rank their responses, on a scale of 1-4, to each of the 12 items on the inventory in approximately 10 minutes. The LSI measures the participant's emphasis on each learning style and on two combination scores. These scores indicate to what extent the participant engages in an abstract learning style over concrete (AC/CE) and an active learning style over reflective (AE/RO). The result of the learning style inventory is to place the participants into one of four learning style quadrants: assimilator, accommodator, converger, or diverger. The reliability of the inventory was calculated by Saghaieh Bolghari (2012). The alpha coefficient score was .65 for abstract conceptualization, .62 for concrete experiences, .70 for active experimentation, and .66 for reflective observation.

Data collection procedure
In order to answer the main research questions, the following procedures were pursued:
Before administrating the questionnaires, the participants were fully explained in Persian on the process of completing the questionnaires through explaining and exemplifying how to choose the answers. The participants were also informed that the results of the study would not affect their course scores.
As the next step, the critical thinking questionnaire and the learning style questionnaire were administered to the participants. The participants were allocated 30 minutes to complete the both questionnaires. To ensure that all the participants were fully understood in how to respond to the questions correctly, the researcher randomly observed the process of filling out for some of them. Having scored the administrated questionnaires, the researcher analyzed the data through statistical procedures being elaborated in the subsequent section.

DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION
Having collected the data through using the two research instruments, the researcher tried to analyze the data while conducting a series of calculations and statistical techniques. Before addressing the research question, some initial analysis was done.
1) Preliminary analyses
In order decide whether a parametric or non-parametric technique would be employed, some preliminary assumptions were checked which are presented below.
a) Linear relation between each pair of variables
 To check the linearity of relations, the researchers needed to visually inspect the data through creating scatterplots. Since there were multiple variables in the study, the researchers created a multiple scatterplot which is presented in Figure 2.
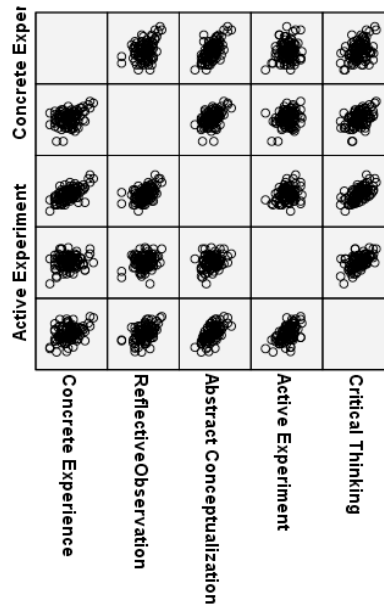
Figure 2: Multiple scatterplot of the variables

The inspection of Figure 2 shows that there was almost no kind of non-linear relationship between the scores, such as a U-shaped or curvilinear distribution.

b) Normality of the distributions

To check the normality of the distributions, the descriptive statistics of the data were obtained and are reported thoroughly in below.

Descriptive statistics of the scores: The descriptive statistics related to the obtained scores on the instruments appears below in Table 1.

Table 1: Descriptive statistics of the scores

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
CE	100	17	43	28.59	5.354	.251	.241	.011	.478
RO	100	17	41	30.82	4.352	-.424	.241	.834	.478
AC	100	14	43	27.66	5.279	.178	.241	.093	.478
AE	100	13	42	30.67	5.265	-.431	.241	.708	.478
Critical Thinking	100	57	142	101.53	17.839	-.114	.241	-.097	.478
Valid N (listwise)	100								

As demonstrated in Table 1, the distribution of data for scores came out to be normal as all of the skewness rations and the kurtosis ratios fell within the range of -1.96 and +1.96 for the distributions.

Kolmogorov-Smirnov test of normality: In order to assess the normality of the distribution of scores further, Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was run, results of which is presented in Table 2.

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Table 2: Tests of normality of the scores

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
CE	.071	100	.195	.986	100	.370
RO	.078	100	.140	.975	100	.057
AC	.063	100	.200[*]	.987	100	.407
AE	.081	100	.104	.980	100	.122
Critical Thinking	.044	100	.184	.992	100	.801

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction
*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

As presented in the table, all the Sig. values are more than .05, suggesting no violation of the assumption of normality.

c) Homoscedasticity for regression

To check the assumption of homoscedasticity, that is, the assumption that variance of residuals for every pair of points on the independent variable is equal, the researchers examined the residuals plot (Figure 3).
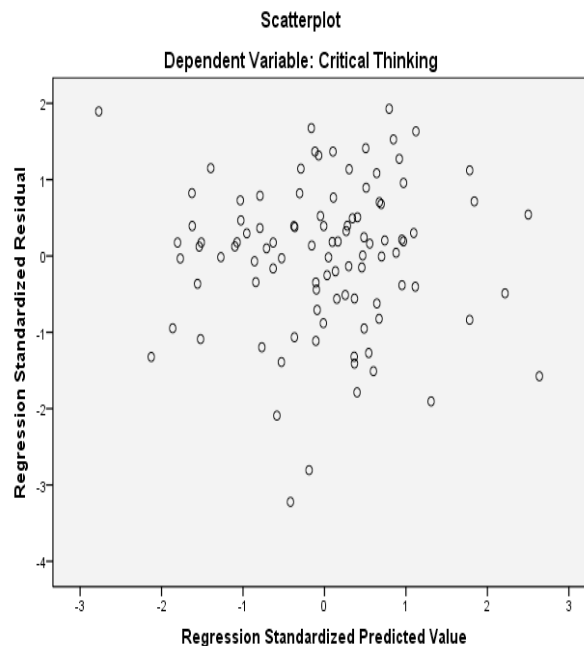
Figure 3: Plot of Studentized Residuals for Critical Thinking

As demonstrated by Figure 3, the cloud of data is scattered randomly across the plot and thus the variance is homogeneous.

2) Testing the hypotheses
To test the first hypothesis, a correlational analysis was conducted by the researchers. The following table shows the result:

53

Table 3: Pearson's correlation coefficients among the variables

Learning Style Dimensions		Critical Thinking
CE	Pearson Correlation	.389**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	100
RO	Pearson Correlation	.495**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	100
AC	Pearson Correlation	.649**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	100
AE	Pearson Correlation	.527**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	100
Critical Thinking	Pearson Correlation	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	
	N	100

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
 *. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

As demonstrated by Table 3, the correlations between critical thinking and all the learning style dimensions turned out to be significant and positive. Therefore, the first null hypothesis was rejected. In this regard, the highest and lowest correlations were found between abstract conceptualization (AC) and critical thinking (.649) and concrete experience (CE) and critical thinking (.389), respectively.

Since the correlation among the variables turned out to be significant, the researchers could opt for the multiple regression analysis among these variables to test the hypothesis stating that there is no significant difference between the subcomponents (or dimensions) of learning styles in predicting the scores of critical thinking. The four learning style dimensions were the predictor (independent) variables and critical thinking score was the predicted (dependent) variable. The following tables show the result:

Table 4: Model summary – R and R square

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.764[a]	.584	.567	11.743

a. Predictors: (Constant), AE, CE, RO, AC
b. Dependent Variable: Critical Thinking

Table 4 presents the regression model summary including the R and R square. As reported in this Table, R came out to be 0.764 and R square came out to be 0.584. This means that the model explains 58.4 percent of the variance in critical thinking. Table 5 reports the results of ANOVA ($F_{4,95} = 33.3$, $p = 0.0005$) which came out to be significant.

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Table 5: Regression output: ANOVA table

	Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	18404.847	4	4601.212	33.367	.000[a]
	Residual	13100.063	95	137.895		
	Total	31504.910	99			

a. Predictors: (Constant), AE, CE, RO, AC
b. Dependent Variable: Critical Thinking

Finally, Table 6 demonstrates the standardized beta coefficients which signify the degree to which each predictor variable contributes to the prediction of the predicted variable. Inspection of the Sig. values showed that except Concrete Observation, all the variables make a statistically significant unique contribution to the equation as all their Sig. values are less than .05. The comparison of beta values revealed that Abstract Conceptualization has the largest beta coefficient (*Beta* = 0.488, *t* = 5.157, *p* = 0.0005 < 0.05). This means that this variable makes the strongest statistically significant unique contribution to explaining total score. Accordingly, the second null hypothesis was also rejected.

Table 6: Regression Output: Coefficients

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	-1.349	10.408		-.130	.897					
CE	-.156	.287	-.047	-.544	.588	.389	-.056	-.036	.588	1.700
RO	.766	.317	.187	2.419	.017	.495	.241	.160	.734	1.363
AC	1.649	.320	.488	5.157	.000	.649	.468	.341	.489	2.046
AE	1.243	.233	.367	5.327	.000	.527	.480	.352	.922	1.084

Discussion

As the findings of this study indicated, there were significant and positive correlations between EFL learners' critical thinking ability and their learning style dimensions based on Kolb's (1984) model. Reaching such conclusion seems not to be inevitable, since all learning style dimensions of Kolb's model, namely abstract conceptualization (thinking), active experiments (doing), concrete experience (feeling), and reflective observation (watching), share common characteristics with critical thinking attributes. As Schafersman (1998) asserts, a critical thinker uses logical reasoning and analyzes the arguments (abstract conceptualization), relies on empirical evidence (active experiments), considers the other person's point of view and is sensitive to the feeling of others (concrete experience), and watch out for authoritarian influences (reflective observation). That is why all of the correlations were significant and positive although that of abstract conceptualization and critical thinking correlation was the highest one (r= .649, p< .001). This is due to the fact that learners with abstract conceptualization indicate an analytical, conceptual approach to learning that relies on logical thinking and rational evaluation (Kolb & Kolb, 2005). Therefore, this learning style has more compatibility with critical thinking than the rest.

With regard to the second question, it was found that except for concrete experience, all of the learning style dimensions could predict the score of critical thinking ability. But, the abstract conceptualization was the strongest predictor. Moreover, the results indicated that individuals who preferred learning by active experimentation (greater AE-RO) are more likely to be self-confident in their critical thinking, while those who prefer learning by abstract

conceptualization (greater AC-CE) tend to be more analytical and have better critical thinking skills. This is in line with the study of Siriopoulos and Pomonis (2007) who reported the similar results. As a matter of fact, individuals with these learning dimensions have converging learning style. In this study, only 8 students representing 8% of the total showed 'converging' learning style type, while 57% represented the diverging learning style. As mentioned before, the dominant learning modes of divergers are concrete experience and reflective observation (Kolb & Kolb, 2005).

Despite the importance of critical thinking and learning styles, the relationship between these two is not examined excessively in language education. However, in other educational domains a few number of studies aimed to examine such relationship. The result of this study supports some of the previous findings that explain the relationship between these two constructs. For instance, Mahmoud (2012) reported a significant relationship between nursing student critical thinking disposition and their active/reflective learning style. In addition, Yenice (2012) reported that there was a significant relationship between learning style and disposition to think critically of the pre-service teachers. In a similar vein, Güven and Kürüm (2008) conducted a study to determine the relationship between pre-service science teachers' disposition to think critically and their learning style and found a relationship between them. Moreover, Myers and Dyer (2006) aimed to determine the influence of agricultural student learning style on critical thinking skill and concluded that students with deeply embedded Abstract Sequential learning style preferences exhibited significantly higher critical thinking skill scores. Similarly, the findings of a study by Suliman (2006) on nursery students also showed that there was a relationship to some degree between learning style and disposition to think critically of the students. However, to Rudd, Baker, and Hoover (2000) there wasn't a significant relationship between agricultural students' total points of thinking critically and points of the students with field-dependent and field-independent learning style. This result has conflict with the findings of the current study maybe due to applying a different learning style classification.

CONCLUSION
The present study was an attempt to explore the relationship between Iranian EFL learners' critical thinking ability and their learning styles. As the results indicated, there was a significant and positive relationship among the variables. From the findings of the current study, it may be suggested that both learning styles and critical thinking are important skills to be acquired by the students. It is concluded that learning styles as one of the major individual differences can impact the learners' critical thinking ability. The results of the present study may support increasing teachers' understanding of learning styles. As Reid (1987) suggests, students' motivation, performance, and achievements will increase and be enhanced when students' learning styles are matched with appropriate teaching approaches. To this end, teachers should match their teaching styles with students' learning styles. Moreover, teachers should adopt a 'multi-style approach' (Felder & Henriques, 1995) in their classrooms. That is, both reflective and active activities or thinking and sensing abilities should be emphasized in language classrooms to attune to the diversity of students' learning preferences. It would also be beneficial for teachers to find out about their own learning styles because many teachers, either consciously or unconsciously, select methods that reflect their own preferred ways of approaching academic tasks (Dornyie, 2005). Needless to say, addressing individuals' learning styles is one way to promote their critical thinking ability. Teachers should provide a collaborative environment for learners to foster critical thinking skills. As Hooks (2010) asserts, critical thinking is an interactive process yielding better results with the help of both teacher and peers in the class.

In this study, Kolb's learning style inventory and Honey's critical thinking questionnaire were used as research instruments. Future research is needed to examine whether the application of other instruments can affect the relationship between learning style and critical thinking. Moreover, age and gender effects were not considered in this study. Further, the study was limited to a certain number of students who were available for conducting this research. In order to reach more satisfactory results, it is proposed to conduct similar studies with a wider sampling group from different universities and contexts and to carry out experimental studies in which learning environments would be created based on learning style and critical thinking. In conclusion, it is worth-mentioning that both learning style and critical thinking are multifaceted processes affected by different factors. If no or weak relationship between them is found, it implies that some intervening factors may affect the results. Eliminating these factors, one can achieve the desired results.

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IJLLALW

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THE EFFECT OF THE NUMBER OF AFFIXES ON VOCABULARY LEARNING OF IRANIAN ADVANCED EFL STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT
This study examines the relationship between the number of affixes and vocabulary learning of Iranian advanced EFL (English as foreign language) students. In order to carry out the investigation, 43 (male and female) advanced students in Qazvin Province in Iran were chosen randomly, and then the initial number of students was reduced to 37 after the administration of proficiency pre-test. The data were collected using two separate tests. One of the tests was a proficiency test and the other was a vocabulary recognition test. Students were given information about paying attention to the word parts when answering the questions. One-way Repeated Measure ANOVA was used to analyze the data. The results showed that advanced students who used word formation strategy were aware of it and used that strategy in their test. Then, by using word formation instruction in general and affixation in particular teachers can create a creative situation for teaching and keep learners interested and motivated for learning vocabulary.

KEYTERMS: Vocabulary knowledge, Vocabulary learning strategies, Affix, Prefix, and Suffix.

INTRODUCTION
The present study is concerned with the number of affixes and its effect on vocabulary learning of Iranian advanced EFL students. Vocabulary is a fundamental basis of every sentence in every language. Knowing frequent words in learning English plays a crucial role in promoting learners' abilities in listening, speaking, reading and writing.

Hodges (1984) defines vocabulary as a collection of words of a language which is at the disposal of a speaker or writer. Nation (2001) introduced three reasons for the importance of vocabulary skills: First, it is a necessary part of improving reading comprehension. Reading comprehension has a strong relationship with the level of vocabulary knowledge (Nourie & Davidson, 1992). Second, by vocabulary learning, learners can get more academic success. Third, it prepares success in life. Moreover, Waring (2002) emphasizes the importance of constructing a reliable body of vocabulary knowledge to learn another language linguistically and psychologically and without this reliable knowledge of vocabulary little can be learned in foreign language and also by structuring a magnificent vocabulary knowledge domain quite actively, one can be capable of functioning in that language competently.

Considering everything that is involved in learning a word, it is not surprising that student's vocabulary knowledge develops through a variety of ways. They learn words from others such as parents, teachers, and peers through contexts. What they read, hear, see, and experience in their lives through games, conversation, television, radio, and many other channels provides then conditions to acquire vocabulary. Moreover, they learn words through their knowledge of word parts by using resources such as dictionaries, glossaries. Then, we see that it takes a lot of time to reach deep knowledge and there are so many ways of learning words; teaching and development can be discussed as important parts of vocabulary program. And also, it should be taken into consideration that there is a wide variety of factors which affect learners and vocabulary learning strategies. These factors are age, motivation, cooperative learning, aptitude, prior knowledge, and anxiety in second language learning which were shown to be more related to learner and vocabulary learning strategies. According to Oxford (1992), teachers must be aware of variables such as gender, age, motivation, self-confidence, anxiety, language learning styles and strategies and many other factors which differ in various learners in order to teach successfully.

One of the most popular strategies in vocabulary learning supported by many researchers is using affix knowledge (Bauer & Nation, 1993; Nation, 1990). Therefore, to obtain a complete picture of vocabulary learning concerning using affix knowledge, it would be desirable to observe the students' performance in the light of their knowledge about prefixes and suffixes. According to Scalise (1984), "an affix is a morpheme that is attached to a word to form a new word"(p. 79). He states that affix is a meaningful letter or group of word parts which changes meaning when it is added to the beginning or the end of a word.

Nation (2001) declares that knowing a word means knowing the member of the family of the word and by developing proficiency, the number of the members of this word family will increase. In addition, research has shown that using associations in learning vocabulary is more effective than rote learning. He also mentions that most researchers distinguish three main ways in which a learner's vocabulary increase: through deliberately learning or being taught, through learning by meeting in context, and through learning new words by gaining control of prefixes, suffixes and other word building devices.

Statement of the problem
According to Blachowicz, Fisher, and Watts (2005), the difficulties of word learning lies at least in three things: (1) the word characteristics itself, (2) the learner characteristics, (3) the level of word learning desired. All word learning needs a meta-cognitive approach in spite of their variety of inherent difficulty. Students first should attend to word and recognize it as unknown, then desire to know that word and engage actively in the learning process actively, and at the end integrate both definitional and contextual information and new and known information as well. For example, to understand the word exasperate (to make somebody very angry by repeating an annoying behavior), learner should know what the word means, how it is used and in what context it is used, and how it relates to what he or she already knows.

However, the major problem is that despite the importance of vocabulary knowledge, enough attention has not been paid to effective teaching. Furthermore, there are different strategies for dealing with vocabulary items and one of these strategies is learning vocabulary through affixes which enables students to better understand unknown words encountered in the future. So far, there has been enough research about the effectiveness of learning affixes on vocabulary learning, and there has been a considerable gap in the relationship between the number of affixes and vocabulary learning of Iranian EFL advanced learners.

Significance of study
Vocabulary learning is important because of some reasons: First, the more vocabulary knowledge learners have, the better they can comprehend their reading assignment. Second, learners who have more vocabulary knowledge can achieve more academic success because words are tools, not only of better reading, but also of better writing, speaking, listening, and thinking as well. Third, knowing enough vocabulary can guarantee success in life as well as academic areas (Nation, 2001). There are a lot of ways to improve our knowledge of vocabulary and one of these ways can be having knowledge of affixes and roots which can help learners in learning unfamiliar words.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE
In order to learn and use English efficiently, learners need to expand proper learning strategies for long-term learning. Vocabulary learning strategies are a subdivision of language learning strategies which have attracted much attention since the late seventies. In fact it is a special instructional tool or way to learn words directly or indirectly. According to Nation (1993), knowledge of around 3,000 word families is needed for achieving other language skills. Without those words, learners encounter problems understanding the language they are exposed to. Then it can be said that vocabulary can play an important role in the development of the four skills: speaking, listening, reading, and writing.
Miller and Gildea (1987) classified word learning into two stages. A new word is identified and assigned to a broad semantic category in the first stage, but distinctions are made within a semantic category when it is in the second stage, and deep knowledge of word learning occurs in this second phase of word learning. Gaining deep knowledge takes more time and is characterized by an understanding beyond a simple definition.

Ellis (1997) holds that a predicator of learners' discourse is vocabulary knowledge, which patterns grammatical rules in the learners' mind. Actually, vocabulary knowledge includes important aspects of word knowledge as Laufer (1997) classified those important aspects of word knowledge as:

1. Form (spoken and written)
2. Word structure (common derivations, inflections)
3. Meaning which have three features:

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• referential (what non-linguistic entity in the outside world the word refers to)
• affective (connotation of a word, e.g. *spinster*, associated with old age, isolation ,or sadness)
• pragmatic (suitability of the word in a particular situation)
4. Syntactic pattern of the word in a phrase and a sentence
5. Lexical relations of the word with other words:
• synonymy (e.g. *hide / conceal*)
• antonymy (e.g. *single / married*)
• hyponymy (e.g. *flower / rose*)
6. Common collocations (e.g. *a high probability*, but *a good chance*)

Nation (2001) mentions that knowledge of all the vocabulary of a language is the most ambitious goal of every language learner because even native speakers do not know all the vocabulary of their language. He also declares that word knowledge involves knowing a variety of word knowledge aspects; the more aspects of word knowledge we know, the more likely we will be able to use it in the right contexts in an appropriate manner but the mastery of all kinds of word knowledge obviously cannot be achieved simply and simultaneously. Although we have only the vaguest idea of how some of these word knowledge types are acquired (e.g., collocation and register), it seems obvious that certain types are learned before others. For example, Bahns and Eldaw (1993) found that their subjects' collocational knowledge lagged behind their general vocabulary knowledge.

In a study Schmitt and Zimmerman (2002) found that even advanced learners who knew one form of a word (e.g., *philosophy*) did not necessarily know all of the other members of the word family (*philosophize, philosophical, philosophically*). Thus, learning a word must be an incremental process; it means that the various types of word knowledge are mastered at different rates. Then it can be said that each of the word knowledge types will be known at different degrees of mastery at any one point in time. In addition to these different degrees of mastery, each word knowledge type may be receptively or productively known regardless of the degree of mastery of the others. In sum, it indicates that word learning is a complicated and difficult but gradual process.

After recognizing vocabulary and the importance of learning and teaching vocabulary, we can raise a simple question: What is the best way for EFL/ESL learners to develop strong vocabulary more effectively and efficiently?

Given the important role of vocabulary knowledge in learning a foreign language, learners should employ approaches and suitable strategies to learn vocabulary. Better comprehension takes place when learners have more vocabulary knowledge. There are different strategies for it including guessing, inferring or direct teaching of words. Lotto and De Groot (1998) raised the questions which often arise in the field of vocabulary learning or other kinds of learning: What is the most efficient and positive strategy to learn vocabulary in a new language, and what kind of words are the most convenient ones to be learned in a new language?

Nation (2001) believes that with the help of vocabulary strategies a large amount of vocabulary could be acquired and that the strategies prove useful for students at different levels. He stated:

> Most vocabulary learning strategies can be applied to a wide range of vocabulary and are
> useful at all stages of vocabulary learning. They also allow learners to take control of
> learning away from the teacher and allow the teacher to concentrate on other things.
> Research shows that learners differ greatly in the skill with which they use strategies.
> For these reasons, it is important to make training in strategy use a planned part of a
> vocabulary development program. (p. 222)

Hunt and Beglar (2005) investigated a framework to lexical development which involves two approaches:

1. Explicit lexical learning.
2. Implicit contextualized learning.
They previously (1998) identified three efficient strategies to improve vocabulary learning including explicit, incidental, and independent learning.

Teaching all the vocabulary that ESL learners need in class is challenging. However, helping EFL learners develop strong vocabularies is essential to their success, both in school and beyond. Learners may forget many of the specific facts they learn in school, but the words they learn will serve them as useful tools for a lifetime. To be effective, a program of teaching vocabulary should provide students with opportunities for word learning by encouraging wide reading, providing direct instruction of specific words and visuals, and promoting word consciousness by using word parts through breaking up a word into understandable parts including root words, suffixes and prefixes. Then, learning vocabulary through affixes enables students to both deepen their present word knowledge and to better understand unknown words encountered in the future. According to Scalise (1984), affix is a morpheme that can be attached to a word to change its form and make a new word. It is a meaningful letter or group of word parts which change meaning at the beginning or at the end of the word. Affix is useful for English learners who have at least some language knowledge to enhance vocabulary domains by using this word part.

Nourie and Davidson (1992) state that affixation has been one of the most productive ways of word building throughout the history of English. The first and main function of affixation is to form one part of speech when added to another in Modern English, and the second function is to change the lexical meaning of the same part of speech. The process of affixation consists of coining a new word by adding an affix or several affixes to some root morpheme. Affixation is divided into suffixation and prefixation. In modern English, suffixation is mostly characteristic of noun and adjective formation while prefixation is mostly typical of verb formation. In addition to contextualization, or indirect instruction, another powerful vocabulary teaching and learning method is structural analysis which means word parts. Word parts are basic meanings and basic blocks used in many English words. Learning them can help ESL learners to guess and remember new words as well as to spell words.

Studies of Bauer and Nation (1993) show that students learn easily with less effort new words including affixes in spite of the fact that the learners are familiar with parts and then they can guess the meaning. There are two types of knowledge of word parts and they have two positive influences: one is for inferring the meaning of words in their reading words, and the other is for remembering. They added that there are seven levels of affixes based on the following criteria: Four important levels of them are frequency (the number of words in which the affix occurs), regularity (as a result of affixation how much the written or spoken form of the stem or affix changes), productivity (the likelihood of the affix being used to form a new words), and predictability (the number and relative frequency of the different meaning of the affix).

Schmitt and McCarthy (1997, p. 277) mentioned that "knowing of how words are made up of can help students to have at least a receptive knowledge of the words in the same family". Using word parts can be very useful in teaching ESL learners how to attack new words constructing solid vocabulary. Also, ESL learners can benefit from learning new vocabulary easily and from maintaining previously learned words in memory by using word parts.

Fundamental elements are suffixes, prefixes, and roots of words which are common to many English words. Suffixes and prefixes cannot stand on their own as words (Davoudi &Yousefi, 2009). They state that there are three important elements in etymology approach including prefix, suffix, and root. They note:
Most of the prefixes and suffixes in modern English were derived from old English, Latin, and Greek. They are so numerous that is impossible to list all of them. By learning strategic ones, you take another long stride towards improving your vocabulary, combining your knowledge of roots with knowledge of prefixes and suffixes you can analyze a surprisingly large number of words. (pp. 17-18)

Categorizing the word in terms of syntactic roles and breaking morphologically complex words into stems and affixes is an important step in word learning, structuring the lexicon and marking grammatical relationships within a sentence.

Prefix   A prefix is a
word beginning. It is an affix that is attached to a word at the beginning. Prefixes play an important role in word-formation, but they do not generally change the word-class of the base and just modify its meaning.

Graves and Hammond (1980) believed in three reasons for teaching prefixes: (1) There are relatively few prefixes, and many of them are used in a large number of words, (2) Most prefixes have constant meaning which is definable easily, and (3)Prefixes have relatively constant spellings. They also used the following context and definition procedure that are transferred to new words for teaching prefixes:

a.Isolate the prefix and show it and also attach it to four words (e.g., *in-, inability*)
b. Define that prefix. For example, in- means not.

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c. Use those words in different sentences.
d. Define the words
e. Give students an opportunity to find other words exemplifying the prefix after completing and
    discussing the above steps.
f. Give students an opportunity to add examples to vocabulary notebook.

In a study, Harris and Sipay (1990) introduced four prefixes that are the most commonly used prefixes; these prefixes are *'un-, re-, in-*, and *dis-'* and account for about half of the common prefixes of words in English, and there are 20 prefixes which account for nearly all prefixes of words. The same prefixes can be seen in many different words. Generally speaking, prefixes change words' meaning according to time, place, direction, degree, amount and negative.

Plag (2002) classified prefixes semantically into four groups: 1-There is a large group that quantifies over their base words meaning, for example, 'one' (*uni-, unilateral*), 'many' (*multi-, multi-purpose*). 2-There are many locative prefixes such as *circum-* 'around' (*circumscribe*), *counter-* 'against' (*counterbalance,*). 3-There are temporal prefixes expressing notions like 'before' (*ante-*, and *fore-*, as in *antedate, foresee*), or 'new' (*neo-, neoclassical*). 4- There is a group consisting of prefixes expressing negation (*a (n)-, de-, dis-, in-, non-, un-*, disagree, unimportant). He also held that there are also numerous prefixes which do not fit into any of the four groups and express diverse notions, such as 'wrong, evil' (*mal-, malfunction),* 'badly, wrongly' (*mis-, mistrial*), and etc.

Ebbers and Carroll (2010) declared that prefixes mostly influence word meaning in any context. In many words, the meaning is clearly mapped into the prefix, as in *interior, exterior, posterior, anterior*, and *ulterior*. They added that in many cases, prefixes change the flavor, or connotation, of the word. For example, *deport* is more negative than *support,* and *super molecule* is more impressive than *molecule*.

Suffix
A suffix is a word ending. It is a group of letters you can add to the end of a root word. Adding suffixes to words can change or add to their meaning, but most importantly they show how a word will be used in a sentence and what part of speech (e.g. noun, verb, and adjective) the word belongs to. For example, *import<u>ance</u>, free<u>dom</u>, child<u>hood</u>, creat<u>ion</u>*. These are noun making suffixes and mastering them is very important (Scalise, 1984).

Nagy, Diakidoy, and Anderson (1993) explored the development of students' knowledge of the meaning of 10 common English suffixes. The goal of the present study is to gain a clearer picture of students' acquisition of knowledge about what some common derivational suffixes contribute to the meanings of derivatives. They found that students master inflectional suffixes and compounding before derivational suffixation because of the relative abstractness of the information conveyed in derivational suffixes. Another reason for the later acquisition of derivational suffixes may be that such affixes are far more common in written language, or more formal oral language, than they are in everyday conversation. In general, derivational suffixes are associated with the more complex syntax of written language and formal discourse.

Therefore, in Plag's (2002) study, suffixation is the formation of new words by adding suffixes to bases, unlike prefixes which mostly affect the semantic modification of the bases, their crucial function being to change the grammatical function of the bases. Thus, suffixes should be treated as a grammatical function of the basis, the change of the word class with a slight modification of meaning. He classified suffixes into four important types:

1. Nominal suffixes are often employed to derive abstract nouns from verbs, adjectives and nouns. Nouns are not easy to know well; furthermore, they are used widely. Therefore mastering suffixes are very important.
2. Verbal suffixes: Four suffixes which derive verbs from other categories (mostly adjectives and nouns) are *-ate, -en, -ify* and *-ize*. *–ate*. Forms ending in this suffix represent a rather heterogeneous group.
3. Adjectival suffixes: A large proportion of derived adjectives are *relational adjectives*, whose role is simply to relate the noun. The adjective qualifies to the base word of the derived adjective. For example, *colonial officer* means 'officer having to do with the colonies'.
4. Adverbial suffixes: Most of them are made by adding *–ly* to adjectives.

Ebbers and Carroll (2010) mention that students often know what a word basically means, but they misuse it in context, perhaps because using an adjective as a noun. Derivational suffixes drive syntax, helping us understand the grammatical function of a word. English derivations are *morphosyntactic;* syntax is encoded into the suffixes.

Without a doubt, it is important to learn prefixes and suffixes well because the most common error learners make with affixation is related to using the wrong prefix or suffix. First of all, English often has multiple affixes with the same or similar meaning (e.g. *im-, in-, un-*), and it is merely impossible to predict which one is correct. Furthermore, learners will sometimes attach an affix to a word, and although it fits logically, the word is actually formed in a different way. For example, although the word *'guiltiness'* is correct, it will be better to use the word *'guilt'* instead of *'guiltiness'*.

There are many studies of English affixes because a large portion of the words coming from Latin or Greek make use of affixes; so many studies are related to the proportion of words with affixes in a particular corpus (White, Power & White, 1989). Also there are studies which give the frequency of particular affixes within a corpus. They are all confirming the frequent, widespread occurrence of derivational affixes (Nation, 2001). Many researchers emphasize the validity of the word formation strategy uses of affix knowledge for building vocabulary (Nation, 1990; Bauer & Nation, 1993).

On the whole, it is appropriate to say that although there are a number of studies investigating the effect of affix knowledge on vocabulary learning, there are few studies which have examined their direct effects on vocabulary and there is no study on the effect of the number of affixes on vocabulary learning. Thus, it is necessary to do scrutinizing research on how to use the advantages of learning affixes on vocabulary learning and the primary focus of the present study is on the investigation of the impacts of different numbers of affixes on vocabulary learning. Therefore, to obtain a complete picture of vocabulary learning using affix knowledge, we need to observe the students' performance on being given prefixes and suffixes.

RESEARCH QUESTION AND HYPOTHESIS
Is there a significant difference in the vocabulary performance of Iranian advanced EFL learners in terms of the number of affixes?

Research null hypothesis
There is no significant difference in the vocabulary performance of Iranian advanced EFL learners in   terms of the number of affixes.

METHODOLOGY
Participants
In the present study, a sample of 43 EFL students (male and female) in Qazvin universities was selected. Their major was English and they were at advanced levels; the 43 advanced students with ages among 23-34 were chosen randomly among M.A. students. The initial number of participants was then reduced to 37 after the administration of MTELP (Michigan Test of English Language proficiency) for advanced students. Hence, 6 students were excluded and 37 students remained as the participants of this study.

Instruments
The instrument for determining proficiency level of advanced students was MTELP (Michigan test of English language proficiency). It was administered to see whether or not the participants had the same level of proficiency in English. MTELP is one of the popular tests for measuring the ESL or EFL learners' degree of language proficiency. It consisted of 30 vocabulary items in multiple-choice format containing 30 vocabulary items requiring selection of a synonym or completion of a sentence (see Appendix A). This test was administered to 43 M.A. students and out of them 37 was selected. The participants who scored between one standard deviation below and above the mean were included in the study. Then a multiple-choice TOEFL (Test Of English as a Foreing Language) test was administered to the advanced participants. TOEFL test is the most widely accepted English language assessment, used for different purposes in more than 130 countries. Then, 51 questions from TOEFL exams at advanced level were chosen, consisted of 17 questions inducing root vocabulary items, 17 questions inducing single affixes vocabulary items and 17 questions inducing double affixes vocabulary items. These questions has undergone several major revisions and changes by professors in this major.

Procedures
To achieve the purpose of the study, the following procedures were followed.

Initially, to homogenize the participants, MTELP proficiency test was administered to the participants. It consisted of 30 vocabulary items requiring selection of a synonym or completion of a sentence. Then, the vocabulary comprehension subtests for advanced students were used to measure the vocabulary knowledge of the participants. Each subtest contained 51 items, 17 questions on root words, 17 questions on single affixes and 17 questions on double affixes in multiple-choice format.

Data analysis

The data were analyzed using descriptive statistic as well as repeated measure ANOVA to answer the proposed research question. They were used to study the effects affixation on advanced EFL students' performance in terms of the numbers of affixes.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The research question sought to investigate whether or not there were any significant differences in the number of affixes on vocabulary performance of Iranian advanced EFL learners. A one-way repeated measures ANOVA procedure was used to investigate the result of the participants' test scores. Descriptive statistics, including the mean, standard deviation, etc., are presented in *Table 1*.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics for the ANOVA on vocabulary performance

	Proficiency	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
root	high	7.6486	3.02963	37
	Total	7.6486	3.02963	37
Single affix	high	7.4324	2.19267	37
	Total	7.4324	2.19267	37
Double affix	high	7.5135	2.56712	37
	Total	7.5135	2.56712	37

Table 1 indicates that the highest mean on the vocabulary test belongs to the root words followed by the double affixes words. The single affixes words have the lowest mean. Then in order to see whether or not the differences among the numbers of affixes are statistically significant, the one way Repeated Measures ANOVA procedure was run. The results are given in *Table 2*.

Table 2: The results of the one way Repeated Measures ANOVA

Source	Type II Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Factor Sphericity Assumed	.883	2	.441	.128	.880	.004
Greenhouse-Geisser	.883	1.748	.505	.128	.854	.004
Huynh-Feldt	.883	1.829	.483	.128	.863	.004
Lower-bound	.883	1.000	.883	.128	.723	.004

Based on *Table 2,* since the F-value is not statistically significant (F= .128, *p>*.05), we can safely claim that the number of affixes has no significant difference on vocabulary learning performance of Iranian advanced EFL learners. Thus, the null hypothesis is supported. Partial Eta Squared shows that .004 percent of the total variance in the dependent variable is accounted for by the independent variable.

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Therefore, finding of this study showed that at advanced level the number of affixes in words does not have a significant effect on vocabulary learning. This is the answer to the research question; it indicates that although the learning of affixes has positive impact on vocabulary learning, there is no main effect in terms of affixation number. Of course, this result is for advanced level students who have more knowledge of affixes and are at the higher proficiency level.

There are also studies which contradict the result of this study at the intermediate level and are similar to the findings of this study at the advanced level, like Schmitt's (1997) study which focused on the situation of Japanese EFL learners; the result of that study showed that despite the students' positive image of affix knowledge, many of them do not make use of it in their own learning. Okada (2005) attributes the reason for this to the Japanese learner's small vocabulary size and limited knowledge of affix. Furthermore, Aizawa (1998) suggests since the learners' first language (L1) is unrelated to English; they lack sufficient affix knowledge, which makes it difficult for them to benefit this strategy.

The findings of Tehlah and Karavi's (2012) study are different from the results of the present study regarding vocabulary learning. They showed that explicit affixation instruction not only can help students improve their English vocabulary learning, but it also enhances learners' satisfaction on English vocabulary development.

The observed discrepancy between the findings of the present study and those of the above- mentioned studies could be partially related to a number of factors. One of the reasons may be participants' level of language proficiency. Another reason could be attributed to the   participants' background knowledge. Moreover, most of the above-mentioned studies were conducted on EFL learners with diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds. Chang (2007) maintains that culture is a part of language and has an important impact on reading comprehension. . According to Smith (2005), researchers have long identified the increasing impact of cross-cultural parameters on the process of vocabulary learning. The findings of Chang's (2007) study confirmed that cross-cultural differences may produce different results in a study with ESL learners in comparison with EFL learners.

Therefore, the effect of the number of affixes on vocabulary learning of Iranian advanced EFL learners turned out to be insignificant. This is corroborated by studies such as Goh and Foong (1997), and Yang (2007) which accentuate the role of proficiency in using language learning strategies and indicate that more proficient students use some or all strategies more than less proficient students and that language proficiency affects students' use as well as selection of language learning strategies.

CONCLUSION

English is a language which is the most complex of all the European languages because of its mongrel mixture of Greek, Latin, French and Germanic roots (Frost, 2005; Seymour, 2005). Because of this, one of the greatest tools any reader, beginner or advanced, can have is to master and memorize a large number of root words, prefixes and suffixes. Root words are where many of our common English words originate from and these are recognizable as the origin of other words. Prefixes and suffixes are two kinds of affixes which help to form longer words but are not words in themselves.

The learning of English vocabulary is the basis of language learning, just as the root for an edifice. Affixation, as one of the most essential and effective ways of word-formation, provides us with a good perspective to enlarge vocabulary. Hence, mastering the formation rules of affixation is indispensable to enlarge vocabulary easily, productively and effectively, and also learners are not supposed to learn English words only by rote but sum up some learning skills. Then, affixation is such a useful way.

As the results reveal, the level of students has a significant effect on students' performance. Although both intermediate and advanced students had the same test based on their levels, in intermediate level, which students are not more aware with single affix and double affixes, their performance are weak and the more the number of affixes the less learners are successful. While advanced students are more aware of affixes and number of affixes in words, their vocabulary performance has no difference in words which are made up of root, single affix and double affixes. Thus, tentatively it can be said that the explicit instruction of affixation in terms of the number of affixes can be regarded as an effective method for students who are lack of English vocabulary knowledge. It is an appropriate method helps learners improve their English vocabulary development.

This study focused on word formation strategy which is narrowed by examining the effect of the structure of word on students' vocabulary learning. Word form strategy is one of the important factors in language learning and teaching.

Using word formation instruction in general and affixation in particular and paying attention to the effect of affixation on vocabulary learning in terms of the number of affixes can have notable and positive outcomes. By applying affix instruction in English classrooms, teachers can create a creative situation for teaching and keep learners interested and motivated for learning vocabulary. Students also can have a better understanding of new words. In addition, teachers can find new and better ways of teaching to introduce strategies students do not know and create opportunities to encourage students to be more autonomous.

Limitations of the study
This research suffers from certain limitations which have to be taken into consideration:
1.   Finding enough participants was a challenge.
2.   Some participants cooperated imperfectly.
3.   Aspects such as participants' interests, language background and some other factors influence the findings of the study and caution should be taken into consideration in generalizing the results.
4.   The number of words selected to be worked on was limited because of practicality deliberations. So, care must be exercised in generalizing the finding beyond their proper limits.

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THE EFFECT OF THE NUMBER OF AFFIXES ON VOCABULARY LEARNING OF IRANIAN INTERMEDIATE EFL STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT
The main purpose of the current study is to investigate the use of one of the vocabulary learning strategies named word formation strategy (morphology) in terms of the number of affixes by English as foreign language (EFL) intermediate students in Qazvin Province in Iran. In order to investigate the variables, 43 intermediate EFL students in Qazvin Province were chosen randomly. The data were collected by using two separate tests. The results showed students who used word formation strategy have highest mean on the vocabulary test belongs to the root words followed by the single affixes and the third highest mean belongs to the double affixes. The data showed that students seemed not to have and employ word-building knowledge; they favored an approach which involved attention to the whole unit because they did not have enough knowledge of affixes. Then, the findings revealed that the more students learn about affixes, the better they perform on vocabulary learning. It is suggested that in order to further validate the general conclusions of the current study, more specific ethnographic research needs to be done and more participants needs in future studies.

KEYWORD: Vocabulary Learning, Affix, Suffix and Prefix

INTRODUCTION
This study examines the relationship between the number of affixation and vocabulary learning of Iranian intermediate EFL (English as a Foreign Language) learners. There are six language skills which EFL learners should learn to be a fluent English users, those are: vocabulary, grammar, reading, writing, listening, and speaking. Among those vocabulary is the most basic and vital element for EFL learners but it has been defined differently by different researchers. Most of the researchers defined vocabulary such as the sum of interrelated sub knowledge, it means, morphological knowledge, knowledge of word meaning, collocational and grammatical knowledge, connotative and associational knowledge, and the knowledge of social or other constraints to be observed in the use of a word (Richard,1976; Ringbom,1987; Nation,1990,2001).

Vocabulary learning has a critical role in Iranian EFL students' English learning. One of the important strategies for vocabulary learning is word decoding (word formation strategy). It is a way of breaking up a word into understandable parts including root words, suffixes and prefixes. Then, learning vocabulary through affixes enables students to both deepen their present word knowledge and to better understand unknown words encountered in the future. Armbruster, Lehr, Osborn & Adler (2001) hold that word formation strategy is a mean to use word parts to figure out the meanings of words in text. This strategy can be useful to the students' vocabulary development. They also mention that knowing some common affixes (prefixes and suffixes) and root words can increase students' power to learn the meanings of many new words. The sense of curiosity toward the words parts and segments is very important, and also how to activate this sense of curiosity is more challenging.

Now what does an affix mean? According to Scalise (1984), "An affix is a morpheme that is attached to a word to form a new word" (p.79). He states that affix is a meaningful letter or group of word parts which changes meaning at

the beginning of word or the end of word. It is useful for English learners who have at least some language knowledge to increase vocabulary domains by using these word parts. Therefore, affixation is defined as the making of words by adding derivational affixes to different types of bases. The derived words formed by affixation may be the result of one or more applications of word-formation rules and so the stem of words making up a word-cluster enters into derivational relations of different degrees.

Tankersley (2005) suggests that effective vocabulary learning for students should include encouraging students to experiment with words, and explicitly teaching word meanings and word formation strategy. A number of strategies specifically for learning vocabulary have been identified since vocabulary learning rapidly changed into an area of growing research and publication. One of these strategies is word formation strategy which deals with putting together smaller elements to form larger words with more complex meanings.

Statement of the Problem
As Huh (2009) stated, in the past, teachers often ignored vocabulary learning and enough attention had not been paid to them because they believed that vocabulary could easily be learned by learners themselves. Therefore, they prefer to teach vocabulary indirectly. Also from the EFL learners' side, vocabulary learning is one of the most challenging tasks compared to learning other skills of the language because the learning of vocabulary and syntax are completely different. Syntactic rules can be learned within a limited time for their finiteness, whereas vocabulary learning is a life-long process due to its infiniteness.

So far, there has been more study about the effectiveness of learning affixes on vocabulary learning, but there has been considerable gap in the relationship between effectiveness of the number of affixes and vocabulary learning of Iranian EFL learners.
Significance of the Study
It is logical to look for influential ways to improve our knowledge of vocabulary. One of these ways is having knowledge of affixes and roots, a knowledge of affixes and roots in English has two advantages for a learner: it can be helped the learning of unfamiliar words by relating these words to known words or to know prefixes and suffixes, and also it can be helped as a way of checking whether an unfamiliar word has been successfully guesses from context. More over by employing new techniques and strategies and then implementing them in our curriculum, it can be found a new and interesting way to cope with the difficulty of learning English in our schools.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE
Word in the language system is defined as a structural and semantic thing. It is the crucial unit of a language; it is a very challenging and difficult thing to define because it results from the association of a particular meaning with a particular group of sounds. So, the concept of the word is very challenging and difficult to define (Read, 2000). He points out that structure words as function words include: articles, prepositions, pronouns, conjunctions, and auxiliaries which belong more to grammar of the language, while semantic words are known as content words and include nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs and refer to the meaning of the elements. And in this distribution the base form of a word is known as a 'Lemma'.

Strategies for dealing with vocabulary items are different and one of these strategies is learning vocabulary through affixes which is enable students to both deepen their present word knowledge and to better understand unknown words encountered in the future. Affix is divided into suffix and prefix. In modern English suffixation is mostly characteristic of noun and adjective formation, while prefixation is mostly typical of verb formation. In addition to contextualization, or indirect instruction, another powerful vocabulary teaching and learning method is structural analysis means word parts (Nourie & Davidson, 1992). Word parts are basic meaning, basic blocks used in many English words. Learning them can help ESL learners to guess and remember new words as well as to spell words.

According to Bauer and Nation (1993), learners whose L1 is related to English language because of the similarity between the L1 and L2, know the base form of the word as well as affix knowledge, also they could guess and use derivative words. The result of a questionnaire conducted by Schmitt (1997), focusing on the situation of Japanese EFL learners, shows that 69% of the learners think studying words by analyzing affixes and roots is helpful. But the learners who actually used this strategy were reported to be only %15. These results show that although the students have positive image of this strategy, many of them do not use it in their own learning. Aizawa (1998) holds that the Japanese learners' L1 is unrelated to English, then they lack sufficient affix knowledge, which makes it difficult for them to use word family concept. In addition, Okada (2005) holds that the Japanese learners' small vocabulary size and limited knowledge of affix are the reason for this.

Stoffer (1995, cited in Fahim, &Komijani, 2010) made one of the first attempts at categorization of vocabulary learning strategies. She designed a questionnaire with 53 individual strategies (involving over 700 learners) grouped into the following nine categories:

(1) Strategies used for self-motivation,
(2) Strategies used to create mental linkages,
(3) Strategies used to overcome anxiety,
(4) Strategies used to organize words,
(5) Memory strategies,
(6) Visual/auditory strategies,
(7) Strategies involving physical action,
(8) Strategies involving creative activities, and
(9) Strategies involving authentic language use.

Schmitt and Meara's (1997) study showed the results that their participants'' suffix knowledge was poor. They were Japanese students whose major was English. As a group, the participants showed 62-66% achievement (with 57% mastery of inflection on the receptive section); on the productive section, they mastered 59% of inflection and 15% of derivation. The top four verbal suffixes given to the participants were three inflections (-ed, -ing and -s) and a derivation (-ment). They also explained that the difference between the inflection and derivation scores was because inflections are more rule-based (for example, students know that inflectional suffixes in the tests can be added to verbs). On the contrary, derivations in the study needed idiosyncratic knowledge. This means students need to memorize L2 derived words because there is no principal way to recognize or recall the tested word from its word parts. In this case, the students could not make much use of the patterns of word formation.

Clark (1998) by production data concerning morphology has suggested that children find it easier to process suffixes than they do prefixes. This evidence comes from cross-linguistic studies of polysynthetic languages which mark inflection with both prefixes and suffixes. In a study, Nation (2001) states if learners have special purposes for learning English, it is worth investigating to recognize if there are affixes and stems in their areas of specialization which are important. Students of medicine, botany and zoology, for example, will find that there are affixes and stems like: haemo- and photo- that make access to many technical words in their fields.

To avoid confusion, Schmitt (2000) categorizes the vocabulary learning strategies into two categories: (1) strategies that are useful for the initial discovery of a word's meaning, and (2) those useful for remembering that word once it has been introduced. Some of these strategies are named "shallow" strategy but others are named "deeper" strategy, in general "shallow" strategies such as simple memorization, repetition, and taking notes are more commonly used by beginners, while more complex ones or "deeper" strategies are more commonly used by higher level learners, require significant active manipulation of information, for instance, imagery, inference, and the Keyword Method. If the depth of the processing perspective needs to follows, the relatively "shallow" strategies may be less effective than "deeper" strategies.
In learning new complex words, Nation (2001) classified the word part strategy involves two steps:

1. Break the unknown word into parts which requires learners recognize prefixes and suffixes occur in words.
2. Relate the meaning of the word parts to the meaning of the whole word which requires learners know the meaning of the common word parts and also requires learners should be able to re-express the dictionary definition of a word to include the meaning of its prefix, stem and suffix.

He made distinction between two types of affixes: derivational and inflectional. The derivational affixes also include suffixes and prefixes. Most of the derivational suffixes and a few prefixes can change the part of speech of the word. For example: they are added to (sad (adjective) / sadness (noun)). Then, it can be said that most of the affixes, especially prefixes, can change the meaning of the word (happy / unhappy). The inflectional affixes are all suffixes, they include –er, -ing, -s (third person singular), -s (plural), -er (comparative), -est (superlative). Inflections suffixes do not alter the part of speech of the word and are added after a derivational suffix, but a derivational suffix alters the part of speech of the word or word group.

As it was said one of the essential strategies for learning vocabularies is using word parts or so called word formation strategy, this strategy can be beneficial to the students' vocabulary development by "knowing some common prefixes and suffixes (affixes), and root words can help students learn the meaning of many new words.

Al-Farsi (2008) declares that Affixes can appear in these forms:

- Prefixes (e.g. uni-): bound morphemes attached in front of a stem.
- Suffixes (e.g. –able): bound morpheme attached at the end of a stem.
- Infixes: bound morpheme attached in the middle of a stem (not in English)
- Circumfixes: bound morpheme attached simultaneously before and after the stem. (not in English)

According to Ebbers and Denton (2008), students can be taught to make inference by combining information gained from the surrounding context around the word names outside clues and the morphemes inside the word names inside clues. This is a good strategy called the outside-in strategy. Good teachers by keeping this key goal in mind, modeling the outside-in strategy frequently in order to help students become adept. They also use a think-aloud procedures to help enable transfer of knowledge of affixes and roots to all reading materials across the curriculum. Therefore, students memorize the meanings of key prefixes, suffixes and roots to learn new words better. Moreover, Nakayama (2008) examined whether teaching affixes knowledge intentionally leads to better vocabulary learning. His study focused on prefixes only and found that systematic teaching of prefix knowledge is effective for learners who do not have prefix knowledge at the beginning and in order to retain a vocabulary item in the longer term, a thorough review of each vocabulary item is more important.

There are many studies of English affixes because a large portion of the words coming from Latin or Greek make use of affixes so their studies have attempted to calculate the proportion of English words. And some of them study the effectiveness of affixes knowledge such as study by Sadeghi, Nasrollahi, Mazandarani, and Mesgar (2011) explored the positive effect of teaching vocabulary through word formation strategy on vocabulary learning of Iranian Intermediate EFL students. This study revealed some interesting facts. In brief this research showed that the students who received the special treatment with word formation strategy performed much better than the students who were instructed with conventional strategies in the posttest. Also in another study by Nation (1990) investigated the role of using affix knowledge in vocabulary learning of advanced learners concerning unfamiliar words by relating them to known words or known prefixes and suffixes. Also in another study, He states that if learners have special purposes for learning English, it is worth investigating to recognize if there are affixes and stems in their areas of specialization which are important. Students of medicine, botany and zoology, for example, will find that there are affixes and stems like: *haemo-* and *photo-* that make access to many technical words in their fields.

Therefore, one of the factors may have been the novelty of this study by those intermediate learners is the fact that they needed more opportunity to focus more on the number of affixes and affixation instruction. Although teachers pay attention to this issue, it is less than it should been. There is no doubt that affixation instruction can be a great help for learners in improving the proficiency level in English courses.

RESEARCH QUESTION
Is there a significant difference in the vocabulary performance of Iranian intermediate EFL learners in terms of the number of affixes?

Research null hypothesis
There is no significant difference in the vocabulary performance of Iranian intermediate EFL learners in terms of the number of affixes.

METHODOLOGY
Participants
In the present study, a sample of 43 Iranian EFL students (both male and female) with ages among 18-23 were chosen randomly among English students in Qazvin universities. They were at the intermediate level and were chosen from B.A. students. The initial number of participants was 43 then reduced to 40 because 3 of them did not complete the questionnaires. After the administration of KET (Key English Test) proficiency test for intermediate students 40 students whose scores were between one standard deviation below and above the mean were remained as the participants of this study.

Instruments
The current study employed two tests. One of the tests was a proficiency test and the other was a vocabulary recognition test for intermediate level.

KET test of English language proficiency
First, to homogenize the participants, a general proficiency test (KET or Key English test) was administered at the outset of the study. Ket certificate is valid for life and widely recognized at the international level. It is an elementary level qualification that covers basic practical English, such as understanding simple questions, instructions and phrases and includes 30 items in multi-choice test requiring completion of a sentence. The participants who scored between -1 st and +1st were included in the study. (See Appendix A)

A vocabulary recognition test for intermediate level
A multiple - choice of intermediate test was administered to the participants as a criterion to assess the outcome of the participants. It consisted of 51 questions inducing 17 vocabulary items from roots, 17 vocabulary items from single affixes, and 17 vocabulary items from double affixes. These questions have undergone several major revisions and changes by assistant professors in this major. They were chosen mostly from the English book of pre-university and some of them are chosen from intermediate level of Internet Lanquiz site. (See Appendix B)

Procedures
Data collection was done in one ninety minute session to achieve the purpose of the study, so the following procedures were followed. Initially, to homogenize the participants, a multiple-choice KET proficiency test was administered to the participants. It consisted of 30 vocabulary items requiring selection of a synonym or completion of a sentence. The analysis of the scores indicated that 3 of the participants were excluded because they did not respond to the tests.

The vocabulary comprehension subtests for intermediate students were used to measure the vocabulary knowledge of the participants. . All required information was given to the participants before administering the instruments, information like how to answer the tests. Each subtest contained 51 items, 17 question from root words, 17 question from single affix in multiple-choice format were be used. At the end, the tests were analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 16. Descriptive statistic was used to show the means and standard deviations, moreover repeated measurements ANOVA was used to identify learners' performance and to stimulate them with interaction of their proficiency level to measure that whether or not the proficiency variable impacts on their performance on vocabulary recognition. Each learner was required to complete the questions by answering the multi-choice tests.

Data Analysis　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　To analyze, the
data obtained through using One-way repeated measurement ANOVA to compare the results of the three factors (root words, single affixes, and double affixes) and its interaction with proficiency test.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
The results showed that EFL intermediate students in Qazvin Province performed weak in their tests. It can be concluded that use of various vocabulary learning strategies particularly word-formation strategy was not very common among the students. To determine to what extent the learners perform better the tests and answer the research question , the mean scores and standard deviation were calculated (Table 1)

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics for the ANOVA on Intermediate vocabulary performance

Descriptive Statistics				
	proficiency	Mean	Std. Deviation	N

root	intermediate	10.4750	2.94381	40
single affix	intermediate	9.6250	3.20806	40
Double affix	intermediate	7.6250	3.49863	40

Table 1, indicates that the highest mean on the vocabulary test belongs to the root words followed by the single affixes words. The double affixes words have the lowest mean. The graphical representation of the results (Graph 1) shows the differences among the number of affixes more conspicuously.
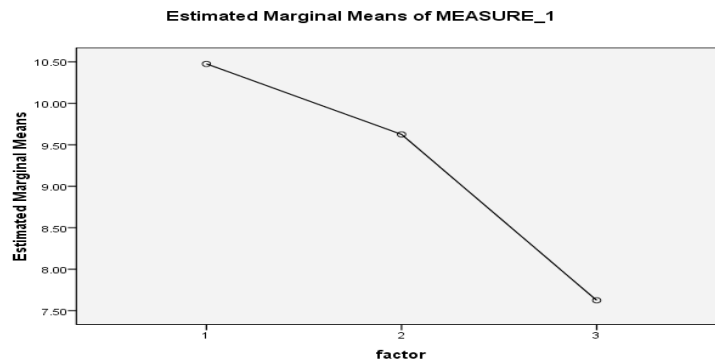
Graph 1: Performance of the participants regarding different numbers of affixes

In order to see whether or not the differences among the numbers of affixes are statistically significant, the one way Repeated Measures ANOVA procedure was run. The results are given in Table 2.

Table 2: The results of the one way Repeated Measures ANOVA

Source		Type II Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
factor	Sphericity Assumed	171.267	2	85.633	22.869	.000	.370
	Greenhouse-Geisser	171.267	1.463	117.068	22.869	.000	.370
	Huynh-Feldt	171.267	1.506	113.747	22.869	.000	.370
	Lower-bound	171.267	1.000	171.267	22.869	.000	.370

Based on Table 2, since the F-value is statistically significant (F= 85.633, $p < .05$), we can safely claim that there are significant differences among the effects of different aspects of vocabulary learning. Thus, the first null hypothesis is rejected. Partial Eta Squared shows that 37 percent of the total variance in the dependent variable is accounted for by the independent variable ($p\eta^2 = .41$).

Discussion
The present study attempted to investigate the effect of the number of affixes on intermediate EFL learners' vocabulary learning, including root, single affix, and double affixes in EFL learners' vocabulary learning. The findings showed that there were significant differences among the above-mentioned number of affixes of word knowledge during EFL learners' vocabulary learning and it has positive effects on vocabulary learning. In other words, by learning words with different number of affixes, learners can perform better in vocabulary learning while it can be seen that when learners are at the intermediate level, their proficiency for learning words with single and double affixes are very low from root words so they answer root words better in their tests.

The results were the same as the research done by Sahbazian (2004). She explored vocabulary learning strategies of 934 Turkish EFL undergraduate students through interview and questionnaire; students were studying at different universities in Istanbul. According to him, vocabulary learning for most Turkish learners followed more traditional rote memorization pattern that involved many mnemonic techniques.

The results of the current study were congruent with the results of Sarani and Kafipour (2008). According to their results, medium use of strategies by Iranian students was due to their slight awareness of the vocabulary learning strategies.

There is no study based on the effect of the number of affixes on vocabulary learning, but lots of studies have been carried out on the impact of affixation on vocabulary, like studies of Graves and Hammond's (1980), who reported that learning prefixes are very good because there are few prefixes with constant meaning, spelling and they are used in a large number of words. Likewise, Nation (1990), Bauer and Nation (1993), who believe that one of the most popular strategies supported by many researchers is using affix knowledge. Furthermore, Nourie and Davidson (1992), who found that in addition to contextualization, or indirect instruction, another powerful vocabulary teaching and learning method is structural analysis of word parts.

The findings of the present study are also in accordance with the findings of Schmitt and McCarthy (1997), who reported that using word parts can be very useful in teaching ESL learners how to attack new words constructing solid vocabulary. Armbruster, et al. (2001) hold that knowing some common affixes (prefixes and suffixes), root words, and base words can increase students' power to learn the meanings of many new words. The sense of curiosity toward the word parts and segments is very important. This finding also supports Lauffer's (2005) finding that focus on form of the vocabulary is an effective and essential component of instruction in vocabulary learning.
The results of the present study are in line with those of Nakayama (2008), who reported that systematic teaching of prefix knowledge is effective for learners who do not have prefix knowledge at the beginning. Moreover, this finding is similar to the finding of Davoudi and Yousefi (2009), who reported that fundamental elements of vocabulary are suffixes, prefixes, and roots of words which are common to many English words. Suffixes and prefixes cannot stand on their own as words.

The results are also in line with those of Sadeghi, et al. (2011), who found that the word formation strategy on vocabulary learning of Iranian Intermediate EFL students has positive effect. Hence, the students who received the special treatment with word formation strategy performed much better than the students who were instructed with conventional strategies.

Tahlah and Karavi (2012) investigated the learners' background knowledge of English vocabulary with affixes, effectiveness of explicit instruction on the use of affixation in vocabulary learning and also the learners' satisfaction of explicit affixation instruction with students of the two groups: control and experimental group. The findings show that the learners' background knowledge of English vocabulary with affixes in both groups was at low level and was not significantly different; the explicit affixation instruction could enhance the learners' knowledge of English vocabulary and the learners' overall satisfaction of the explicit affixation instruction was at the high level. This study indicates that the explicit affixation instruction not only can help students improve their English vocabulary learning, but it also enhances learners' satisfaction on English vocabulary development.

On the other hand, the findings of the present study are in contrast to those of Su (2005), who found that intermediate students used more learning strategies than other proficiency level students. One of the reasons may be participants' level of language proficiency. Another reason could be attributed to the participants' background knowledge.

CONCLUSION AND FURTHER RESEARCH
The learning of English vocabulary is the basis of language learning, just as the root for an edifice. And affixation provides us with a good perspective to enlarge vocabulary. Hence, mastering the formation rules of affixation is indispensable to enlarge vocabulary easily, productively and effectively, and also learners are not supposed to learn English words only by rote but sum up some learning skills. Then, affixation is such a useful way.

As the results reveal, the level of students has a significant effect on students' performance. Intermediate students are not more aware with single affix and double affixes, their performance are weak and the more the number of affixes the less learners are successful. Thus, tentatively it can be said that the explicit instruction of affixation in terms of the number of affixes can be regarded as an effective method for students who are lack of English vocabulary knowledge. It is an appropriate method helps learners improve their English vocabulary development.

For those who are interested in conducting research in this area, the following areas are suggested:

This study was conducted on the effect of affixation in terms of their numbers on vocabulary learning, so further research can be conducted on the effect of other variables on vocabulary learning. In addition, the impact of using the effect of number of affixation instruction by applying word games can be another area of research. Further investigation may look into the effect of affixation on other language skills such as writing, speaking, or listening; these can be subjects for future studies. Moreover, as Bauer and Nation (1993) suggest, the knowledge of root forms has a possibility of affecting the results of this study. Thus, further studies are required to clarify the effect of root form knowledge on systematic learning affixes. Last but not least, this study can be conducted to explore the effects of the number of affixes on active or passive vocabulary performance of EFL learners.

Limitations of the study
This research, like the majority of educational studies, suffers from certain limitations which have to be taken into consideration:

1. This study focused on vocabulary knowledge and other language skills and other components (speaking, writing, etc.) were not of concern here.
2. Aspects such as participants' interests, language background and some other factors influence the findings of the study and caution should be taken into consideration in generalizing the results.
3. The number of words selected to be worked on was limited because of practicality deliberations. So, care must be exercised in generalizing the finding beyond their proper limits.

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CAN HYPERMEDIA IMPROVE EFL LEARNERS' LISTENING SKILL?

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ABSTRACT
The purpose of this study was to explore the effect of using educational software on English as a foreign language student's listening skill. A total of thirty two students from two classes sharing a similar social and educational background determined by a background questionnaire and a language proficiency test participated in the study. Then sixteen learners in each class at the pre-intermediate level of proficiency were randomly assigned into either experimental or control group. Next, the two classes were administered a listening test. For a period of six weeks in twelve sessions the educational software, Rosetta Stone was offered to the experimental group. After twelve sessions both groups were reexamined through a listening test to investigate the effect of software on users' functions and its effect on the listening ability of the participants in the experimental group. The findings displayed a significant increase in the learning outcomes of experimental group from pretest to posttest in which their scores were significantly higher than those of the control group. Moreover, the participants in the experimental group perceived using hypermedia as an effective way for language learning, especially listening comprehension.

KEYWORDS: Rosetta Stone; hypermedia; listening skill; EFL learners

INTRODUCTION
The listening skill plays a significant role in communication and in language learning. So, the listening skill is the basis for understanding and development of other language skills, and it should be taken into account by all teachers (Rubin, 1994). Most of the methods for many years did not consider the receptive skills as important as productive skills. Being of secondary importance, it was thought that students would acquire them through exposure, so there is no need for being thought (Richards & Renandya, 2002). However, being widely accepted as an important skill, comprehension (input) should be prior to production (output). In other words, comprehension is much more important than production without which communication would be hindered (Krashen & Terrell, 1983).

On the other hand, language teaching has changed in recent years. The use of multimedia plays a major role in teaching. Today, second language (L2) multimedia packages developed by researchers (e.g., Larson & Bush, 1992; Otto & Pusack, 1992) enhance students' listening comprehension with various activities and learning aids. Researchers (e.g., Joiner, 1997; Lynch, 1998; Mendelsohn, 1998) emphasized the development of studies in L2 listening comprehension and an increase in the study of technology to better understand how to utilize the multimedia to enhance various aspects of language learning including listening comprehension (e.g., Hoven, 1999; Lynch, 1998; Salaberry, 2001). Hence, the multimedia software can be included into the foreign language classroom to develop the listening skills.

During the past decades the development of computer science has brought many changes in the ways of giving language instructions. As an example, CALL or computer assisted learning was introduced during 1960s as the project of PLATO at the University of Illinois (Marty, 1981). Furthermore, with the invention of microcomputers in 1970s using and developing different kinds of software for instructional purposes expanded. Consequently, the distinction was made between computer courses, learning programs, computer games, software for teaching and learning that are the main techniques of computer-based materials, and distance courses and online teachings which are categorized in web-based materials (Serdiukov, 2001).

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Throughout the recent decades, along with CALL, a new type of material is used for the instructional purposes. As an extension of hypertext, hypermedia was introduced as a new kind of pedagogical material. The terms hypermedia and multimedia are being used interchangeably and sometimes confusing. There are different definitions for hypermedia. As an example, Gayeski (1993) defined hypermedia as "... a classification of software programs which consists of networks of related texts, graphics, audio files, and/or video clips through which users navigate using icons or search strategies" (p. 5). Schwier and Misanchuk (1993) gave another definition of hypermedia "... an instructional program which includes a variety of integrated sources in the instruction and the program is intentionally designed in segments, and viewer responses to structured opportunities influence the sequence, size, content, and shape of the program" (p. 324).

Recent second language acquisition studies showed that learners need to notice and attend particular linguistic features for acquisition (Schmidt, 1990). Skehan (1989) suggested that the teacher chooses tasks that will offer learners an opportunity to work with a range of target structures appropriate to their level. So, by the hypermedia-based listening instructions the willingness and motivation of the students may be increased and it can have a positive effect on their acquisition.

A lot of studies have been conducted to find the advantages and disadvantages of media in education from the 1920s through the 1960s. Yet, during this period many researchers found problems in the nature of media comparison studies. Richard Clark (1983) evoked considerable controversy in the field of educational technology with the publication of his article, "Reconsidering Research on Learning from Media," in the Review of Educational Research. Clark (1983) asserted that we cannot gain any learning benefits by employing specific medium to deliver instruction. According to him, the method or content that is introduced along with the medium is more important than the favor of one medium over another one. Finally, he concluded that "... media do not influence learning under any conditions" (p. 445).

Kozma (1994) analyzed the results of two significant and effective instructional environments (i.e., Thinker Tools, and The Jasper Woodbury Series) to identify causal mechanisms by which media may have influenced learning. He argued that Clark's separation of media and method creates an unnecessary and undesirable schism. Media and method should have a more integral relationship in which both are parts of the instructional design.

Hypermedia has become "... the hottest thing to happen to education since the arrival of the microcomputer" (Moore, 1994, p. 5). Researchers and educators have noted the potential of hypermedia in education. Trotter (1989), for example, stated that hypermedia employs a strategy that is advantageous to students because not only the learner is responsible but also can use a variety of media to approach the subject. Moore (1994) also stipulated the advantages of using hypermedia, and the increase of the learner's control over the subject matter.

Hypermedia has become an essential recent form of computer-based instruction (CBI), which has been widely used in learning environment. Hypermedia is formed by two different fields of which one of them is multimedia and another one is hypertext (Burton, et al., 1995). So the understanding of the meaning of hypermedia may sometimes be confusing. For example, Gayeski (1993) defined hypermedia as "... a classification of software programs which consist of networks of related text, graphics, audio files, and/or video clips through which users navigate using icons or search strategies" (p. 5).

Cliff Liao (1999) worked on the concept of taking advantage of hypermedia in language courses. Based on his findings, he suggested that the use of hypermedia is more beneficial when there is no instruction for comparison group at all or when comparison group used videotape as instruction. Specifically, he argued that the results of using hypermedia over non-hypermedia instructions like CAI, text, traditional, videotape instruction are mixed and "depends on what type of instruction it compares to".

Garza (1991) yet worked on another concept that whether the use of multimedia could help language learning. Specifically that research concentrated on the captioned videotapes that provided the video with the subtitles of the conversations within it. The concluded results suggested that the benefit of using multimedia depends on many aspects. The suggestion that was specifically noted in the research argued that the positive effect of multimedia on students' achievements only could be highlighted in the small to medium size groups and there were no signs of instructional improvements for the larger groups. Today, the computer-based instruction can be assumed as an effective tool for teaching of language courses. According to the study conducted by Harris and Grandgenett (1993), computers were effectively used in helping foreign as well as native language skills in which listening comprehension was included. Therefore, the present research seeks to examine the use of Rosetta Stone software

focusing on listening comprehension as a skill most emphasized in the English language curriculum in an EFL context like Iran.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS
Does using hypermedia enhance listening ability of Iranian pre-intermediate students?
What are Iranian pre-intermediate learners' perceptions of using hypermedia for improving listening comrpehension?

METHODOLOGY
Participants
For the purpose of conducting this research, thirty two students from two classes were randomly divided into two groups, namely as the experimental group and control group (each 16). All of the participants were studying English at Novin language institute in Gorgan, Iran. They were at pre-intermediate level determined by a proficiency test, with the average age of 13 years old. They were both males and females. Furthermore, their mother tongue was Persian.

Instrumentation
Background Questionnaire
In order to elicit subjective information of participants, a background questionnaire was developed by the researchers. It covered issues such as the participants' age, gender, and first language status.

Proficiency Test
In order to be assured of the homogeneity of the control and experimental groups in terms of English language proficiency, a test of NELSON, series 400B, was given to the students. It included grammar and structure as well as reading comprehension section so that students can be scaled in a continuum, arranged by their proficiency level. It proved to have a reliability of 0.78. It consisted of 40 multiple-choice items. The time allotted was 40 minutes.

Listening Test
The other test that was used in the process of the research was the listening test. The participants in both experimental and control groups took a pre and posttest listening test which consisted of thirty items. The participants finished the test in 35 minutes. The test proved to have a reliability of 0.82.

Questionnaire
In this study, the survey questionnaire consisted of open-ended survey questions to investigate the participant's perception of the usefulness of hypermedia on listening comprehension while using Rosetta Stone software. The two open-ended survey questions were administered to students asking them to briefly write about what they personally felt and thought about the question items. The questionnaire was written both in English and Persian and the students were permitted to write the statements in either language.

Rosetta Stone Software
The hypermedia software used in this research was Rosetta Stone, which is one of the most popular computer-based instructional software. It has the characteristic of having an interactive interface which benefits the students by allowing them to get extra information about the subject or the unknown word simply by clicking it. Another feature of this software is the capability of being easily adapted to the needs of the user. Therefore, it can be used particularly to bolster the listening skill. It also uses the immersion technique that does not allow using any soret of translation in any level of the teaching. Moreover, the lessons that are presented in the Rosetta Stone are divided into five parts. This feature helped the students find the exact level of the lesson based on their capabilities.

Treatment
In order to carry out the research, the students were required to practice English with the help of the software in the classroom and their homes. Their practice sessions were about 45 minutes in the classroom and half an hour each day at home. The treatment lasted six weeks in 12 sessions. They were asked not to use the dictionary but the interface of the hypermedia that gives the extra needed information. They could access the information simply by clicking the words or paying attention to the pictures that help the students get the context.

Procedure

In the first step, students were administered the background questionnaire as well as the proficiency test in order to determine their overall level of English proficiency. Both groups in the present study were at pre-intermediate level determined by the proficiency test that corresponded to the level three of the software. In the next step their listening proficiency was evaluated in order to determine their listening proficiency before practicing with the hypermedia. After the listening proficiency test they were required to work with the software half an hour every day. In the final step their listening proficiency level was evaluated again in order to determine the effect of working with the hypermedia.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Having collected the data through the tests, the researcher applied the t-test formula to measure the differences, if any, between the experimental group and the control group. It is important to note that the researcher employed all the formulas with the level of significance set at 0.05 in all their applications. Table 1 illustrates the results of the independent samples t-test in the pretest.

Table 1: Results of Comparison between Control and Experimental Groups in Pretest

Groups	N	Mean	SD	Sig
Experimental	16	6.6250	2.96367	0.287
Control	16	5.4375	3.22426	

As revealed in Table 1, the computed significance is equal to 0.493 which is bigger than the significance level set for the study (0.05). This indicates that there was no statistically significant difference between the two groups in the pretest.

Table 2: Results of Comparison between Control and Experimental Groups in Posttest

Groups	N	Mean	SD	Sig
Experimental	16	19.8750	2.96367	0.000
Control	16	13.3125	1.53704	

As represented in Table 2, the computed significance equals 0.000 which is smaller than the significance level set for the study (0.05). This substantiates the fact that there was a statistically significant difference between the experimental group and the control group in the posttest confirming the effect of hypermedia on improving the learners' listening ability.

With regard to the open-ended survey questions, the sixteen students in the experimental group were asked to assess their perceptions of hypermedia activities treated in the experimental group. Item1 "I would like my teacher to use hypermedia activities. Do you agree or disagree with the statements? Please briefly describe why you agree or not." Item 2 "Do you have any suggestions about how you would like to learn English and improve listening comprehension?" These open-ended questions were intended to investigate students' perceptions about hypermedia activities and to elicit their free views and suggestions of improving listening comprehension through the statements.

Discussion

The participants in the experimental group performed significantly better than the ones in the control group who did not use the Rosetta Stone software. When Rosetta Stone software was introduced to the students in experimental group, it was noticed that the students were encouraged as they were actively involved in the listening activities. There are further confirmations for the results of the previous studies which concluded that the use of software, in particular, have significant effects on listening comprehension. According to FayzaSaleh AL-Hammadi (2011), the students' comprehension of the communicative function of the message can be developed by the listening software. He also claimed that not only the learners can be trained to focus on the whole message but also on the separate parts. In addition, the activities used by the researcher in the suggested listening software helped the experimental group develop their listening comprehension. Furthermore, FayzaSaleh AL-Hammadi (2011) mentioned that the limited number of skills can be focused by the software, so the students benefit sufficient time for practicing these skills.

This paper indicated the improvement in the performance of the experimental group in the post-test, so the effectiveness of Rosetta Stone software in developing listening skills of the pre-intermediate students has been proved. The results of this research are in accordance with some previous studies (e.g., Brett, 1997; Nielsen, 2003; Wong, 2005) which asserted that listening skills in computer multimedia environment reveal more effective comprehension compared to traditional methods of improving listening.

Moreover, the finding of the present study is in line with the one by Yuen-Kuang Cliff Liao (1999) who argued that the positive effects of hypermedia instruction are more than non-hypermedia instruction. He also reported that different subjects benefitted various effects from using hypermedia. In addition, he pointed out that only twenty eight percent of the studies associated with teaching of language, reading and writing related to the effects of hypermedia, and thirty seven of the studies were related to teaching of science or medicine. Howard-Jones and Martin's (2002) study on pre-service teachers using hypermedia on cutting and joining materials indicated that teachers who scored lower on the pretest scored higher on the posttest. Therefore, the low prior knowledge teachers learned more from the treatments. However, the techniques and activities used by the researchers in the proposed listening software helped the experimental group develop their listening comprehension.

CONCLUSION
The results from this study suggest that the effects of using hypermedia in instruction are positive over no hypermedia instruction as a whole in which the experimental group' performance in the post-test was significantly better than the control group after the practice session with the software. So, it can be concluded that the software proved to be effective in developing some listening skills among pre-intermediate students in the experimental group. Using software also helped the students concentrate more on the input, and consequently it resulted in better listening performance. This paper indicated that the improvement of skills through the authentic material and varied tasks such as hypermedia raised the learner's interest in the experimental group. Hypermedia is assumed as a valuable tool for teachers and students because they can practice a particular skill as an activity in class, or out of a classroom.

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INVESTIGATING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND LANGUAGE ACHIEVEMENT: A CASE OF TEFL AND NON-TEFL UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT
The increasing number of recent researches shows that emotional intelligence is important as well as other intelligences in many aspects of people's lives. Although it is not vastly used or studied, it can be found in language teaching and learning. This study was an investigation to detect the relationship between English as a foreign language students' emotional intelligence and their language achievement at university level. To do this, 115 undergraduate EFL and Non-EFL university students from freshman to senior ones from Hamedan and Kermanshah Islamic Azad University, Iran, took part in this study. For the purpose of data collection, the researchers administered Proficiency test and Bar-On's (1997) emotional intelligence inventory. Eighty-six participants were considered homogeneous to start the research. To analyze data, Pearson correlation coefficient was used. The findings of the present study revealed that there was a significant relationship between the students' emotional intelligence and their language achievement. Girls were found to have higher EQ level than boys in this particular study. The findings of this study may serve as recommendations to instructors to modify methods which can be appropriate for students and their emotional intelligence level and also might help them select appropriate teaching materials for students with different abilities.

KEYWORDS: Bar-on emotional inventory; emotional intelligence; language achievement; proficiency test

INTRODUCTION
It might not the smartest people who are the most successful or the most fulfilled in life. We probably know people who are academically brilliant and yet are socially unsuccessful at work or in their personal relationships. Intellectual intelligence or IQ isn't enough on its own to be successful in life. IQ can help us get into college but it's EQ that will help us manage the stress and emotions of sitting in your final exams.

Emotional intelligence is a combination of the term emotion and intelligence. Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2000b) said that emotions are one of the three fundamental classes of mental operations which consist of motivation, emotion and cognition. A person in good mood thinks positively and s/he is productive and vice versa. Therefore, EQ means that emotion and intelligence are related to each other.

Emotional intelligence is a part of big group called multiple intelligences (MI). MI is based on the work of Howard Gardner of the Harvard Graduate School of Education (Gardner, 1993). Gardner claimed that old IQ tests only measure language and logic not other skills, as we know our brain has other brilliant kinds of intelligence too (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Gardner discussed that human beings have these intelligences but they are differ in strengths and combinations of intelligences. He said all of them can be reach by training and practice. Intelligence can be enhanced by environments and experiences; it's an innate capacity of individual. Emotional intelligence is not a new issue. It's based on a history of theory in personality and social psychology (Aki, 2006). Having EI means to be intelligent because when a person understands his own emotions in making decisions, so this can influence academic achievement (ShojaHeidari, 2009).

93

A person with high IQ but low EQ represents a wise person who is strong in intelligence but weak in his personal life. EQ can also improve motivational beliefs by improving problem solving abilities, tolerating psychological pressure, self-actualization and self-esteem. Improving motivational beliefs have positive effect on academic performance (ShojaHeidari, 2009).

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE
Emotional Intelligence Theory
Emotional intelligence theory was first developed by the writings of great psychologists such as Howard Gardner, Peter Salovey, and John Mayer during 1970s and 80s (Lall, 2009). The history of emotional intelligence began with the meaning of social intelligence. In 1920s, Thorndike observed EI through social intelligence, he wrote social intelligence is being able to sympathy with others and behave wisely in human relationships (Goleman, 1998). Unfortunately his believes weren't acceptable at that time.

In the mid years of the 1980s Thorndike's view was born again in Howard Gardner's works (Goleman, 1998). Gardner (1983) introduced eight different kinds of intelligence in his works, namely Linguistic/ Verbal Intelligence, Logical/ Mathematical Intelligence, Musical/ Rhythmic Intelligence, Kinesthetic/ Bodily Intelligence, Spatial/ Visual Intelligence, Naturalistic Intelligence, Interpersonal and Intrapersonal Intelligence. One of these intelligences was personal intelligence (inter and intra) which later developed as emotional intelligence. At last, in 1990 two psychologists, Mayer and Salovey, based on Gardner's view, developed and introduced the complete model of emotional intelligence (Bar-On, 1997).

Relationship between Emotional İntelligence and Language Learning
Students who have higher IQ scores considered more intelligent, but recently studies showed that EQ can be more powerful than IQ (Hasanzadeh & Shahmohamadi, 2011). The effect of emotions on learning can be eather positive or negetive. But the effect of emotional intelligence on learning experience is positive and it can promote good study behaviour (Sucaromana, 2012). Researches proved that students who are independent and able to express themselves, and like to learn new language are more successful (Hasanzadeh & Shahmohamadi, 2011). Students and teachers at school with high EQ have better proficiency in standardized tests and have good atmosphere in the classroom which makes it easier to learn (Holt & Jones, 2005). Children should be educated with emotional intelligence skills in order to reduce anxiety and temperamental problems and increase their functions (ShojaHeidari, 2009). Learning a language is more pertinent to emotional intelligence than other subjects like math (Alavinia & Mollahossein, 2012).

Significance in Language Learning
People with high Emotional intelligence can be successful even with no high academic degrees (ShojaHeidari, 2009). The importance of EI is often denied, but EFL students need it between their teachers and themselves in classrooms or personal situations (Sucaromana, 2012).
Students with high EI can benefit a lot because it creates study atmosphere and English achievement (Sucaromana, 2012). Students should learn to recognize their emotions and to search help from adults to understand them. EI can be more powerful than IQ in predicting success in life challenges (Goleman, 1995).

Emotional intelligence is an important link to connect organizational instruments and human needs. Emotional intelligence and age have significant relationship. It gradually grows by gaining more experience (Hasanzadeh & Shahmohamadi, 2011).

Background and Previous Studies
The history of EI originated from the concept of social intelligence which is the ability to empathize with others and behave correctly in social relationships (Zarafshan & Ardeshiri, 2012). The word "intelligence" did not appear in books before the twentieth century. In the past, individual differences like EI was ignored to have a role in teaching and learning a language but studies revealed that beside IQ's role EI may have a role in this system too (Alavinia & Mollahossein, 2012).

Leading researchers on emotional intelligence Salovey and Mayer (1990) in their *Emotional Intelligence* article claimed that emotional intelligence is the subset of social intelligence that monitors a person's own emotions and even others' emotions and feelings and discriminate among people. Previous studies indicates that people with higher EI are more successful in social competent, relationships, and they are more interpersonally sensitive than people with lower EI (Lopes, Salovey, & Straus, 2003).

Pishghadam and Moafian (2008) studied on the role of EI on teachers success in language teaching at high schools. 93 English teachers were selected from different high schools in Mahshad, Iran. The findings indicate that there wasn't any significance relationship between emotional intelligence and teachers' success in language teaching.

To determine the relationship between emotional intelligence and language proficiency and the effect of gender on language proficiency, Razmjoo (2008) researched on 278 PhD candidates at Shiraz University. EQ questionnaire and a 100-item Proficiency test were distributed among participants. The findings indicate that there was no significant relationship between participants' language proficiency and their combination of intelligences. Also, the results revealed that there was no difference between male and female participants and between their emotional intelligences and language proficiency.

Moreover, Pishghadam (2007) studied the relationship between 528 Iranian university students' emotional intelligence and their language achievement in Tehran. At the end students' emotional intelligence scores were correlated with their Grade Point Average (GPA), and with their scores at listening, speaking, reading and writing. The results showed that students' language achievement is correlated with stress management and EQ level.

Similarly, Aghasafari (2006), worked on the relationship between emotional intelligence and second language learning strategies among 100 sophomore Azad University students in Iran. The results proved that there was a relationship between emotional intelligence and language learning strategies. The results of these studies help us to understand the relation between EQ and second/foreign language achievement. However, in this study we're not talking about how to improve emotional intelligence. This research is an attempt to prove the relationship between EQ and students' achievement and also to fulfill the gap in this area.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM
Although many teachers might be aware of the importance of multiple intelligences on the one hand and emotional intelligence on the other hand in Iranian EFL contexts at university levels, a few of them try to increase this particular type of intelligence on the part of the students. The problem that gives rise to this study is a shortage of evidence about the relationship between ateacher with low level of EI can not expect to increase his/her students' emotional intelligence. Emotional intelligence of teachers should be promoted so students learn better (Sucaromana, 2012). Several research studies (e.g., Epstein, 1998; Nelson & Low, 2003) indicate that the focus of present educational system is on cognitive aspects not on emotional mind. Psychologists found factors which are good for human beings but they're seeking to find future harm to self and others by identifying harmful behaviours which effect person's decision (Tomczak, 2010).

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY
The purpose of this quantitative study was to investigate the relationship between emotional intelligence and students' academic achievement. Participants included 115 EFL and non-EFL students, out of which eighty-six were homogenized. The quantitative portion of this exploratory research was completed using a survey. Levels of students' emotional intelligence were explored through the use of a survey instrument created for this study. Finally the collected data were analyzed using frequencies, percentages, means and standard deviations.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS
With regards to what was said above, this study tries to find answers to the following questions:
RQ1. Is there any relationship between emotional intelligence and language achievement?
RQ2. Is there any difference between emotional intelligence of male and female learners?

METHODOLOGY
Participants
Two groups of people took part in this study: EFL university students and Non-EFL university students. Participants were 115 university students from Hamedan and Kermanshah IAU, Iran. After taking the proficiency test, a

95

homogeneous group of eighty-six was formed. Both males and females took part in this study. They ranged in age from 20 to 23.

TEFL University Students
Half of the pupils who were studied were majoring in TEFL. They were studying English at Hamedan and Kermanshah IAU, Iran.

Non-TEFL University Students
The rest of participants, took part in present study voluntarily, were not majoring in TEFL. They majored in Persian Literature, Geography, Physics, and Humanities. They studied English for a short period, about 4 months, which was in their academic schedule. Eighty percent of them served Persian as their mother language and 20% spoke Turkmen as mother language.

Instrumentations
The needed data were collected using two instruments. The first instrument employed in this study was Oxford Placement Test (OPT) to determine the level of language proficiency of the participants of the present study. It's a standard test and includes 60 questions which measures students' ability in cloze test, grammar and vocabulary. It has multiple choice items with standardized difficulty and participants should choose among items a), b), c) and d) the time allocated was 50 minutes.

The other instrument was Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-I), which is reliable. It was developed by Bar-On (1997) and was employed in this study. It consists of 33 positively or negatively-keyed items presented on a Likert Scale of five points. The participants were required to decide whether they 1) strongly disagree 2) disagree 3) neither disagree nor agree 4) agree 5) strongly agree with each statement. A value of 0 was assigned for those who did not answer any items. Higher scores indicate higher level of emotional intelligence (Bar-On, 1997).

Procedure
In a special date researchers gathered participants in one place and took the proficiency test. Participants had 60 minutes to select the correct answer. Researchers were controlling the process of testing and helping participants.

After setting a certain date for administration of the questionnaires, the researchers attended the classes to distribute the papers and give the instructions. All directions were given in English for EFL students and Persian for Non-EFL students. They were requested to ask questions if they faced any problems understanding the statements. To keep the participants' identity anonymous they were asked to not write their names on their papers. Some of the students were enthusiastic to know about the test's result. The questionnaires and the EQ answer sheets were collected at the end of the time.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
SPSS Version 18.0 was used to run descriptive and inferential statistics and perform reliability analyses of the EI questionnaire.

First of all, the EI questionnaire was analyzed for its reliability. As it can be seen in table 1 below, the Cronbach's Alpha reliability index is .82 which shows a strong reliability for this case with 86 participants.

Table 1: Reliability Statistics of the EI Questionnaire

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.819	.824	32

To address the first research question "Is there any relationship between emotional intelligence and language achievement", the following statistics were calculated. Table 2 below shows the number, mean and SD for EI questionnaire and language achievement scores.

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N

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EI Score	117.4054	13.83852	86
Language Achievement	14.8311	2.54181	86

Table 3 shows the result of the correlation test between the EI and language achievement of the participants. As it can be seen here, *r* = .778 and Sig= .003<.05. Therefore, it can be concluded that there's a meaningful relationship between EI and language achievement score of the participants.

Table 3: Results of the Correlation Test between EI and Language Achievement

		EI Score	Language Achievement
EI Score	Pearson Correlation	1	.778
	Sig. (2-tailed)		-.003
	N	86	86
Language Achievement	Pearson Correlation	.778	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	-.003	
	N	86	86

In order to find answer to the second research question "Is there any difference between emotional intelligence of male and female participants ", an independent t-test was run. Table 4 below shows the descriptive statistics for the male and female scores.

Table 4: Group Statistics for EI of Males and Females

	Male/Female	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
EI Score	Male	33	103.8788	16.00734	2.78652
	Female	53	121.4906	11.10721	1.52569

Table 5 shows the actual results of the independent t-test between male and female participants. As it can be seen t (84) = 4.99, Sig= .014<.05. Therefore, it can be concluded that there is a meaningful difference between male and female participants. Female participants were observed to be better regarding their EI level.

Table 5: Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means			
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
EIScore	Equal variances assumed	6.316	.211	4.996	84	.014	-14.61178
	Equal variances not assumed			4.599	51.229	.014	-14.61178

Discussion
The results described in the previous part show the positive relationship between emotional intelligence and students' academic language achievement. The studies empirically support the positive relationship between EI, on the one hand, academic status (Besharat, 2005; Stottlemayor, 2006), second language performance (Pishghadam, 2007), academic success (Bozorgmehr, 2008), reliability and validity of EQ-I (Dehshiri, 2005), and self-efficiency (Ghanizadeh & Moafian, 2009), on the other hand.

The results from previous studies supported that emotional intelligence is important for work settings (Carmeli, 2003), classrooms (Petrides et al., 2004) and contextual performance (Carmeli, 2003). Emotional intelligence also predicts positive outcomes in children (Eisenberge, 2000). Gardner (1993) said that to understand the complexity of language learning process completely, we should pay attention to internal mechanisms and social interpersonal interactions involved in this process. The surveys in the area of psychology support the positive relationship between EQ and second language performance. In this study emotional intelligence was partly learned, but we haven't worked on how to improve EQ in the EFL context.

Emotions can have positive or negative effect on learning but according to the results, the effect of emotional intelligence on learning experience is positive and it can be promote good behavior. Students who have high emotional intelligence can have a better performance because EI makes study atmosphere more ideal (Sucaromana, 2012). Not only for university students but also for school students and teachers emotional intelligence can be beneficial because creates better atmosphere to learn and as a result better proficiency in standardized tests (Holt & Jones, 2005). We can understand from the findings that older students who have much more experience in learning have higher emotional intelligence (Hasanzadeh & Shahmohamadi, 2011).

In the past individual differences like EI was ignored to have a role in teaching and learning a language but this research and other studies revealed that beside IQ's role EI may have a role in this system too (Alavinia & Mollahossein, 2012).

In the case of gender differences in relation to emotional intelligence, results of the current study indicated that girls had higher EQ level than boys (in this particular study). This supports the conclusion made by Mayer, et al. (2000b) that there was a significant relationship between gender and emotional intelligence. According to Mayer, et al. (2000a), women and men perform about the same on most intelligence-related mental tests, but there are some regular differences in the profiles of the two groups particularly their performance related to tasks. One of the reasons why girls show higher level of emotional intelligence compared to boys was due to the fact that girls receive more education of emotions from their parents than boys and because of that they have more EQ than boys (Schilling, 1996).

CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between emotional intelligence and language achievement of Iranian TEFL and non TEFL university students. The findings revealed that there is a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and students' language achievement, low, negative relationship between emotional intelligence and gender of students was another finding of the present study. According to the tables this study shed light on the fact that Iranian students have a stronger tendency to gain higher emotional intelligences, they try to show themselves perfect men who have control over their emotions. These students are such helpful people when they see other people are down they help them feel better.

In this case students know how to react with each other in emotional situations or help each other to express their emotions freely toward life and also feel better when they face obstacles and try to be more powerful in their daily life or when they're overcoming problems. The results show that there is a significant relationship between students' emotional intelligence and their language achievement, these findings means that if we improve students' emotional intelligences we can expect better results in final exams, on the other hand students' with higher emotional intelligences can be more successful in their academic proficiencies and their individual lives.

Finally, the instructors who have the greatest impact on the learning of students may find the findings of this study fruitful in their university classes. The findings of this study may serve as recommendations to instructors to modify methods which can be appropriate for students and their emotional intelligence level and also might help them to select appropriate teaching materials for students with different abilities. According to the above educators should be aware of their students' emotional intelligences because when a teacher has a picture of his/her students' strengths and weaknesses in different intelligences area, s/he can help them to figure out and develop their intellectual capabilities.

Suggestions for further research

During this study, the researchers figured out that some aspects of emotional intelligence are less studied and some questions are remained unanswered, which may lead to further researches in this field. These parts are:

       1- What's the relationship between emotional intelligence and students' age?

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2- What's the relationship between motivation and emotional intelligence?
3- The effect of emotional intelligence on students' motivations.
4- What's teachers' role in increasing students' emotional intelligence?
5- What's parents' role in increasing students' emotional intelligence?
6- How can society affect students' emotional intelligence?
7- What factors can improve students' language achievement?

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STRATEGIES IN SUBTITLING ENGLISH CARTOONS OR ANIMATIONS

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ABSTRACT
In this age of globalization, digitalization, and the dominance of media, audiovisual translation has an increasingly important role to play in communication across cultures and languages. Technological developments have made audiovisual translation the most dynamic field in translation studies. Based on Gottlieb's typology of subtitling strategies (1992), the major aim of this study was to explore the most commonly used strategy in subtitling children cartoons. To do this, six original children cartoons or animations were compared with their subtitled versions in Persian. This descriptive research was a qualitative attempt to describe and analyze the applied strategies. The research question aimed to explore the most prevalent strategy. According to the obtained results, 'Transfer Strategy' has been introduced as the most frequent strategy applied in the corpus of the research as well as each ST-TT pair. The present research has profound implications for enriching the studies done in the field of audiovisual translation in general and subtitling in particular. It can provide a source of information and inspiration for the researchers in the field and for the professional translators and subtitlers.

KEYWORDS: AAVE, AVT, Dubbing, children cartoons, Subtitling

INTRODUCTION
Contemporary mass communication has created a new cultural situation in which translation plays an essential role. Diaz Cintas (2009, p.6) believes that "it is evident that the way in which we interact has changed and is constantly changing still, the main move being that from the page to the screen as text carrier, and these changes in their turn create new communication needs". He also considers "Audiovisual translation" as a powerful activity, which is a significant form of intercultural communication. Delabastita (1990, p.97) assumes that "translation process in mass communication plays a very effective part in both the shaping of cultures and the relations between them".

Technological developments have made audiovisual translation the most dynamic field in translation studies. According to Lambert (1997), media translation has revealed how easy the shift is from oral into verbal discourse and vice versa. He states that movies can be 'translated' into written subtitles or rendered as dubbing or voice-over versions. Various new techniques of speech recognition make it possible to transfer speech from written into oral texts, or from oral into written formulation.

In addition, due to the interest of many people towards American and European films, there is a more demand for audiovisual translators. Diaz-Cintas (2008) refers to AVT as one of the fastest growing areas in the field of Translation Studies (TS), which in itself is experiencing an unprecedented surge in interest. Jorge Diaz Cintas (2003), in his informative survey, „Audiovisual translation in the third millennium?, refers to audiovisual translation as a highly visible area of translation, and reminds us of the need for university-level training instead of on-the-job learning, as well as of the need for more diverse and empirically-based research to replace speculative or prescriptive approaches. Diaz Cintas sees audiovisual translation as an increasingly important part of Translation Studies, itself a fast-evolving discipline.

Ballester (1995) (cited in Karamitroglou 2000, p.10) points out that "it is a well-known fact that audiovisual translation has always been considered inferior to (written) literary translation most probably because of the lack of cultural prestige in audiovisual mass-media, compared to canonized literature". "Audiovisual" has for a long time been limited to training and education, for methods using pictures and sounds. Its meaning has gradually changed, more and more often referring to cinema and TV screens. In fact, multimedia communication is ubiquitous in daily life (Gambier & Gottlieb 2001, p.xi).

Bartrina and Espasa (2005) suggest that the role of audiovisual translation in contemporary international communication invites translator trainers to contemplate the different possibilities available when training translators for the modern mass communication market. Chiaro (2009) has been roughly divided western Europe into two major

screen translation blocks: the UK, Benelux, Scandinavian countries, Greece and Portugal, which are mainly „subtitling nations? and central and southern European countries which are mainly „dubbing nations?.

Diaz-Cintas (2009, p.8) suggests that "films and other audiovisual productions now represent one of the primary means through which commonplaces, stereotypes and manipulated views about social categories (women, blacks, Arabs, homosexuals, religious minorities) are conveyed: dubbing, voiceover and subtitling enable such views to be made accessible to wider audiences unfamiliar with the language of the original production".

Subtitling
What is important at the beginning is giving the definition of subtitling, comparing this practice with some of the other translation modes traditionally applied in the AVT, such as dubbing. Subtitling is the most common form of audiovisual translation. Delabastita (1989) addresses the debate of whether film translation, or rather subtitling, can be regarded as translation proper. Technical constraints require such an amount of reduction that many consider "adaptation" to be a more suitable term.

According to Luyken et al. (1991, p. 31) "subtitling is the translation of the spoken (or written) source text of an audiovisual product, usually at the bottom of the screen". Gambier (1994) defines subtitling as transferring, language from longer units to shorter ones, from spoken language to written text, from one language to another, and interpretation of verbal speech combined with numerous other cultural and socio-syrnbolic signs or with other types of semiotic systems.

Translator's Strategies
According to Gottlieb (1992), the goal of adequacy- and even less equivalence is not always reached in any type of translation. To assess the quality of a specific subtitling, the rendering of each verbal film segment must be analyzed with regard to stylistic and semantic value. Based on his experience as a television subtitler, he has devised ten strategies which are used by subtitlers, including: 1) Expansion, 2) Paraphrase, 3) Transfer, 4) Imitation, 5) Transcription, 6) Dislocation, 7) Condensation, 8) Decimation, 9) Deletion, and 10) Resignation. He claims that these strategies can also be found in other type of translation. The following table is taken from Gottlieb's (1992, p.166) categories of subtitling. This table consists of different types of subtitling strategies with the characteristics of each one, as well as the media specific type:

Table 1: Gottlieb's Typology of subtitling strategy

Types of strategy	Character of translation	Media specific type
1) Extension	Expanded expression, adequate rendering (culture-specific references)	No
2) Paraphrase	Altered expression, adequate content (non-visualized language-specific items)	No
3) Transfer	Full expression, adequate rendering (slow, unmarked speech)	No
4) Imitation	Identical expression, equivalent rendering (proper nouns, international greetings etc.)	No
5) Transcription	Non standard expression, adequate rendering (D; intended speech defects)	Yes
6) Dislocation	Differing expression, adjusted content (musical or visualized language-specific item)	Yes
7) Condensation	Condensed expression, concise rendering (mid-tempo speech with some redundancy)	Yes
8) Decimation	Abridged expression, reduced content (fast speech, low redundancy speech)	Yes
9) Deletion	Omitted expression, no verbal content (fast speech with high redundancy)	Yes
10) Resignation	Deviant expression, distorted content (incomprehensible or 'untranslatable' speech)	No

According to this table proposed by Gottlieb (1992), types 1-7 provide correspondent translations of the segments involved. Type 7 is often seen as the prototype of subtitling, and many critics confuse quantitative reduction (of the number of words etc.) with semantic reduction. However, in a condensation - as opposed to decimation _ the subtitle does convey the meaning and most of the stylistic content of the original. Normally, the only loss implied in a condensation is the loss of redundant oral language features - especially when dealing with spontaneous speech, as found in interviews etc. Even with planned discourse (drama, news commentary etc.) much of the reduction necessitated by the formal constraints of subtitling is created automatically, due to the diagonal nature of this type of

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translation. In cases where semantic or stylistic content does suffer in the process of subtitling, we are dealing with types 8 and 9. These strategies represent drastic cuts in the original expression, but through positive feedback from the audiovisual tracks, the translated version as a whole will often manage in conveying the message. Unlike types 5-9, which are all supposedly more common in subtitling than in printed translation, resignation (type 10) occurs in all types of verbal transmissions. In subtitling, this abortive strategy is often found in situations where the translator finds himself unable to render tricky idioms and other culture/language-specific elements because of negative feedback from the non-verbal track.

Children cartoons

Children have become much more interested in cartoons over many years and it has become a primary action to some lives. Typically, children begin watching cartoons on television at an early age of six months, and by the age two or three children become enthusiastic viewers. This has become a problem because too many children are watching too much television and the shows that they are watching (even if they are cartoons) have become violent and addictive. The marketing of cartoons has become overpowering in the United States and so has the subliminal messaging. The marketing is targeted toward the children to cause them to want to view the cartoons on a regular basis, but the subliminal messaging is for the adults' to target them into enjoying the "cartoons". This is unfortunate because children watch the cartoons on the television and they see material that is not appropriate for their age group. The Children who watch too much cartoons on television are more likely to have mental and emotional problems, along with brain and eye injuries and unexpectedly the risk of a physical problem increases (Hossler, 2004).

RESEARCH QUESTION

The research sought to answer the following question:
1. Which subtitling strategies are the most commonly used for children cartoons or animations according to Gottlieb's typology of subtitling strategies?

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This study, which falls under the categories of subtitling strategies, follows Gottlieb's model. Gottlieb devised a set of strategies used by subtitlers (1992, p.166). These include: (1) Expansion, (2) Paraphrase, (3) Transfer, (4) Imitation, (5) Transcription, (6) Dislocation, (7) Condensation, (8) Decimation, (9) Deletion, and (10) Resignation.

METHODOLOGY

Materials

This research consisted of six children cartoons and their subtitled versions, all published from 1940 to 2013. In the following table, the information regarding the original children cartoons are provided. The data was retrieved from the internet Source http://www. Imdb.com/, Internet Movie Database (IMD).

Table 2: Elements of the Original English cartoons

No.	Original English cartoons(animations)	Director or Directors	Release Date	Running Time
1	Pinochio	Norman Ferguson, T. Hee	1940	88 min
2	Ice age	Carlos Saldanha, Chris Wedge	2002	81 min
3	The Croods	Kirk De Micco, Chris Sanders	2013	98 min
4	Despicable me	Pierre Coffin, Chris Renaud	2010	95 min
5	Epic	Chris Wedge	2013	102min
6	Finding Nemo	Andrew Stanton, Lee Unkrich	2003	100 min

The data is represented in Table 3, under the headings of the name of subtitling translator, and selected time as a sample.

Table 3: Elements of the Subtitled cartoons

No.	Cartoons(animations)	Subtitling translator	Running Time
1	پینوکیو	شراره شکوری	88 min

2	عصر یخبندان	رضا	81 min
3	عصر حجری	امیر	96 min
4	من شرور	امیر	95 min
5	حماسه	Hamed.Batlaghi	
6	پیداکردن نمو	william wallas	100 min

Data Collection
In the first stage, the researcher started with full watching the English and subtitled versions of cartoons. In the second stage, the English and Persian scripts of cartoons were downloaded from the internet sources http://subscene.com and http://www.opensubtitles.com. In the third stage of data collection procedure, the researcher viewed English, i.e. the original versions of the cartoons along with subtitled Persian versions of each. Then, English and Persian texts of the selected movies were compared and closely examined, in order to find the most commonly used strategies. Finally, the researcher transcribed all the instances in the six cartoons. It means that, she made the collected data ready for the next phase of the research, i.e. data analysis.

Samples
1. Expansion:
I made myself at home.
اونجا رو خونه خودم دونستم.
2. Paraphrase:
As dreamers do.
همانطور که رویابافی میکنی.
3. Transfer:
Fate is kind.
تقدیر مهربونه.
4. Imitation:
In the shop of a wood-carver named, uh, Geppetto.
در مغازه یک نجار به اسم ژپتو.
5. Transcription:
Pardon me. Wait 'til I fix this thing here. There.
پوزش میخوام. بزارید اینو درست کنم.حالا شد.
6. Condensation:
Fate steps in.
سرنوشت پله گناهه.
7. Decimation:
Of course, I'm just a cricket singing my way from hearth to hearth…
البته من فقط یه جیرجیرکم که تو مسافرتم آواز میخونم.
8. Deletion:
It was a shame <u>to see.</u>   باعث خجالت بود
9. Resignation:
Well, I did't either.
خب من همچنین.

DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION
In the process of tracking down the samples, the collected data was first sorted and organized in tables. These data involved instances of each cartoon. For this purpose, the researcher devised tables, consisting of the original and subtitled scripts and the type of strategy applied in subtitling that special discourse. In summarizing the results of the analysis of instances, the number of applied strategies was counted in all cartoons. Then, the frequency and the percentage of the different strategies used in subtitling that specific discourse was measured and were shown in tables as well as bar charts. Finally, tables were analyzed and their results were discussed.

Table 5: Subtitling Strategies of Instances of cartoons

Strategies	Fr.	%
1. Transfer	87	38.2
2. Paraphrase	42	18.4
3. Condensation	37	16.2
4. Expansion	25	11.0

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5. Resignation	14	6.1
6. Deletion	9	3.9
7. Imitation	6	2.6
8. Decimation	5	2.2
9. Transcription	3	1.3
Total	**228**	**100**

The above table represents strategies used in subtitling cartoons from the most commonly used strategies to less commonly used one. As the distribution of strategies shows, out of 228 data collected by the researcher from six original cartoons, eighty- seven instances refer to transfer strategy. Forty-two instances refer to paraphrase. Thirty-seven examples refer to condensation. Twenty-five examples refer to expansion. Fourteen examples refer to condensation. Deletion strategy involves nine. Imitation is six, Decimation is five and three instances refer to transcription. As a result Transfer has the highest frequency in all TV series and Transcription has the least.

Discussion
As the summary of the statistical findings in the above figure presents, it can be concluded that among the subtitling strategies proposed by Gottlieb (1992): 1) the strategy of transfer is the most frequent strategy with 39.2%; 2) transcription is the least common strategy with 1.2%; 3) dislocation is not used in subtitling cartoons these movies.
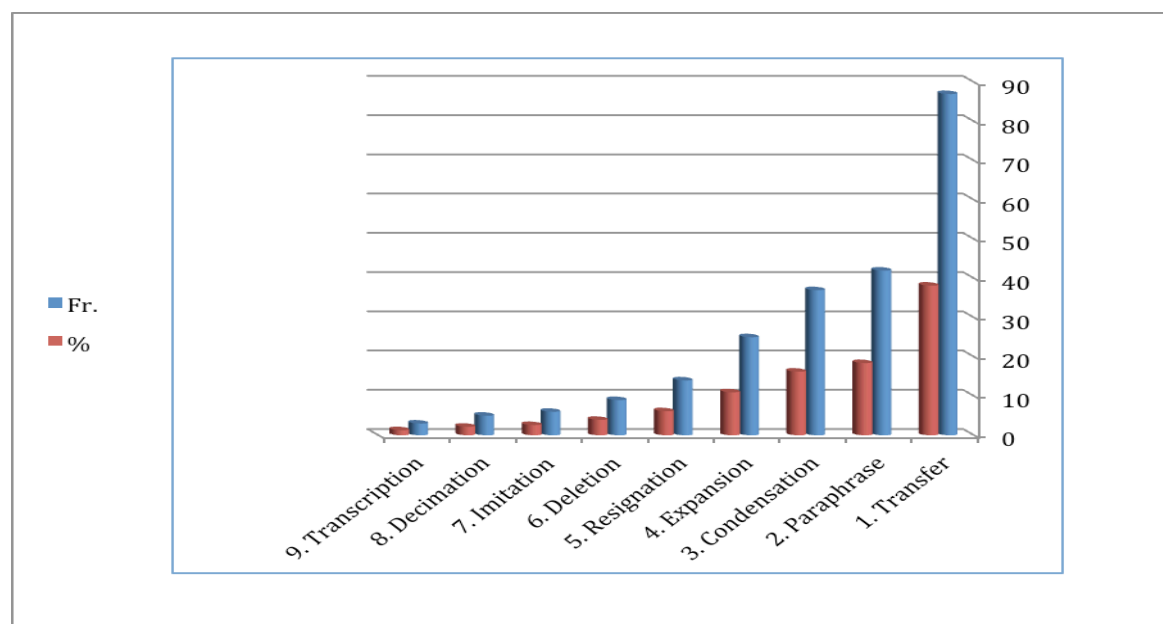
Figure1: Subtitling Strategies in All Cartoons

CONCLUSION
As the summary of the statistical findings in the above figure presents, it can be concluded that among the subtitling strategies proposed by Gottlieb (1992): 1) the strategy of transfer is the most frequent strategy with 38.2%; 2) transcription is the least common strategy with 1.3%; 3) dislocation is not used in subtitling these cartoons. As findings show, source variations are substantially replaced with similar target variations. Although the majority of source variations are rendered in subtitling, just in a few cases, source variations are flattened out in translation. In this process, the effect of the original work is somehow reduced. Also, the medium imposes serious constraints on full text translation. One major obstacle is the limitations of the screen space. Bearing in mind the difference between the speed of the spoken language and the speed in reading, a complete transcription of the film dialogue is not possible. Both the physical limitation of space on the screen and the pace of the spoken word require a reduction of the text. Also sometimes some subtitlers may ignore some parts.

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CRITICAL THINKING AND FOREIGN LANGUAGE ANXIETY

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ABSTRACT
This study aimed to examine the relationship between critical thinking ability and foreign language anxiety of Iranian EFL (English as a ForeignLanguage) learners. For this purpose, two instruments, Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS), and a questionnaire of Critical Thinking, were administered among 90 students majoring in English translation and English literature, at Islamic Azad University, Roodehen branch in Iran. The data were analyzed using Pearson correlation coefficients. The results revealed a statistically negative relationship between foreign language anxiety and critical thinking ability. The findings can act as a motive for English teachers to do their best in reducing foreign language anxiety to enhance learners' critical thinking ability.

KEWORDS: Critical thinking ability, foreign language anxiety

INTRODUCTION
Critical thinking is a cognitive skill and influences the way of our thinking; without critical thinking a person cannot react to a fair and precise conclusion. The questions remain unanswered or at least without answers, and without any justification behind them. Critical thinking is regarded as a skill and can be learned and taught. It is a very important factor in educational fields especially in the 3rd millennium (Schafersman, 1991). As Halpern (1998) points out, "critical thinking is the use of those cognitive skills that increase the probability of a desirable outcome" (p. 450).

As Schafersman (1991) states, critical thinking means correct thinking in the pursuit of relevant and reliable knowledge about the world. Another way to describe it is reasonable, reflective, responsible, and skillful thinking that is focused on deciding what to believe or do. A person who thinks critically can ask appropriate questions, gather relevant information, efficiently and creatively sort through this information, reason logically from this information, and come to reliable and trustworthy conclusions about the world that enables one to live and act successfully in it. Critical thinking enables an individual to be a responsible citizen who contributes to society, and not be only a consumer of society's distractions.
On the other hand language anxiety is an important learner characteristic with regard to L2 acquisition and use, consistently producing a significant impact on L2 criterion variables. Many studies have so far investigated different aspects of critical thinking and its implications in

EFL contexts and the role of language anxiety in language achievement. Yet, not much is known about the relationship between learners' critical thinking and their foreign language anxiety. Accordingly, the purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between critical thinking of Iranian EFL learners and their foreign language anxiety.

LITERATURE REVIEW
Critical thinking
Psychologists conceptualize critical thinking as higher-order thinking skills and focus on the suitable learning and teaching processes (Halpern, 1988, & Kuhn, 1999, cited in Dam &Volman, 2004). Benesch (1993) points out critical thinking is not simply higher-order thinking. As she explains: "it is a search for the social, historical, and political roots of conventional knowledge and an orientation to transform learning and society" (p. 546).

Robert Ennis, a recognized authority on critical thinking, has provided an important definition of critical thinking that emphasizes its practical aspects. According to Ennis (1987) cited in Bensley (1998, p.5), "critical thinking is reasonable, reflective thinking that is focused on deciding what to believe or do". Therefore, Bensley (1998) concludes, critical thinking can improve both how and what people think about a variety of questions. According to Bensley (1998, p.5), "critical thinking is reflective thinking involving the evaluation of evidence relevant to a claim so that a sound conclusion can be drawn from the evidence.

Glaser (1941) cited in Fisher (2001, p.4) defined critical thinking as: "(1) an attitude of being disposed to consider in a thoughtful way the problems and subjects that come within the range of one's experience, (2) knowledge of the methods of logical enquiring and reasoning; and (3) some skill in applying those methods." Critical thinking calls for a persistent effort to examine any belief or supposed form of knowledge in the light of the evidence that supports it and the further conclusions to which it tends.

Critical or reflective thinking is concerned with assessing the effectiveness of our thinking rather than evaluating our methods of investigating or conclusions. The latter is involved in problem solving (de Boo, 1999). According to McPeck (1981) cited in de Boo (1999), "thinking critically is not easy: our cherished theories can be proved 'wrong' and this can affect our self-esteem or require readjustments in our behavior –an uncomfortable process" (p.64). However, as he believes critical thinking can reduce biases and contribute to a more rational society.

According to Wright (2002), it has been said that critical thinking privileges rational, linear thinking and downplays the emotions; it has been criticized by some as sexist, as promoting a stereotypically "masculine" way of thought, ignoring feeling and intuition, and detaching the knower from the unknown. Wright (2002) believes that all kinds of strategies can be used in critical thinking not just linear ones. We do need to be emotional about such things as seeking truth and avoiding harm to others. But while emotions are clearly important in our thinking, we do not want always to act on the basis of emotions without reflection.

Facione (1990) cited in Giancarlo, Blohm, and Urdan (2004) defines critical thinking as "the process of purposeful, self-regulatory judgment. Throughout this cognitive, nonlinear, process, a person gathers and evaluates evidence to form a judgment about what to believe or what to do in a given context" (p.348). As facione points out, in so doing, a person who thinks critically uses his or her cognitive skills to form a judgment and to monitor and improve the quality of that judgment.

According to Benesch (1993), some writers define critical thinking as "a democratic learning process examining power relations and social inequities" (p.547). Auerbach and McGrail (1991) cited in Benesch (1993) define classes which feature critical thinking as ones in which students are encouraged to participate actively in discussing issues of concern in their life such as work, housing, marriage, etc.

As Wallerstein (1983) cited in Benesch (1993) states, people start thinking critically when they connect their individual lives and social conditions. Therefore, some argue that this type of teaching is "political". Benesch (1993) states that educators can adopt a cognitive orientation and encourage ESL students to analyze, synthesize, and evaluate topics without considering their social origins. Or they can ask them to investigate their experience and its relationship to the language, politics, and history of a new culture. Benesch believes that the second approach is critical, and the former is not.

As Wright (2002) points out critical does not have a negative meaning. A good critic considers the good points and the bad points and arrives at a judgment. This is the essence of what we want to capture when we add the word 'critical' to 'thinking'.

As fisher (2001) states, in recent years, critical thinking has become important in educational circles. For many reasons, educators have become very interested in teaching "thinking skills" of various kinds in contrast with teaching information and content. Although you can do both, in the past the emphasis has been on the teaching content –history, physics, geography or whatever- and though teachers claim that they teach "how to think", most would say they do this indirectly. Increasingly, educators have come to doubt the effectiveness of teaching "thinking skills" in this way. Now, they prefer to teach them directly. These skills are critical thinking skills which are sometimes called critico-creative thinking skills.

Glaser (1941) cited in Fisher (2001) listed critical thinking skills as:

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to recognize problems, (b) to find workable means for meet these problems, (c) to gather and marshal pertinent information, (d) to recognize unstated assumptions and values, (e) to comprehend and use language with accuracy, clarity and discrimination, (f) to interpret data (g) to appraise evidence and evaluate students, (h) to recognize the existence of logical relationships between propositions, (i) to draw warranted conclusions and generalization, (j) to put to test the generalizations and conclusions at which one arrives, (k) to reconstruct one's patterns of beliefs on the basis of wider experience, and (l) to render accurate judgments about specific things and qualities in everyday life. (pp.4-5)

According to Ennis (1987) cited in Dam and Volman (2004), critical thinking includes such acts as "formulating hypothesis, alternative ways of viewing a problem, questions, possible solutions, and plans for investigating something" (p.362). Ennis distinguishes between skills (analyzing arguments, judging credibility of sources, identifying the focus of the issue and answering and asking clarifying and/or challenging questions) and attitudes, the so-called dispositions (be prepared to determine and maintain focus on the conclusion or question, willing to take the whole situation into account, prepared to seek and offer reasons, amenable to being well-informed, willing to look for alternatives, and withholding judgment when evidence and reasons are insufficient.)

Many educators would agree that there are students in their classrooms who are able to think well but often do not want to utilize those skills. According to Giancarlo (2004), contemporary scholars believe that any discussion of critical thinking must include thinking skills and thinking attitudes or dispositions. As Facione et al. (1997) cited in Giancarlo et al. states the term critical thinking disposition refers to "a person's internal motivation to think critically when faced with problems to solve, ideas to evaluate, or decisions to make" (p.348). It is pointless to learn a skill when you fail to use it in a situation that requires the skill.

As Giancarlo et al. list "open-mindedness, self-regulation, a commitment to learning and mastery, and creative problem solving" are considered as four main dispositional aspects of critical thinking. The effectiveness of teaching critical thinking skills will not be maximized unless the teachers consider the dispositional dimensions of critical thinking as well.

According to Paul (1992) cited in Dam and Volman (2004), "the dispositions are an essential part of critical thinking: without being open-minded and considerate of other people and perspectives, critical thinking does not exceed 'egocentric and sociocentric thinking'" (p.362).

Facione (2004) considers cognitive skills and affective dispositions and mentions that cognitive skills are at the very core of critical thinking. These cognitive skills are: interpretation, analysis, evaluation, inference, explanation, and self-regulation. Quoting from the consensus statement of the national panel of experts, Facione (2004, pp.4-6) defines each term as the following:

Interpretation is "to comprehend and express the meaning or significance of a wide variety of experiences, situations, data, events, judgments, conventions, belief, rules, procedures, or criteria." It includes the sub-skills of categorization, decoding significance, and clarifying meaning.

Analysis is "to identify the intended and actual inferential relationships among statements, questions, concepts, descriptions, or other forms of representation intended to express belief, judgment, experiences, reasons, information, or opinion". Sub-skills of analysis are: examining ideas, detecting arguments, and analyzing arguments.

Evaluation means "to assess the credibility of statements or other representations which are accounts or descriptions of a person's perception, experience, situation, judgment, belief, or opinion; and to assess the logical strength of the actual or intended inferential relationships among statements, descriptions, questions, or other forms of representation."

Inference means "to identify and secure elements needed to draw reasonable conclusions; to form conjectures and hypothesis; to consider relevant information and to induce the consequences flowing from data, statements, principles, evidence, judgments, beliefs, opinions, concepts, descriptions, questions, or other forms of

representation." As sub-skills of inference the experts list querying evidence, conjecturing alternatives, and drawing conclusions.

Explanation is defined as being able "to state the results of one's reasoning; to justify that reasoning in terms of the evidential, conceptual, methodological, criteriological, and contextual considerations upon which one's results were based; and to present one's reasoning in the form of cogent arguments." The sub-skills under explanation are stating results, justifying procedure, and presenting arguments.

According to Facione (2011), the most remarkable cognitive skill of all is self-regulation. He says this one is remarkable because it allows good critical thinkers to improve their own thinking. Some people want to call this "meta-cognition", meaning it raises thinking to another level. This is critical thinking applied to itself. Self-regulation is like a recursive function in mathematical term, which means it can apply to everything including itself. You can monitor and correct an interpretation you offered. Self-regulation means "self-consciously to monitor one's cognitive activities, the elements used in those activities, and the results educed, particularly by applying skills in analysis, and evaluation to one's own inferential judgments with a view toward questioning, confirming, validation, or correcting either one's reasoning or one's results." The two sub-skills here are self-examination and self-correction.

As Facione (2011) points out we cannot call someone a good critical thinker just because he/she has these skills, a good critical thinker should use these skills. There are different views about the fact that whether critical thinking is teachable or not. According to Manlove (1989) thinking cannot be taught, it is a matter of practice and instinct. Atkinson (1997) and Atkinson and Ramanathan (1995) believe that critical thinking is acquired through an unconscious process of socialization and it cannot be taught at schools. They believe that native English speaking students have been socialized at school as critical thinkers but nonnative students should not be asked to do critical thinking tasks because they may be hard for them.

According to Ramanathan and Kaplan (1996) cited in Benesch (1999), teachers should not impose critical thinking to students. According to Benesch (1999), even type of teaching imposes a specific way of thinking on students. He states that not only critical thinking can be taught through the encouragement of greater awareness, but also choosing not to teach critical thinking may result in the acceptance of conditions without any question and it limits possibilities for change.

Dam and Volman (2004) state that students' ability to understand and master critical thinking varies with age, and teaching needs to be tailored to the developmental level of students. As they say even young learners benefit from critical-thinking training.

De Boo (1999) states that 'thinking' requires a particular emphasis as many classroom activities are prescriptive and do not encourage children to think. As he says thinking is an important skill; supportive strategies and teaching help children to think and function more effectively. De Boo mentions that the first step in teaching children to think is teaching them to be objective. Objective thinking allows them to "abstract ideas and processes from their initial context and apply them in other situations" (p.54).

According to de Boo, under appropriate guidance or teaching, children's thinking develops from initial subjective responses to objective reasoning and from there to metacognitive or critical, reflective thinking. Also he says that critical thinking can be taught successfully as a skill.

Fisher (1990) cited in de Boo (1999) states that research into teaching children to think suggests that, with training, young children can use metacognitive processes such as reflective or critical thinking. De Boo (1999) believes that children's ability to think critically is dependent on experience, the development of self control and self-awareness, linguistic and reading abilities, and subject knowledge.

Foreign language anxiety
Speilberger (1983, cited in Brown, 2007), defined anxiety as "the subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry associated with an arousal of the autonomic nervous system" (p.161).Scovel (1978) believes that anxiety is associated with feeling of uneasiness, frustration, self-doubt, apprehension and worry.

According to Ellis (2008) work done on anxiety in the field of psychology demonstrates three separate type of anxiety: trait anxiety, state anxiety, and situation-specific anxiety. Trait anxiety is thought to be an inherent personality characteristic, or a more permanent predisposition to be anxious. Situation specific anxiety is a kind of

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anxiety that is caused by a certain situation, such as giving an oral presentation in front of others or taking an exam; and, state anxiety refers to the way in which the learner feels at a particular moment in response to a situation. It is a combination of trait and situation-specific anxiety.

MacIntyre and Gardner (1989) discusses that since trait anxiety is global and somewhat ambiguously defined nature, has not proved to be useful in predicting second language achievement.

According to Horwitz, Horwitz and cope (1986), the nature of foreign language anxiety is more situation specific anxiety, and they conceive foreign language anxiety as a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process. According to them, it is useful to draw parallels between foreign language anxiety and three related performance anxieties: 1) communication apprehension, 2) test anxiety, and 3) fear of negative evaluation.

They elaborate on these three related performance anxiety. According to them, communication apprehension is a type of shyness characterized by fear of anxiety about communicating with people. Difficulties in speaking in groups, or in listening or learning a spoken message, are manifestations of communication apprehension. Test anxiety refers to type of performance anxiety stemming from a fear of failure. Test anxious students often feel that anything less than a perfect test performance is a failure. Finally, they define fear of negative evaluation as apprehension about others` evaluation, avoidance of evaluative situations and the expectations that others would evaluate one-self negatively.

Another insight to be applied in understanding of anxiety is the distinction between debilitating and facilitating anxiety. According to Dornyei (2005), it has been observed that anxiety does not necessarily inhibit performance but in some cases can actually promote it. 'Worry,' which is considered the cognitive component of anxiety, has been shown to have a negative impact on performance, whereas the affective component, emotionality, does not necessarily have detrimental effects.

Since the1960s scholars have focused on the effect of anxiety on second language learning and performance. To date, as Ellis (2008) mentions, research exploring anxiety typically involves one of the three issues: 1) how language anxiety and language learning are related, 2) causes of language anxiety and 4) how anxiety affects language learning.

To decrease personal and interpersonal anxieties, Foss and Reitzel (1988) offer several techniques for reducing language anxiety stemming from learners beliefs, and these same techniques apply when dealing with personal and interpersonal anxieties. They argue that if students can recognize their irrational beliefs of fears, they will be able to interpret anxiety-provoking situations in more realistic ways and eventually adapt themselves to approach rather than avoid an anxiety-evoking situation. To help students recognize their fears about language learning, Foss and Reitzel recommend that the instructor ask students to verbalize any fears and then to write them on the board. In this way students can see they are not alone in their anxieties.
Based on what is said above, it seems that there is a relationship between critical thinking and foreign language anxiety. This is what this research tries to explore.

Statement of the problem and purpose of the study
Many studies have shown the negative effects of anxiety and specifically foreign language anxiety which is a type of situational anxiety on language learning. On the other hand, the importance of critical thinking has been noticed and it has been the focus of many studies. However, the relationship between foreign language anxiety and critical thinking has been rarely examined. Therefore, the purpose of this research was to examine the relationship between foreign language anxiety and critical thinking ability.
RESEARCH QUESTION AND HYPOTHESIS
The purpose of this study is to investigate the potential possible relationship between critical thinking skills and foreign language anxiety in Iranian students majoring English translation and literature.

To fulfill the purpose of this study, the following research question is raised:

RQ:Is there any statistically significant relationship between critical thinking ability and foreign language anxiety in Iranian students majoring English translation and literature?

Given the above research question, the following null hypothesis was proposed.
H0: There is not any statistically significant relationship between critical thinking ability and foreign language anxiety in Iranian students majoring English translation and literature.

METHODOLOGY
Participants
In order to investigate the research questions of the study and the hypothesized relationship, the researchers chose 90 students majoring in English translation and English literature, at Islamic Azad University, Roodehen branch in Iran, as the main participants of this study. Both males and females took part in the study and their age range was from 18 to 40.They were students of 7th and 8thsemesters of their education. Also 30 students similar in characteristics to that of the target participants of this study were chosen to participate in the piloting of the instruments of the present research

Instruments
Critical Thinking Questionnaire
Peter Honey's critical thinking questionnaire was selected by the researchers to measure learners' critical thinking. Peter Honey's (2005) critical thinking questionnaire includes 30 items. The Likert-type CTQ is a reliable (0.86 on Cronbach's Alpha), valid and practical) measure of critical thinking ability which allows researchers to investigate micro-skills of note-taking, summarizing, questioning, paraphrasing, researching, inferencing, discussing, classifying, outlining, comparing and contrasting, distinguishing, synthesizing, inductive and deductive reasoning more effectively.

Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale
In order to measure foreign language anxiety in students, foreign language classroom anxiety scale established by Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) was selected by the researcher which included 33 items. This questionnaire is based on five likert scale from strongly agree to strongly disagree.

Data Collection Procedure
In order to test the null hypothesis of the research study and to investigate any significant relationship between critical thinking and foreign language anxiety, the following steps were carried out. As the first step, the researcher pilotedtwo questionnaires. The instruments were piloted by a number of 30 participants similar in characteristics to the target participants of the research.Reliabilityfor critical thinking and foreign language anxiety questionnaires were estimated.

In the second step, 90 participants were provided with questionnaires of foreign language anxiety and critical thinking. All of the instruments have been administrated in one session.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
In order to make sure of the reliability of the instruments of the study, the researcher piloted the two instruments, namely, critical thinking and foreign language anxiety questionnaires, with a number of 30 participants similar in characteristics to that of the target sample. The reliability of critical thinking questionnaire was equal to 0.78 and the reliability of anxiety questionnaire was equal to 0.81 as shown in table 1 and 2.

Table 1: Reliability of Critical Thinking

Cronbach`S Alpha	N of Items
0.78	33

Table 2: Reliability of Foreign Language Anxiety

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Cronbach`S Alpha	N of Items
0.81	33

After making sure of the reliability of the instruments the researchers administered the questionnaires to the target sample of 90 participants of the study. Table 3 and 4 presents the descriptive data of the two sets of scores.

Table 3: Descriptive Data of Foreign Language Anxiety

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
anxiety	90	50	72	61.13	7.138
Valid N (listwise)	90				

Table 4: Descriptive Data of Critical Thinking

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Critical thinking	90	85	128	98.97	9.410
Valid N (listwise)	90				

Before conducting a correlational analysis some assumptions needed to be checked such as normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity. Figure 1 presents the details of checking the linearity.
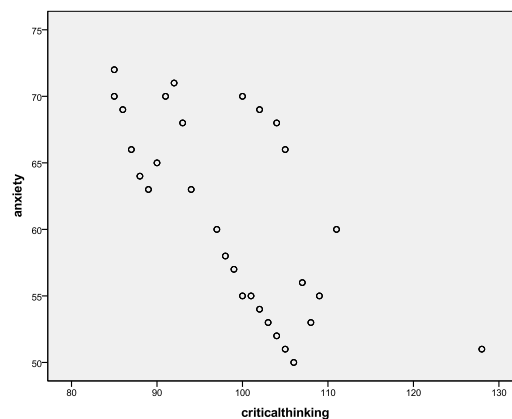
Figure 1: Scatter Plot: Critical Thinking with Anxiety

As can be seen from the above table, the scatter plot shows a non-linear relationship. Since the assumption of linearity was violated, the researchers had to employ a nonparametric statistical analysis to investigate the research hypothesis. Spearman's Rank Order Correlation was used as the nonparametric alternative to Pearson'Product

113

Correlation to calculate the relationship between the variables and to see whether there was a significant relationship among them or not. Table 5 presents the results.

*Table 5: Correlation of the participants` score on foreign language anxiety
and critical thinking*

Correlations

		anxiety	criticalthinking
anxiey	Pearson Correlation	1	-.678[**]
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	90	90
criticalthinking	Pearson Correlation	-.678[**]	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	90	90

As the findings of this study indicated, there was a significant and negative correlation (-0.678) between EFL learners' critical thinking ability and their foreign language anxiety. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Discussion
The result of this study shows a significant negative correlation between foreign language anxiety and critical thinking. The result seems logical.

Focusing on the importance of teaching critical thinking skills, Arend (2009) aptly comments that"Instilling critical thinking abilities in students is a highly touted goal of … education" (p. 2). On the other hand many studies using the FLCAS and other specific measures of second language anxiety have found a consistent moderate negative correlation between the FLCAS and measures of second language achievement. Therefore, it could be feasible to assume that one way that anxiety inhibits language achievement, is through its negative correlation with critical thinking.

The result of this study is in line with previous studies concerning foreign language anxiety and critical thinking. Although, there are not many studies with respect to the relationship of foreign language anxiety and critical thinking in this field, many studies have been conducted showing the beneficial impact of critical thinking and detrimental effect of anxiety in language learning.

In line with critical thinking, for instance, Fahim and Mirzaii (2013) showed that how teaching critical thinking increased argumentative writing in Iranian EFL learners. Also, Fahim and Saghaieh Bolghari (2014) found that there is significant positive correlation between critical thinking and learner`s style.

On the other hand, many studies have been done with respect to the role of anxiety in language learning. As a case in point, Zhang (2013) found that anxiety has a negative impact on listening comprehension. Also, Philips (1992) found that anxiety has a great impact on oral test performance.

Despite the importance of critical thinking and foreign language anxiety, the relationship between these two has not examined excessively in language education and this study can be a starting point in investigating the relationship between these two variables.

CONCLUSION
The present study was an attempt to explore the relationship between Iranian EFL learners' critical thinking ability and foreign language anxiety. As the results indicated, there was a significant and negative relationship among the variables. From the findings of the current study, it may be suggested that teachers should pay more attention to reducing anxiety in the foreign language classroom since it has a negative relationship with critical thinking which is one of important factors in students` success.

. The results of the present study may support increasing teachers' understanding of detrimental effect of foreign language anxiety and that they should do their best to reduce foreign language anxiety in their classrooms. As Foss and Reitzel (1988) argue, if students can recognize their irrational beliefs of fears, they will be able to interpret anxiety-provoking situations in more realistic ways and eventually adapt themselves to approach rather than avoid an anxiety-evoking situation. To decrease anxieties associated with classroom procedures, instructors can adopt their activities to the affective needs of the learner. Young (1990) suggest that language anxiety is alleviated when students work in small groups, do pair work, and experience personalized language instruction. Long and Porter (1985) suggest that Group work not only addresses the affective concerns of the students, it also increases the amount of student talk and comprehensible input.

In summary, language anxiety is an important learner characteristic with regard to L2 acquisition and use, consistently producing a significant impact on L2 criterion variables. In this study, FLCAS and Honey's critical thinking questionnaire were used as instruments. It is, however, seems feasible that the results would be different by using other instruments. Moreover, age and gender effects were not considered in this study. Besides, the study was limited to a certain number of students who were available for conducting this research. In order to reach more comprehensive results, it is proposed to conduct similar studies with a wider sampling group from different universities and contexts and to carry out experimental studies in which learning environments would be created based on critical thinking and anxiety. It should be noted that both foreign language anxiety and critical thinking are multifaceted processes affected by different factors and some intervening factors may affect the results.

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TRANSLATION AND ABSORPTION
OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE
IN THE AUTOMOTIVE FIELD INTO THE INDONESIAN:
EFFORT IN INTELLECTUALIZING NATION

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ABSTRACT
This is a descriptive writing using qualitative method. The study is aim at describing language change used by its speakers along with culture, science, and technology developments. The research is based on the theories proposed by PUPI (1997:36), Alwi (1996), and Ambari (1983). Rapid development of culture, science, and technology in the Western world has influenced in the language. In bahasa Indonesia, one of the developments and expansions carried out through the process of translation and absorption in the source language with target language. Translators and translation contribute to the past and present cultural dynamics. The results of the research are (1) this apositive impact of the the development in translation and language absorption in the automotive field is derived from foreign languages into Indonesian. Therefore, the global era is rapidly transforming the cultures of many nations; Bahasa Indonesia is also susceptible to these changes. One of the expected effects of globalization is that Bahasa Indonesia will develop a richer vocabulary and will become a better means for expressing intellectual thoughts. (2) the foreign terms in the field of automotive translated and absorbed into Indonesian increase Indonesian vocabulary. It has given a positive effect in the development of Indonesian vocabulary. The paper attempts to sketch the relation between the political reforms in Indonesia and the vocabulary development in the national language. It also discusses how bahasa Indonesia might adapt itself in the global era. The use of absorption foreign terms in automotive field in bahasa Indonesia can enrich its lexicon, and also gives a positive influence toward the development of bahasa Indonesia. From the morphological perspective, the foreign terms of automotive field can be formed through this following process: (1) affixation, (2) reduplication, and (3) abbreviation. Moreover, from the phonological perspective, the absorption process of foreign terms of automotive field can be categorized into these processes, such as: (1) a whole absorption, (2) absorption through writing form adaptation, (3) absorption and translation at once, and (4) absorption through translation.

KEYWORDS: translation, absorption, the automotive, intellectualization

INTRODUCTION

The development of thinking process has given a big influence toward the bahasa Indonesia and its society. Every language is always developing. The language we use now will not be the same with language use in the upcoming centuries. Bahasa Indonesia we use nowadays is developing in a fast cultural transformation context. It will always be related to the globalization and the dynamic of Indonesian people.

Language is a system of sign sound which is agreed to be used by the members of certain society in cooperating, communicating, and self-identification (Kushartanti, et al., 2005:4). When language used is not in the agreement of language users, then that language will be consider as foreign language.

Language is used as a tool for communication and it will always be developing and changing based on the development of its speakers. Based on that idea, Sugono (1997:3) states that:

> Language experiences changes along with the changes in the society of its speaker, related to the change of period, culture, knowledge and technology. Bahasa Indonesia is also developing toward that development. The rapidity of culture, knowledge, and technology in Western influence bahasa Indonesia, particularly in vocabulary.

In bahasa Indonesia, the foreign language appears when those terms have not had the equivalent words. Automotive is one of the field which has a lot of vocabularies taken from English, and then be used to represent automotive terms in bahasa Indonesia.

The use of automotive register in printed media in West Java can be seen in the following terms, such as *carburetor, showroom, onderdil, filter, dealer, touring, road race,* and *torsi.* Those terms are equivalent with the terms *karburator* (substance regulator), *showroom* (exhibition room), *filter* (an air percolator), *turing* (a far journey by using vehicle), *road race* (a kind of motorcycle race in the asphalt road), and *torsi* (a self-funding racer).

In linguistics, a concept is needed to analyze research problem. Therefore, this research discusses about the absorption of foreign terms in automotive field in the printed and electronic media, from the morphological and syntactical perspectives. This research emphasizes on the use of absorbent foreign terms in bahasa Indonesia from the morphological and phonological perspectives. So that, there is an analysis toward the use or affixation in bahasa Indonesia and the morphophonemic process toward foreign terms, along with the translation process of automotive registers. Ramlan (1983:47) states that "The process of affixation is by attaching affix into a certain unit, both single and complex, to form a word. He further states that the process of morphophonemic is a process which learns about the change of phonemes as the result of companionship between one morpheme and another morpheme.

Besides, the researcher also uses "A term is a word or combination of words that carefully reveals the concepts, processes, circumstances or nature of typical in particular field (Kridalaksana,2001:86) .

This research used descriptive method, in which analyzing data accurately based on facts of language related to the terms or lexicon of automotive. Then, the techniques used were observing, taking notes, listening, and literature study.

The data were taken from printed media as follows: tabloid *Motorplus, Otomotif, Otospot, Ototrend, Pikiran Rakyat,* and *Kompas*) and electronic media (*TPI, ANTEVE, SCTV, RCTI, Indosiar, Global TV, Trans TV,* and *Lativi*) which use the terms of automotive registers in their language production.

THEORETICAL FOUNDATION

Some analyses toward the automotive registers have been conducted by Nazarudin (2005), Christina (2006), and Sirait (2007). Nazarudin (2005) discusses the indonesianization process of automotive terms in a paper entitled *The Indonesianization Process of Automotive Terms in Printed Media and Internet*. He further describes that the processes are formed through translation and absorption. While the absorption processes are formed through the adaptation of spelling, morphology, and form. Based on some above theories, it can be concluded that the automotive term is a unit of grammatical terms used in the field automotive.

Besides, Sirait (2007) describes new vocabularies found in *Kompas*, with a paper entitled *New Indonesian Vocabularies in Kompas 2006*. She classifies those vocabularies based on the process of word formation. She states that beside the basic word, affixed word, repeating word, abbreviation word, compound word, there are also variations about vocabulary in dictionary, such as *holistik* and *holistis*. Furthermore, she finds basic words are taken from English and Javanese language, not from bahasa Indonesia. In the other ways, most abbreviations appeared from bahasa Indonesia.

The researcher has analyzed some papers about the affixation process of foreign terms, and discovered that affixation bahasa Indonesia with foreign terms has not been found. Therefore the researcher suggests that there should be further research related to that topic, and the researcher will continue this kind of research related to automotive field.

The Absorption of Foreign Terms System into Bahasa Indonesia

The history of language development is always related to the other languages, when there is a contact between nations they will influence each other. Crystal (1989:294) states this kind of influence can be seen in the words absorption of language by other language. Such process can be seen in bahasa Indonesia to enrich their vocabulary,

for example the words *solusi, transportasi,* and *inovasi* were absorbed from English vocabularies namely *solution*, *transportation*, and *innovation*.

The process of borrowing language elements can be happened because of the cultural contact, particularly to the growing and developing language. Bahasa Indonesia is still considered young, so it absorbs a lot of language elements both from local and foreign languages. The registers from local culture are influenced by the local language, while the registers from foreign language grow along with the arrival of foreign cultures influenced by foreign languages (Biskoyo, 1996:8-9).

In its development, bahasa Indonesia has absorbed a lot of language elements both from local and foreign language, such as Sansekerta, Arabic, Portuguese, Dutch, and English (PUPI,1997:36). A similar statement proposed by Alwi (1996a:9) and Ambari (1983:212-213) who affirm that the foreign terms absorbed by bahasa Indonesia were taken from Arabic, Dutch, Chinese, Hindi, English, Persian, Portuguese, Sansekerta-Ancient Javanese, and Tamil.

Based on the integration degree, the absorbed elements in bahasa Indonesia can be divided into three main groups, as follows: (1) The elements which have been absorbed into bahasa Indonesia, and there is no need to change the spelling, such as words *sirsak, iklan, otonomi, dongkrak, pikir, paham,* and *aki;* (2) The foreign language elements which have not absorbed utmost into bahasa Indonesia, such as words *shuttle cock, real estate, reshuffle,* and *I'explotation de I'homme par I'home.* Those elements are used in bahasa Indonesia within foreign spelling; (3) The elements which the spelling and writing are adjusted based on the principle of bahasa Indonesia (*PUPI*, 1997: 36). Then, it is suggested that the alteration of foreign language spelling should only be changed necessarily, so it still can be compared with its original forms, such as *bal* from *baal* (Holland), *aeorob* from *aerobe*, *silinder* from *cylinder* (English).

The Definition of Automotive
The study of automotive field can be categorized into applied science, besides study of pure science, such as chemistry, physics, mathematics, biology, and so on. Boentarto (1996:9) states that *otomotif* is derived from English words *automotive*, means a power generator machine or something which can move by themselves. It discusses the machines used on cars and motorcycle. Besides that, Alwi, et al (2007:77 and 805) affirms that "automotive is related to the vehicle (car and motorcycle)." Therefore, automotive is related to something which can move by themselves.

Such machine was found by Alphans Beau de Rahas (1960); he makes a rapid development of machine since Otto found 4-stroke-engine in 1877. Nowadays, machinery field is popular with automotive terms (Rudatin, 1996: 6).

THE ABSORPTION OF FOREIGN TERMS IN AUTOMOTIVE FIELD
Based on Morphological Forms
Based on the morphological forms, the foreign terminology in automotive can be categorized into sentences which have (a) affixation, (b) reduplication, and (c) abbreviation.

Affixation
The foreign terms of automotive can be absorbed into bahasa Indonesia through affixation process. However, not all affixation process in bahasa Indonesia can be applied in these foreign automotive terms. The data gained that only prefix which attached productively into automotive terms. The productivity level of prefix in bahasa Indonesia, related to automotive field, can be seen in the following sentences.

Prefix {Me-}
The foreign automotive terms in mass media (printed and electronic) in Indonesia which experience the process of attaching prefix {*me-*} can be seen in the following sentence:

> (1) *Maskat alias si Boss dari Sito Racing Tea, yang kerap* **menyetting** *Vesva road race, nongol jadi Marshal.*
> (2) *Menurut Kaharuddin Sifar, modifikasi harus diikuti kegiatan* **membalancer** *kruk-as.*

119

The words *menyetting* and *membalancer* above are the examples of foreign language terms which are absorbed into bahasa Indonesia. Those terms are derived from foreign terms (1) *setting 'to harmonize'* [*set* (v) + *ing* (gerund)]; and (2) *balancer 'which estimated treatment fee'* is attached with prefix *me-*.

The terms *menyetting* and *membalancer* above are grammatically incorrect. It can be seen from the spelling used (the written word and the use of dash) in those examples, so that the appropriate forms in bahasa Indonesia grammatical rules become [meny-*setting* 'to harmonize' (sentence 1) and mem-*balancer* 'to balance (sentence 2)].

So that, the standard form from the example above (sentences 1-2) after the basic form *setting* and *balancer* attached with prefix {*me-*}become meny-*setting* and mem-balancer, as can be seen in the following sentences:

(1a) *Maskat alias si Boss dari Sito Racing Tea yang kerap* **meny-setting**
Vesva **road race**, *muncul menjadi Marshal.*
(1b) *Maskat alias si Boss dari Sito Racing Tea yang kerap menyelaraskan/merakit perangkat Vesva* **road race** *sehingga muncul menjadi Marshal.*
(2a) *Menurut Kardun, modifikasi harus diikuti dengan kegiatan* **mem-balancer** *kruk-as.*

Prefix {Ber-}
The foreign automotive terms experience affixation process through the attachment of prefix {*ber-*} into the basic foreign words, which are absorbed into bahasa Indonesia, can be seen in the following sentences:

(3) *Kalau sudah, kita tinggal menyiapkan piranti keamanan terpenting di dalam kabin yang* **bersafety belt.**
(4) *Ketika melibas tikungan hati terasa miris. Stang terasa limbung atau goyang. Menurut Sumantri penyebabnya karena sokbreker depan tidak* **berstabilizer.**

The terms ber*safety belt* 'using safety belt' and ber*stabilizer* 'has stabilizer' contain automotive lexicons which are derived form the words *safety belt* and *stabilizer*. Those terms are wholly absorbed from English, then directly attached with prefix {*ber-*}. However, the use of those words is not appropriate, especially on the spelling. The grammatical forms of those sentences should be:

(3a) *Kita tinggal menyiapkan piranti keamanan terpenting di dalam kabin yang* **ber-safety belt**.
(4a) *Ketika melibas tikungan, hati terasa miris karena stang terasa limbung atau goyang. Menurut Sumantri, penyebabnya adalah sokbreker depan yang tidak* **ber-stabilizer**.

The foreign terms *safety belt* and *stabilizer* which are already attached to prefix {*ber-*} should be written after dash.

{di-}
Other automotive terms which experience affixation, and attached to prefix {*di-*} can be seen in the following sentences:

(5) *Ban depan mobil saya gundul sebelah. Apakah ini menunjukkan spooring yang tidak benar sehingga harus* **dispooring** *ulang?*
(6) *Apakah yang harus saya benahi, apakah karburatornya. Soalnya, setelah saya bawa ke bengkel untuk* **ditune up** *tetap tidak ada perubahan.*

The sentences above use foreign automotive terms, absorb it into bahasa Indonesia, and result in the use of prefix {*di-*} in the terms *spooring* and *tune up*. The attachment of affix {*di-*} in those terms does not change the original form of the terms. However, the grammatical use of those terms must be like this.

(5a) *Ban depan mobil saya gundul sebelah. Apakah ini menunjukkan spooring yang tidak benar sehingga harus* **di-spooring** *ulang?*
(6a) *"Apakah yang harus saya benahi, apakah karburatornya. Soalnya, setelah saya membawanya ke bengkel untuk* **di-tune up** *tetap tidak ada perubahan juga," salah seorang pemilik motor tersebut mengeluh.*

The terms di-*spooring* means 'finding the footprints', and di-*tune up* means 'adjusting with the sound change'. Besides, the attachment of prefix {*di-*} can also be seen in the following sentences.

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(7)   *Piranti ini bisa **ditrade-in** tapi dilihat dulu kondisi produk serta tahun standar di mana perangkat itu dipakai pada mobil.*

(8)   *Kalau dikorek, Supra X mesinnya paling mentok **dibore-up** pakai seher Kaze Oversize 100 yaitu 54mm.*

The terms *di-trade-in* and *dibore up* are derived from the absorption of terms *trade in* and *bore up*. *Trade in* means 'to be sold' and *bore up* means 'to be established'. Those terms are attached to Indonesian prefix di-, so that, it will be written like this.

(7a)   *Piranti ini bisa **di-trade in** tetapi dilihat terlebih dulu kondisi produk serta tahun standar yang memberlakukan perangkat itu pada mobil.*

(8a)   *Kalau dikorek, Supra X mesinnya paling mentok **di-bore-up** memakai seher Kaze Oversize 100, yaitu 54 mm.*

Prefix {Ter- }
The affixation process in automotive field through the use of prefix{*ter-*} can also be seen in the sentence below:

(9)   *Mau setir standar terlihat berbeda? Silakan datang ke gerai Prestige milik Bambang Indratno. Di sana tersedia alat kemudi bawaan mobil yang sudah **termodif** dengan lapisan kulit yang berasal dari serat karbon atau profil kayu.*

The foreign terms *modification* in the sentence above has been absorbed into bahasa Indonesia, and became *modification*. However, it experiences written form shortness into *modif*. The term *modif* is attached to the prefix {*ter-*}, and then become *termodifikasi*.

Prefix {Pe-}

The use of prefix {*pe-*} in the foreign automotive terms can be seen in the following sentence:

(10) *"Bagaimana nonton drifting di Kemayoran?" Tidak susah karena banyak akses menuju ke areal yang biasa dipakai balap road race. "Yang pasti, untuk bisa menyaksikan aksi **pedrift,** cover charge hanya Rp. 10.000".'*

The use of prefix {*pe-*} is not as productive as the use of prefix me-. The researcher only found one example of the use of prefix {*pe-*} in the term term *drift* 'driver'. However, the written form is not appropriate; it also needs dash after the prefix. The following is the correct written of the term.

(10a*)   "Bagaimana nonton drifting di Kemayoran?" Tidak susah karena banyak akses menuju areal biasa dipakai balap road race. Yang pasti, untuk bisa menyaksikan aksi **pe-drift,** cover charge hanya Rp10.000.*

Reduplication
The foreign terms of automotive also experience the morphological process called reduplication. The example of that process can be seen in the sentences below.

(11)   *Konsumen yang ingin memiliki SUV buatan Thailand ini bisa menghubungi langsung ke **dealer-dealer** resmi Toyota di mana pun adanya.*

(12)   *Hal ini terlihat dari **manuver-manuver** adventurnya di jalan nonaspal.*

The sentences above show that there are whole reduplications toward the terms *dealer* and *maneuver*. The reduplication form in sentence number 11 can be categorized as noun reduplication means plural, while the reduplication form in sentence number 12 means a durative job.

Abbreviation Forms

The productivity of the foreign term use in the form of abbreviation is very dominant compared to other forms. The foreign automotive terms in the form of abbreviation and sign can be mapped as follows.

Maintaining First Letter of Each Component
The foreign terms in the form of abbreviation by maintaining the first letter of the components can be seen in the sentences below.

(13)   *PT Nissan Motor (NMI) mulai mengeluarkan jurus baru untuk tetap bercokol di segmen* **SUV (Sport Utility Vehicle)**.

(14)   *Pada kelas regular B yang angka oktannya 88, terbagi menjadi dua kategori: betimbal dan nonbetimbal. Hal ini terutama untuk bensin yang masuk kategori* **PSO**, *yaitu bensin yang diwajibkan kepada pemain swasta ataupun pemerintah untuk menyuplai daerah-daerah terpencil.*

The sentences above show the example of abbreviation by maintaining the first letter of the three components. The terms SUV is derived from *Sport Utility Vehicle* and PSO is derived from *Public Service Obligation.*

Besides maintaining the first letter of three components, there is also maintenance toward the first letter of two components, as we can see on the following sentences.

(15)   *Putaran setir saat macet dan menembus jalan tikusserta sempit pasti lebih nyaman dengan* **PS (Power Steering)**.

(16)   *Tim F1 Sauber menjadi perusahaan pertama yang membuat mesin* **GP (Grand Prix) motor**.

The term PS is derived from *Power Steering,* while GP is derived from *Grand Prix.* Those foreign terms are absorbed into bahasa Indonesia by maintaining the first letter of two components. Moreover, there is also another type of abbreviations which maintains the first letter of four components, see the following examples.

(17)   *Praktik pengelasannya sama persis dengan metode* **Shielded Metal Arc Welding** *(SMAW) atau lebih dikenal dengan las listrik.*

(18)   *Teknologi mesin pada jagoan baru PT. Astra Honda Motor (AHM), yakni Supra X125 memang sebelas duabelas dengan Honda Karisma. Namun, pada Supra X Pekjigo (baca:125), ditambah fitur baru, yaitu* **Secondary Air Supply System** *(SASS).*

Those foreign automotive terms are the examples of abbreviation which maintain the first letter of four components. SMAW is derived from *Shielded Metal Arc Welding*, while SASS is derived from *Secondary Air Supply System.*

Acronym
Maintaining First Letter of Each Component
The use of foreign automotive terms by maintaining first letter of each component in the form of acronym can be seen in the following sentences.

(19) *Dari sekian banyak besutan Jip, Henry andalkan Holden Torona (Australia) untuk* **SODA.**

(20) *Praktek pengelasannya sama persis dengan metode* **Shielded Metal Arc Welding** *(SMAW) atau lebih dikenal dengan las listrik.*

The acronyms SODA and SMAW are the results of abbreviating *Short Couse Off-Road Driver Association* dan *Shielded Metal Arc Welding.*

Maintaining Some Letters from a Word
The foreign automotive terms are also derived by maintaining some letters of word, which can be seen in the following sentences.

(21)   Lebih lengkapnya, kita dapat melihat di **Kawak** Ninja.

(22)   Pilih suspensi paling tepat adalah monosok **Suzi** Satria yang hemat uang.

The acronyms *Kawak* and *Suzi* are derived from the word *Kawasaki* and *Suzuki*, both are the names of vehicle brands.

Maintaining Some Letters from Two Words

122

Acronym can also be derived from the perpetuation process of some letters from two words. Below are the examples of automotive terms use in such acronym,

(23)   *Seakan menjadi kebanggaan tersendiri bagi* **motcin** *asal Chongqing bersanding dengan pabrikan Jepang tersebut.*

(24)   *Pria bernama asli Sumarto yang dikenal pandai bermain pengapian ini sekarang membuat* **mocil***.*

The acronyms *motchin* and *mocil* are derived from the words *motor cina* and motor kecil, both are formed by maintaining some letters from the words.

Symbol Letters Form
The foreign terms in a symbol letter form are derived from various processes, which can be seen in the following forms.

Maintaining First Letter from Group of Components
The use of automotive terms by maintaining first letter from group of components can be seen in the following sentences.

(25)   *Kapasitas mesin tersebut maksimum mencapai 13,5 hp pada 3.600* **rpm***.*

(26)   *Tes selesai di pintu tol Cikampek dengan indikator menunjukan konsumsi rata-rata 37,2* **km/liter***.*

The terms *rpm* and *km/liter* are the acronyms in automotive registers. They are derived by maintaining first letter from the group components. The term *rpm* is abbreviated from *revolution per minute,* while *km/l* means *kilometer per liter.* Those terms are already translated and adopted into bahasa Indonesia.

Based on Phonological Aspects
The foreign automotive terms are absorbed into bahasa Indonesia through four processes, (a) a whole absorption, (b) absorption through translation, (c) absorption and translation at once and (d) adopted absorption toward *Pedoman Umum Pembentukan Istilah.*

A Whole Absorption
The whole absorption of automotive terms is the most common used example we can find in bahasa Indonesia. Those terms are absorbed from one to three words, which is elaborated below.

One word
In bahasa Indonesia, the terms of automotive registers, which is absorbed from a word can be seen below.

(27)   *Empat* **drifter** *dari tim Corolla Retno (CR) siap menggempur.*

(28)   *"Sebagian memang ada yang diganti dengan sokbreker baru," terangnya sambil mengingatkan kalau perangkat itu masuk masa setahun* **warranty** *atau jarak tempuh 20 ribu km.*

The examples above are absorbed foreign terms, which are derived from one word, *drifter* and *warranty.* Those terms are categorized as nouns.

Compound
In bahasa Indonesia, the terms of automotive registers, which is absorbed from two words can be seen below.
(29)   *Perkembangan terakhir* **power steering** *saat ini telah menggunakan piranti elektris.*

(30)   *SpeedSpardk ini lebih cocok untuk mobil yang telah mengalami modifikasi, terutama komponen pengapian. Modifikasi ini berupa penambahan* **force induction** *atau mobil yang disiapkan untuk kompetisi.*

(31)   *Produsen oli makin intens mengguyur promosi di ajang* **road race***.*

(32)   *Kini tinggal menyiapkan piranti keamanan terpenting di dalam kabin, yaitu* **safety belt***.*

Power steering, force induction, road race, and *safety belt* are the examples of absorbed terms which are derived from two words.

123

Three Words
There is only limited example of absorbed terms in automotive registers which is derived from three words. A sentence below is the example.

> (33)   *Teknologi mesin pada jagoan baru PT. Astra Motor (AHM), yakni Supra X
>   125 memang sebelas dua belas dengan Honda Karisma. Namun, pada Supra X pekjigo (baca: 125)
>   ditambah fitur baru, yaitu Secondary Air Supply System (SASS). Oleh karena itu, bebek ini lantas dijuluki
>   sebagai motor dengan **green engine technology**.*

Absorption through Translating
The absorption through translating can be seen in the following sentences:

> (34)   *Kendala lain mesin turbo berupa **pelumas** yang cepat menguap di atas Carmen dengan menambahkan oil cath
>   tank produk Cusco.*
> (35)   *Pengapian masih mengandalkan bawaan pabrik sehingga hanya busi yang memakai NGK 6000.*

The absorption through translating from the source language into bahasa Indonesia in the automotive registers above is the translation of *oil* (pelumas) and *spring* (kemudi). Besides, those registers are absorbed by word-by-word translation, so that the form is equivalent without changing the meaning. Another example can be seen in the words *pembalap* and *aspal,* derived from *racer* and *tarmac.*

> (36)   *Seorang **pembalap t**idak boleh mengambil ancang-ancang terlalu jauh.*
> (37) *Banyak petarung 250 cc mencium **aspal,** akibat trek basah.*

The following examples are the absorption of word-by-word translation from two words. The word *fiberglass* is translated into *serat kaca,* while *horse power* is translated into *tenaga kuda.* Here are the examples.

> (38)   *Modifikasi fairing beken dari tahun 1990-an sampai 2000. Itu terbukti dari hasil penjualan fairing nasional
>   salah satu pemasok fairing bodi **fiberglas/serat kaca.***
> (39)   *Motor itu bermesin 2,4 liter dengan 160 **tenaga kuda** dan 3,8 (mesin v-6) dengan 240 tenaga kuda.*

Beside the assimilation of foreign automotive terms formed through word-by-word translation process (balance formation), it is found in bahasa Indonesia, formations different from word-by-word translation. Here are the examples.

> (40)   *Saat roda diarahkan ke kiri atau ke kanan, putaran diteruskan oleh **mainshaft (batang setir)** ke steering gear
>   box (rumah setir).*
> (41)   *Pada mesin Diesel zaman dahulu dikenal **sistem pemanas mula (preheating system).***

The sentences above are the result of a translation which is different from word-by-word translation. The word *main shaft* is translated into *batang setir,* while *preheating system* is translated into *sistem pemanas pemula.*

Absorption and translation at once
Generally, the absorption and translation process take two syllables or more. One part of that syllable is absorbed through spelling adjustment, group letter of foreign consonants adjustment, and also foreign affix adjustment. See the example below.

> (42)   *Saat roda diarahkan ke kiri atau ke kanan, putaran diteruskan oleh **mainshaft** (batang setir) ke **steering gear
>   box** (rumah setir).*
> (43)   *Diwajibkan memakai **blok mesin** dan **kepala silinder** dengan tanda/jenis nomor sama aslinya.*

Absorption toward Pedoman Umum Pembentukkan Istilah
The process of adopted absorption toward *Pedoman Umum Pembentukkan Istilah* includes:

Spelling Adjustment
The absorption of foreign terms into bahasa Indonesia can also be happened through spelling adjustment, and usually it still can be compared into its basic forms. The following are the description of principle of adjusting foreign spelling into bahasa Indonesia.

a.   */au/* **will always be** */au/*

According to *PUPI* (1997: 37), phoneme */au/* in foreign terms will always be */au/* in bahasa Indonesia. See the examples below.

(44) *Semua gear box F1 mempunyai 6 atau 7 percepatan gigi yang digerakan semi* **automatik**.

(45) *Pengusaha muda yang kerap suka musik-musik ceria ini banyak kenal dengan beberapa karakter komponen* **audio**.

From the spelling adjustment standpoint, it can be seen that the sentences above show a steady foreign language absorption into bahasa Indonesia. The terms *automatic* and *audio* are absorbed into bahasa Indonesia without changing the language principles.

b. */c/* **in front of** */o/, /a/, /u/* **and consonant become** */k/*

PUPI (1997: 37) elaborates that phoneme */c/* in front of */o/, /a/, /u/,* and the consonant */c/* will turn into */k/.* Here are the examples.

(46) *Bila jarak tempuh sudah mencapai 5000 km, saatnya untuk menyervis* **karburator**.

(47) *Inginnya kita memberikan pengalaman kepada para dragster di kelas* **skuter** *agar mereka tampil di even nasional.*

The terms *karburator* and *skuter* are also absorbed from automotive registers. They are taken from *carburator* and *scooter,* and then absorbed into bahasa Indonesia. Other examples of automotive terms which are absorbed and adjusted into the principles of bahasa Indonesia are:

(48) *Lebih baik periksa soket pengapian dari mulai pengapian mulai dari kabel spul, soket kapel CDI,* **koil***, dan tutup besi.*

(49) *Inginnya kita memberikan kepada para dragster di kelas* **skuter** *agar merekka tampil di even nasional.*

The terms *koil* and *skuter* are derived from *coil* and *scooter*. This change is based on the principle of bahasa Indonesia which explains that the foreign terms can be absorbed based on the spelling adjustment.

c. */cc/* **in front of** */e/* **dan** */i/* **becomes** */ks/*

PUPI (1997: 37) explains that phoneme */c/* in front of */e/, /i/, /oe/, /y/,* and */c/* becomes */s/.* Such adjustment can be seen in the following sentences:

(50)   *Ia memprediksi dalam waktu singkat akan menjamur spesialis* **servis** *ECU.*

(51)   **Kapasitasnya** *murni 990 cc, batas maksimum ditetapkan FIM.*

The words service and capacity should be transformed into servis and kapasitas, since that words have /c/ as their phonemes.

d. */cc/* **in front** */e/, /i/,* **dan** */cc/* **menjadi** */ks/*

In the principle of absorbing foreign terms in bahasa Indonesia, it is clear that phoneme */cc/* in front of */e/,* and */i/,* will become */ks/* (PUPI, 1997: 37). The following sentences are the example of such adjustment.

(52) *Hal tersebut disesuaikan dengan meningkatnya* **akselerasi.**...

(53) *"Jangan ngaku anak gaul kalau belum memakai* **aksesori** *ini", tantangnya dengan nada meninggi.*

e. */ea/* **spelled** */i/* **becomes** */i/*

If there is a phoneme */ea/* which is spelled */i/,* it will be changed into */i/* (*PUPI,* 1997: 38). Here are the examples of automotive terms which absorbed into bahasa Indonesia based on the process of spelling adjustment.

(54) *Petaka hampir mendera* **tim** *dan pembalap yang berlaga sejak lomba belum dimulai.*

(55) *"***Sil** *jadi cepat aus dan pernya juga gampang lemah", bilang Dedi "Dewa" Sukandar, wakil ketua Trabas, klub yang sering beradventur di daerah Jabar.*

The words *tim* and *sil* are derived from *team* and *seal.* Both words are absorbed from the automotive terms.

f. */ou/ spelled /u/* becomes */u/*
PUPI (1997: 40) elaborates that if there is a phoneme */ou/* spelled */u/*, it will turn into */u/*. The examples of such adjustment in automotive terms which absorbed into bahasa Indonesia can be seen below.

(56) *Lantaran sering **turing** dan membawa barang terlalu banyak, Land Rover (LR) milik Edi Mulyono kerap kepenuhan.*

(57) *"Rute ini bisa dikatakan **rute** yang relatif ringan mengingat keterbatasan waktu untuk acara pengukuhan," ungkap Makhad kepada Otokir Plus.*

Since they have phoneme */ou/, touring* and *route* must be adjusted into *turing* and *rute*, since that words are absorbed into bahasa Indonesia through spelling adjustment.

g. *phonem /y/ spells /i/* becomes */i/*
If there is a phoneme */y/* spelled */i/* in the foreign terms, it will become */i/* in bahasa Indonesia (PUPI, 1997: 43). Such example can be seen in the following examples.

(58) *Mengapa **dinamo** wiper selalu saja rusak, padahal belum lama saya menggantinya di bengkel resmi opel.*
(59) *Dasar yang sangat prinsip **bodi** piston tidak sama.*

Dynamo and *body* have phoneme /y/, so based on PUPI; the spelling must be adjusted into *dinamo* and *bodi.*

Foreign Consonant Group Adjustment
The term absorption of adjusting foreign consonant groups includes:

a. Consonant Group Letters in the Initial/Middle Position
    Consonant Group of *cr-* becomes *kr-*
PUPI (1997: 44) explains that if there is a consonant group letter */cr-/*, therefore it transforms into */kr-/*. The example of automotive register which experiences such transformation can be seen in the following sentence.
    (60)   *Biar tambah cling blok mesin, segi tiga stang dan peranti lain dari metal*
        dikrom.
b. Consonant Group Letter in the Final Position
    Consonant Group of *ck-* becomes
PUPI (1997: 45) states that if there is a consonant group letter */ck-/*, therefore it transforms into */k-/*. The example of automotive register which experiences such transformation can be seen in the following sentence.

(61) *Sil oli terletak di sebelah kiri **blok** mesin, ada di antara rumah V-belt dan kruk-as.*
(62) *Banyak petarung 250 cc mencium aspal, akibat **trek** basah.*

The word *blok is* transformed from *block,* while *trek* is transformed from *track.*

Consonant Group of *-ct* becomes *-k*
PUPI (1997: 45) elaborates that if there is a consonant group of letter */ct-/* in the final position of a word, therefore it should be transformed into */-k/*. The example of automotive register which experiences such transformation can be seen in the following sentence.
    (63)   *Katanya sih, metode itu mengacu **kontruksi** Honda CR.*
    (64)   *Mekanisme 4 klep sering dilengkapi sistem **injeksi** bahan bakar.*

Foreign Affix Adjustment
The foreign affix is considered as an affix if it is easily absorbed into bahasa Indonesia. It means that those affixes do not only use in its origin language, but also makes other forms of vocabularies in bahasa Indonesia. Such adjustment can only be found in the suffix forms.

a. Suffix Adjustment
Suffix *–sion, -tion* become *–si*
    PUPI (1997:53) affirms that if there is a foreign term which has suffix {*–sion*} or {*–tion*}, therefore those suffix turn into {*si-*} in bahasa Indonesia. The example of such adjustment can be seen in the following sentences.

126

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(65) *Dibanding* **transmisi** *manual, mobkas matik memang cenderung jatuh harga pasarnya.*
(66) *"Aturan* **emisi** *gas buang masih mengacu peraturan 1992. Jadi, tampaknya impian langit bersih masih jauh," tutup Dr. Budiawan.*

Transmisi and *emisi* are derived from *transmission* and *precision,* which have {–*sio*} as their suffix. So that, those Indonesian words should be transformed as what *PUPI* (1997) has mentioned.

Besides, the foreign terms which have {–*tion*} as their suffix, should obey the principle of the absorption process in bahasa Indonesia. It is should also transformed into suffix {–*s*}. Thus, the word *configuration* and *regulation* should also use {–*si*} as their suffix, as what can we see in the sentences below.
(67) *Konsekuensinya jarak sumbu roda yang tinggal 1,250 mm berdampak pada pergeseran* **konfigurasi** *v di rangka atas.*
(68) **Regulasi** *region membuat para road recer Sumatera terancam batal ke Sentul.*

CONCLUSION
The use of absorption elements of foreign terms in automotive field into bahasa Indonesia can enrich and give positive impact toward the development of bahasa Indonesia. From the morphological aspect, it can be seen that foreign automotive terms can be formed through (1) affixation e.g. *Maskat alias si Boss dari Sito Racing Tea, yang kerap* **menyetting** *vesva road race, nongol jadi Marshal*, (2) reduplication e.g. *Hal ini terlihat dari* **maneuver-manuver** *adventurnya di jalan nonaspal*, and (3) abbreviation e.g. *Tim F1 Sauber menjadi perusahaan pertama yang membuat mesin* **GP (Grand Prix)** *motor.(4) acronym e.g. Praktik pengelasannya sama persis dengan metode* **Shielded Metal Arc Welding (SMAW)** *atau lebih dikenal dengan las listrik (5) Symbol Letters Form for example Kapasitas mesin tesebut maksimum mencapai 13,5 hp pada 3.600* **rpm**. The affixation process includes the use of prefix {*me*-}, {*ber*}-, {*di*-}, {*ter*-}, and {*pe*-} for the words **mem**balancer, **ber**-safely belt, **di**tune up, **ter**modif. The reduplication forms are usually lexeme repetition. The meaning and function of those repetition words are generally used to describe plural things. The abbreviations of foreign automotive words have the forms of maintaining first letter of each component, while the acronyms have the following forms (a) maintaining first letter of each component e.g. *PT Nissan Motor (NMI) mulai mengeluarkan jurus baru untuk tetap bercokol di segmen* **SUV** *(Sport Utility Vehicle)*, (b) maintaining some letters of a word, e.g. *Pilih suspensi paling tepat adalah monosok* **Suzi** *Satria yang hemat uang ,* and (c) maintaining some letters from two words, e.g. *Seakan menjadi kebanggaan tersendiri bagi* **motcin** *asal Chonqin bersanding dengan pabrikan Jepang tersebut*. Then, foreign automotive language terms in the form of symbol letter represent a measurement for example: rpm.

From the phonological standpoint, the process of absorbing foreign automotive terms into bahasa Indonesia can be categorized into for processes, as follows (a) a whole absorption e.g. *Producen oli makin intens menguyur promosi di ajang* **road race,** (b) absorption through translating, e.g. *Motor itu bermesin 2,4 liter dengan 160 tenaga kuda dan 3,8 (mesin v-6) dengan 240 tenaga kuda,* (c) absorption and translation at once, *for e.g. saat roda diarahkan ke kiri atau ke kanan, putaran diteruskan oleh* **mainshaft** *(batang setir) ke* **steering gear box** *(rumah setir).*

The absorption process through translation can be grouped into two translation forms, such as (a) word-by-word translation (balance form) e.g. fiberglass ***(gelas kaca),*** and (b) a translation which does not result a word-by-word translation e.g. mainshaft (batang setir).

The translation process through adjusting the writing forms can be classified into three types, as follows (a) spelling adjustment *e.g. carburator (karburator),* (b) foreign consonant group adjustment *e.g.* accelerasi *to be akselerasi,* and (c) foreign affix adjustment for example –{-tion} to be {-si} in word regula**tion** to be *regula**si.***

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EFL LEARNERS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES: A QUALITATIVE INVESTIGATION

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ABSATRACT
The purpose of this study was to understand learners' perceptions towards communication strategies (CSs). Fifteen upper-intermediate learners of English as a foreign language in an intact group were exposed to explicit teaching of communication strategies during 18 sessions of instruction along with their normal syllabus. Participants of the study were interviewed at the end of the course to elicit their attitudes about the treatment and communication strategies. The interviews were recorded, transcribed and analyzed in a qualitative approach. The analysis of the interviews revealed that learners were enthusiastic to use communication strategies in their L2 learning process. Moreover, "Use of all purpose words, Word coinage, Literal translation, Code switching, Nonverbal strategies, Use of fillers, Restructuring, and Asking for repetition" were eight more effective strategies from the perceptions of learners. Findings of the study have implications in helping learners overcome their communication problems in different contexts. Also, language teaching pedagogy can benefit from implementing teaching communication strategies in its syllabuses.

KEYWORDS: Communication Strategies, Learners' attitudes, Qualitative study

INTRODUCTION
Communication is simply defined as a process in which a message is sent from senders to receivers. Technically, it is said that the sender encodes a message and the receiver decodes it (Thao, 2005). Modern language teaching and learning has emphasized the significance of cultivating communicative competence in second language (L2) learners (Canale & Swain, 1980). Communicative competence is composed of four sub-competencies: linguistic, sociolinguistic, discourse and strategic competence (Canale, 1983). The first three involve knowledge of the language code, the socio-cultural constraints and rules guiding the use of the language code, and of the rules of discourse necessary to produce coherent and cohesive messages. Strategic competence, however, involves the ability to use problem-solving devices in an effort to overcome communication problems which is derived from lack of knowledge and ability in any of the other sub-competencies.
Both non-native and native speakers of a given language sometimes attempt to find the appropriate expression or grammatical construction when trying to communicate their meaning. They need to employ some devices in order to reach their communication goals. Wenden (1986) stated: "Communication strategies refer to techniques learners use when there is a gap between their knowledge of the language and their communicative intent". The ability to deal with communication difficulties is referred to as "strategic competence" and these problem-solving devices are Communication Strategies.

By the emergence of more learner-centered methods and the presence of growing attention to learners' emic perspectives toward language learning process, investigating learners' perceptions of these communication strategies seems to be a point of a great importance to work on.

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE
Communication Strategies

The study of communication strategies has received quite a lot of attention in the field of SLA and as a result, a considerable amount of both theoretical and empirical research has been accumulated in this area. Communication strategies were first defined by Selinker (1972) in his account of the processes for inter-language. Bialystok (1990) comprehensively analyzed CSs for second language use and Dornyei (1995) classified different types of CSs. Nine taxonomies of communication strategies have been developed in the language teaching literature. Although several definitions have been proposed for second-language CSs (for example, Canale & Swain, 1980; Corder, 1981; Færch & Kasper, 1983; Dörnyei & Scott, 1997; Nakatani 2005, 2006), there has not been complete agreement on a single definition of CSs because of the range of strategies involved (Dörnyei, 1995). Different definitions have focused on different aspects. Some emphasized the interaction process in communication (Gass & Varonis, 1990; Rost & Ross, 1991), but others considered the behaviors of problem-solving arising from gaps in speakers' linguistic knowledge (Nakatani, 2005; Poulisse, 1990).

In some studies, the CSs were seen as problem-solving devices divided into two levels: consciousness and problem-orientedness. The former was studied by Dörnyei and Scott (1995a, 1995b), Schmidt (1994), and Varadi (1983), while the latter was examined by Varadi (1992), Færch and Kasper (1983), and Bialystok (1984, 1990). As different types of definitions evolved, they led to many different categories of CSs (see Dörnyei & Scott, (1997) for a summary of the various definitions). Other researchers have focused on several different aspects of CS use, most of them examining the frequency of CSs used by students at a particular level (Wannaruk, 2003; Khaopet, 1996). The psycholinguistic perspective of Faérch and Kasper (1983, 1984) and the interactional view of Tarone (1980) have been widely employed to investigate the application of CSs. Dörnyei and scott (1997) examined trend in second language communication strategies research and offered the major CS taxonomies and a comprehensive list of strategic language devices. Some studies have indicated that the use of communication strategies was greatly affected by English-speaking proficiency (e.g., Rost & Ross, 1991; Huang & Naerssen, 1987) and task type (e.g., Poulisse, 1990; Wongsawang, 2001; Weerarak, 2003; Nakatani, 2005) in communication process since the selection of CS types varies according to these factors.

Teaching CSs:
There have been arguments for and against teaching communication strategies among researchers during years. Nakatani (2005) found that participants in the strategy training group significantly improved their oral proficiency test scores, whereas improvements in the control group were not significant. In particular, many scholars believe that meta-cognitive strategies, which focus on raising the learner's awareness of the learning process, might enhance L2 skills (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Wenden, 1991).

O'Malley and Chamot, (1990) examined whether meta-cognitive, cognitive, and social/ affective strategies could be taught successfully in an English as a second language (ESL) classroom context. They integrated tasks involving listening, speaking, and vocabulary training and found that their strategy training had a significant effect on performance in a speaking task, but that it had no effect on performance in vocabulary and listening tasks. This mixed finding on strategy training in the classroom setting suggests that although strategies can be taught, the success rate of the instruction is not always predictable. In general, O'Malley et al. (1985)'s results indicate the usefulness of meta-cognitive training that aims at raising students' awareness of strategies to help them deliver meaningful messages in speaking tasks. They examined the teachability of communication strategies by focusing on whether the training of a specific strategy enhanced the quantity and quality of learners' strategy use. His study was conducted in high school EFL classrooms in Hungary over a period of 6 weeks. A significant improvement was found among the participants in the strategy training group in the quality and quantity of strategy use and in their overall speech performance. In this study, the researchers attempted to examine the usefulness of teaching CSs from the learners' points of view and find out which strategies are more helpful from their perspectives.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS
Present study tried to answer the following questions in order to meet the purpose of the study:

1. What are the attitudes of EFL learners toward communication strategies?
2. Which strategies are more effective from the learners' perspectives?

METODOLOGY
Participants
The participants in this study included 15 upper-intermediate female students. Their age ranged from 16 to 20. They had been studying English for about four years at Kimya Institute in Sanandaj, Iran before the treatment of this study. An intact class (non-random) sampling was used to select the participants.

Instruments
Semi-structured interviews and reflection journals were the instruments to gather data for this study. Each learner was interviewed individually. They answered questions about their knowledge and feeling about CSs and their attitudes toward them. Seven questions were directed to the learners in the interviews. These questions were shown to two judges to ensure their relevance and feasibility. The judges were two experienced university professors holding Ph.D. degree in TEFL with eight and nine years of experience.

Procedures
The group underwent 27 hours of instruction, three days a week, 90 minutes a day, for 18 sessions. Participants studied units 9, 10, 11 and 12 of the book *Interchange 3, third edition* by *Jack C. Richards with Jonathan Hull and Susan Proctor* in a 6-week English as a Foreign Language (EFL) course based on a communicative approach. The group (*n* = 15) received deductive training for CSs. The researcher was also the teacher of the classes which in turn provided the cooperative condition for participants in an action research.

Data Collection Procedures
After the treatment period, all 15 members were interviewed in their L1. The interviews were recorded, transcribed and analyzed. Also, each participant had to render a journal, reflecting her idea about communication strategies and the effects of the treatment phase on her language learning procedures. The aim of using this self-report reflection paper was to obtain detailed information on the learners' awareness and employment of CSs and their attitudes toward the use of each communication strategy in addition to the interviews. This paper helps ensure the reliability of the interviews. It can be a means to be collated with what was said in interviews to ensure the reliability of the responses (Johnson, 1997). According to Keats (2000), recording the interview helps improve the reliability. Students' oral performance was recorded to measure the reliability of the measuring instruments. The Recorded tapes were shown to the above mentioned judges. Also, One-to-one interviews with standardized questions appeared to have the highest reliability.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS
In order to get the results from the learners, questions of the interview were directed to the students through a semi-structured interview, and then reflection papers were scrutinized. Following responses were made by the learners through interviews based on 7 questions and reflection papers.

The first question was whether the students were familiar or had used CSs prior to this instruction experience. In response to this question, all the students declared that they had used one or two CSs, but they didn't know that they were called communication strategies.

The second question was: Now that you are familiar with these CSs, do you want or wish to use CSs more often? Interestingly, the presented answers to the second question were as homogenous as the ones to the first one. As a result, all the respondents expressed tendency to employ CSs more than before.

The third related question which students were supposed to answer was as follow: From your point of view, what CS would be more effective in order to have a more successful communication? Their responses to this question were, to some extent, different and divergent from answers to the other first two ones. However, totally 12 strategies, listed below, were introduced by the learners as more effective ones in this regard:

1. All-purpose word use
2. Omission
3. Feigning understanding
4. Foreignizing
5. Word coinage
6. Literal translation
7. Code switching
8. Nonverbal strategies

9. Comprehension check
10. Restructuring
11. Approximation
12. Asking for repetition.

As the fourth question, learners were asked to give a proper answer to the following query:

Which CS do you think can be more effective in each skill (speaking, reading, listening, and writing)? The following strategies were recognized and announced by the learners in terms of the question to be suitable and more influential for the corresponding skills:

Ten strategies were reported by the learners to be helpful in Speaking: 1. Mumbling, 2. Restructuring, 3. Use of fillers, 4. Over Explicitness, 5. Code switching, 6. Word coinage, 7. Nonverbal strategies, 8. Foriegnizing, 9. Use of all-purpose words and finally,10. Similar sounding words use.

Concerning writing skill, the following eight strategies were declared by the learners to be the fruitful ones: 1. Over-explicitness, 2.Restructuring, 3. Interpretative summary, 4. Paraphrasing, 5. Word-coinage, 6. Summarizing, 7. Use of all-purpose words, and 8. Use of fillers.

Also, four strategies seemed, from their perspectives, to be more dominant and effective for listening skill: 1. Asking for clarification, 2. Asking for repetition, 3. feigning understanding, and 4. Asking for confirmation.

Surprisingly and unlike the fairly long list of strategies for the other three skills, the result for reading was as follow: just two learners mentioned that they can use Message reduction and Word-coinage. The rest mentioned no strategies in this regard!

In response to question five of the interview, fourteen members of the group had presented a positive response. The question was: Do you think that these CSs helped you to be more willing to communicate in different contexts? Learners declared that using these strategies, they could have better and more successful communications in different contexts, even in their first language.

The sixth question was: Do you think this explicit teaching of CSs is useful and should be a part of language learning programs? All of the learners except P showed interest and sense of welcoming to implementing teaching these CSs in different levels of SLA. But six learners found these strategies suitable just for high level students.

Learners' General attitude towards CSs was the seventh question which students were expected to provide answers for. To add up the answers to this question, the following results were extracted from learners' responses:

Nine students said that using these CSs, they had less difficulty in doing some activities in class and while speaking English outside the classroom. Fourteen students mentioned that they learned new words and how to say unknown words in English. Only P said that she did not see any improvement in her speaking.

Hence, the following answer to the first research question is obtained from what learners said in the interviews and reflection papers:

Students' attitudes toward strategy training and the usefulness of CSs were favorable. The explicit teaching of CSs helped students be aware of the existence of the strategies and get to know their roles and applications in communication. They mentioned that these strategies encouraged them to be more willing to communicate and create tendency in learners to utilize them. Learners' responses to the strategy training were positive. Learners also said that they got more interested and had marked tendency for communication and to speak in English.

With regard to the second question of the current study, the following answer was obtained:

"Using all-purpose words, Word coinage, Literal translation, Code switching, Nonverbal strategies, Use of fillers, Restructuring, and Asking for repetition", were eight most frequent strategies used by learners to answer the questions in interviews and reasonably more effective strategies from the perceptions of learners. As a result, the majority of the participants noticed some improvements in their speech. The main practice of the current study was explicit teaching of communication strategies. Learners mentioned that they learnt new words, how to say unknown words in English and how to ask for clarification. Only one learner said that she did not see any improvement in her

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speech. Overall, the learners' responses to the strategy training were positive. They were mostly aware of some changes in their speaking after the strategy training.

CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this study was to find out about learners' attitudes toward communication strategies. The results indicated that the learners' great interest and willingness of using and learning these communication strategies is clear cut. Accordingly, it can be concluded that the overall process of teaching CSs was welcomed by the learners and they found that employing these strategies would easily improve their skills, except for reading since only two of the subjects mentioned the usefulness of "Message reduction" and "Word-coinage" as strategies to help them improve their reading ability.

Also, qualitative analyses revealed that the learners were fond of learning and employing CSs. Another important conclusion which can be inferred from the results is that "use of all-purpose words, Word coinage, Literal translation, Code switching, Nonverbal strategies, Use of fillers, Restructuring and Asking for repetition" were eight more effective strategies from the learners' perceptions.

The findings of this study have implications in the field of foreign language teaching for higher education. Raising students' awareness of the communication problems they might come across and of the advantages to apply different CSs in order to overcome their communication problems in different contexts can be included as part of the teaching program . The ability to choose more appropriate CSs and to use them in a more creative and efficient way are useful skills that these students might acquire. Communication strategies are useful devices to enhance learners' awareness of the nature of communication. CSs are identified as factors that can be presented as topics in L2 syllabuses. CSs can also contribute to creating WTC by increasing learners' responsibility.

Limitations of the study

This study suffers from some limitations in its execution. First, there are limitations of the effect of gender and age on the study. All the members were female and their ages range from 16 to 20. The age range, gender, and L1 background (Persian, Kurdish) are not considered as variables in this study. Second, the participants are not randomly selected, instead they are members of an upper-intermediate intact class. Moreover, the number of participants in this study was limited to 15 students. Thus, the findings of this study might be generalized to other societies with caution and can suggest the ideas for further researches on communication strategies to be done while trying to avoid these limitations.

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133

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AN ANALYSIS OF ERRORS IN WRITING AMONG ADULT PERSIAN LEARNERS OF ENGLISH

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ABSTRACT
Learning a foreign language is a complex process where there are no enough exposures to the learners. This will affect on different skills learners try to learn. This study investigates writing skills in adult Persian-speaking learners from Iran who were learning English at Parsa language institute in Bavanat, Fars. To do so, 40 Persian learners of English participated in the study. They were asked to write about two different topics based on their book (Top Notch 1A). For data analysis the researcher followed Keshavarz (2001) and Corder (1973) model of error analysis: first errors were identified and then the researcher classified them into three major categories, they are: 1. Orthographic Errors, 2. Syntactico-morphological Errors, and 3. Lexico-semantic Errors. Then the errors were categorized into four subcategories based on Corder (1973): omissions, additions, misformation and misordering. The results of the study showed that errors in foreign language learning can be seen as a natural phenomenon and also the crucial role of L1 is inevitable. For learners, error analysis is important as it shows the areas of difficulty in their writing. Outcomes of the study may be helpful for teachers to be more careful about learners` performances in the process of learning a foreign language.

KEYWORDS: Errors, Error analysis, Interlingual errors, Second Language Learning

INTRODUCTION
As far as second language acquisition is concerned, both behaviorist psychologists and structural linguists believed that native language habits which are acquired during childhood as part of maturational processes interfere with the acquisition of second language habits which are usually quite different from the habits of mother tongue. In other words, second or foreign language learners will tend to transfer to their second language (L2) utterances the formal features of their first language (L1).

The concept of learning has been mainly affected by the psychological study of the learning process. This concept of learning goes far beyond learning directly from a teacher or learning through study or practice. It includes not only learning skills (for example, driving or playing an instrument), or the acquisition of knowledge, but it also refers to learning to learn and learning to think. Ellis (1997, p.3) defines the second language learning as "the way in which people learn a language other than their mother tongue, inside or outside of a classroom".

Second language acquisition (SLA) involves some factors. One of the most important of which is L1. L1 can affect L2 from two perspectives named the product and the process perspective. In product perspective, the focus is on those errors which are the results of negative transfer from L1. The process perspective is defined as the act of writing through thinking aloud. Learner's role is also an important factor in SLA. Teachers and instructors know that students can't easily do an academic writing. According to Kaplan (1983), culture makes the rhetoric and every rhetorical pattern has a preference in each culture. So, differences in rhetoric patterns can cause a conflict for students, between their learning of the native language and their expectation from native speakers of English. In transfer process not only L1 affects L2, but also L2 has some effects on L2.

Lado (1957) stated "the easiest L2 structures (and presumably first acquired) are those which exist in L1 with the same form, meaning, and distribution and are thus available for positive transfer; any structure in L2 which has a form not occurring in L1 needs to be learned, but this is not likely to be very difficult if it has the same meaning and distribution as an "equivalent" in L1; among the most difficult are structures where there is partial overlap but not equivalence in form, meaning, and/or distribution, and these are most likely to cause interference. "Behaviorist

accounts claim that transfer is the cause of errors, whereas from a cognitive perspective, transfer is seen as a resource that the learner actively draws upon in interlanguage development (Selinker, 1972)."

Some findings show that the process of learning the second language is nearly the same as the native language. Making lots of mistakes by a child who wants to learn his or her native language is considered a natural process of language acquisition. Adults help them by giving feedbacks and by this way they will gradually produce grammatically and semantically correct sentences. Errors are unavoidable in learning a foreign language. Teachers should first recognize the errors made by the students and block some of these errors by giving feedbacks to them.

The focus of this paper is on error analysis in writing. First, we need to know what error analysis is. According to Richards and Schmidt (2002:184) error analysis is "the study and analysis of the errors made by second language learners".

Nowadays, we can't consider learner's errors as a negative aspect of language learning but a way to improve our language skills. According to Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982), the error analysis can help learners to understand the language learning process. It also helps the teachers and tutors to decide on materials which are suitable for their students. In error analysis, while interference from the learner`s mother tongue is acknowledged as a source of errors it is by no means considered to be the only source. In fact, one of the major contributions of error analysis was its recognition of the sources of errors which extend beyond just interlingual errors in learning a second language. It is now clear that interlingual and developmental errors play an important role in second language learning. Interlingual errors result from the transfer of phonological, morphological, grammatical, lexico-semantic, and stylistic elements of the learner`s mother tongue to the learning of the target language. Developmental errors are those that do not reflect native language structure, but are found in L1 acquisition data of the target language. For example" *He took his *teeths* off".

Based on Keshavarz (2001, p.32) it can be concluded that error analysis is based on three important assumptions as follows:

1. Errors are inevitable as we cannot learn a language, be it first or second, without committing errors.
2. Errors are significant in different ways.
3. Not all errors are attributable to the learner`s mother tongue, i.e. first language interference is not the only source of errors.

This study investigated adult pre- intermediate level EFL written work of Bavanat, Fars, Persian First Language speakers to find out their errors in writing. The learners` errors in writing were collected, analyzed and classified in order to find types of errors in their writings and also try to find the source of their errors.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE
Errors committed by language learners especially errors in writing, have been the focus of most teachers. Writing is the most complex and the most difficult skill to master. It's the most challenging subject matter among four skills.

Error analysis was first introduced by Fries (1945) and Lado (1957) who have claimed that learners of foreign or second language make errors during their learning process and theses errors could be predicted based on differences between their native language and second language in which they are learning. They proposed that where the features of the target language are similar to those of the learners ` native language, learning will be easy; otherwise, it will be difficult and second language learners are expected to make errors.

Huang (2006) did a study about Taiwanese English majors' writing errors based on a web-based writing program. The results showed that committing errors were usage (55%), mechanics (20%), style (16%) and grammar (9%). Huang came to the conclusion that most of students commit writing errors not because of insufficient command of linguistic complexity, but for the usage of incomplete sentences or subject-verb agreement.

In another study, Keiko (2003) gave 36 university freshmen Japanese students 32 written tasks. His focus was on article errors, omission; unnecessary insertion; and confusion. He wanted students to read a short story and then 1. To make a summary 2. To answer a question 3. To create an original sequel and 4. To write a critique. His study examined two kinds of errors namely article errors and preposition errors. Findings showed that students had difficulty in understanding of the articles and using them and they excessively relied on oversimplified textbooks.

Summaira Sarfraz (2011) registered error analysis of English writings of Pakistani undergraduate students. The results revealed that most of errors were grammatical, resulting from Interlanguage process. Other error was learner's carelessness in writing which was related to lack of motivation.

In their study (Azizi et al,2012) found Eleven categories of errors were found to be most common which concerned articles, possessives, prepositions, pronouns, singular/plural, subject-verb agreement, verbs, infinitive "to", word choice and spelling. They concluded that errors in L2 learner's writings are unavoidable.

RESEARCH QUESTION
The present study sought to answer the following questions:
1. What are the most common language errors made in English writing by adult Persian learners?

2. How frequent do these errors occur in their English L2 written work?

METHODOLOGY
Participants
Approximately 40 Persian learners, both male and female, participated in this study. Participants were Persian-speaking learners from Iran who were learning English at Parsa language institute in Bavanat, Fars, Iran. All of the participants had B.A degree in different fields except English. They were allotted to pre-intermediate level after taking a proficiency TOEFL test. In order to analyze and find the source of errors they were divided in two groups. Their writings were corrected and errors extracted.

Materials
To figure out errors made by learners in this study, they were asked to write about two different topics. The topics were chosen according to their book (Top Notch 1 A). Learners` writings were used as an instrument to analyze their understanding.

Data Collection Procedures
The choice of appropriate procedures for collecting data is, in fact, one of the crucial steps in the investigation of the learner`s language. The data collected for this research were based on learners` writing about given topics. Writing was carried out in a guided way, the topic of writing was given to them and they were asked to write about for next session.

Data Analysis Procedures
After errors have been collected and identified, it is necessary to describe and classify them in linguistic terms. By doing this we will be able to build up a picture of the features of the target language which causes problems for the learners. Thus, a well- organized and systematic linguistic taxonomy of errors is a necessary prerequisite to an assessment of the general nature and causes of errors. To analyze data collected by the researcher, a model proposed by Keshavarz (2001) used. Different steps used to analyze data: first, identification of errors, the researcher tried to find out errors by underlying the errors. Second, classification of errors. They were classified into three main categories: 1. Orthographic Errors, 2. Syntactico-morphological Errors, and 3. Lexico-semantic Errors. Then the errors were categorized into four subcategories based on Corder (1973): *omissions, additions, misformation and misordering*.

The last part of data analysis was to calculate errors to know their frequency in sentences made by learners. Once the errors were calculated and arranged, the result of the analysis was shown in different tables.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
As previously mentioned the purpose of this study is to find the common errors and their source in Persian speakers learning English. To do this learner`s writing collected, errors extracted, and categorized. Errors are categorized into

three main categories: 1. Orthographic Errors, 2. Syntactico-morphological Errors, and 3. Lexico-semantic Errors. The presentation of the error analysis is developed in the following way:

1.   Firstly, introduction of the strategy taxonomy of the error.
2.   Secondly, a specific example of the error taxonomy presented Learners` writing.
3.   Thirdly, error analysis.
4.   Finally, errors made by Persian speakers learners, classified based on their source.

After errors collected, about 120 errors were found in learners` writing. Table 1 shows the frequency of errors in three categories.

Table 1: Frequency of Errors

	Orthography	Syntactico-morphological	Lexico-semantic	Total
Number of Errors	19	76	25	120
Percentage %	%16	%63	%21	%100

Orthographic Errors
1. "*I tink she is 28 years old."   2. "*My favorite color is blak."

These two sentences are examples of spelling errors found in learners` writing. For the first one, ("*tink") errors may due to lack of certain target language phonemes (vowels or consonants) in the learners` mother tongue. For instances, the English phonemes/ θ / and /ð/do not exist in Persian. Therefore, Persian speaker learners of English have problems with these sounds.

For the second one , ("*blak") because of certain letters in English are silent in other words they are spelled but not pronounced and this causes a lot of problems for EFL learners as they tend to pronounce theses silent letters.

Syntactico-morphological Errors
One of the goals in teaching English as a foreign language in Iran is to help learners master in the area of linguistics and to help them produce grammatically correct sentences. But such strategies have not been successful so far. This study showed that this objects are mostly unreachable. As tables 1, and 2 show almost everyone has some grammatical problems in his/her writing (% 63 of learners in this study).

In table 2 the researcher classified errors into four subcategories based on Corder (1973) model.

Table 2: Syntactic Errors

Types of Errors	Example Sentence	Error Analysis
Omission	*My husband is employee.	omission of the indefinite article a/an
Addition	*I have like park.	redundant use of verb
Misformation	* She watching TV every night.	wrong form of tense
Misordering	* I have a room blue.	wrong use of word order

Omission
3.*My husband is θ employee.   Showhar-e man karmand ast.   "Husband-ezafe my employee is".
"My husband is an employee."

Omission is considered to be the absence of an item that should appear in a well-formed utterance. In this sample, L1 conjugation influenced learners` L2 grammatical structures, affecting directly the rules and modifying the usages of L2 grammar categories. Based on Spratt et al. (2005, p. 44), this indicates interference. The authors point out that "an interference or transfer is an influence from the learner's first language (L1) on the second language".

In the underlined part of this sentence, learner omitted the indefinite article "an" before the noun, as a result of the Persian influence since in this language people normally do not use indefinite article before nouns.

Addition

4.*I <u>have</u> like park.
Man park ra doust daram.   "I park like."
"I like park."

Addition is considered to be the presence of an item that should not appear in a well-formed utterance. This error was unconsciously made, because her learning process has just started and learners had been working out how to organize the elements that comprise L2. As can be seen, their process was not yet complete. This kind of error is called developmental error (Spratt et al, 2005). In the underlined part of this sentence, learner added the verb **"have"** to a present simple sentence because she/he probably assumes that the verb "**have**" has to be in this sentence.

Misformation
5.*She <u>watching</u> TV every night.
Ou har shab telvisioun negah mikonad.   "He every night television watches."
"He watches television every night."

Misformation is considered to be the use of the wrong form of the morpheme or structure. It is clear that "watching" for "watches" is the wrong use of form, but why call it "misformation"?It is not, no more than "watching" is a misformation of "watches". What the learner who produced this error has done is not misform but misselect, and these should be called misselection errors. (James, 1939).

Misordering
6.* I have a <u>room blue</u>.
Man yek otagh abi daram.   "I a room blue have."
"I have a blue room."

Misordering is considered to be the incorrect placement of a morpheme or group of morphemes in an utterance. In the underlined part of the sentence the learner incorrectly ordered the words in this sentence. As Dulay, Burt and Krashen observe, misordering is often the result of learners relying on carrying out "word-for-word translation of native language surface structures" (1982:163) when producing written or spoken utterances in the TL. Here the Persian learner uses the word order of her/his mother tongue in order to make an adjective phrase.

Lexico-semantic Errors

Table 3: Lexico-Semantic Errors

Type of Errors	Example Sentences
Cross Association	*I work 7 o`clock in a day.
False Cognates	*She sold her old machine two years ago.
Wrong use of words	*We listened to her speak.

Cross-association
7.*I work 7 <u>o`clock</u> in a day.
Man 7 saat dar ruz kar mikonam.   "I 7 hours a day work."
"I work 7 hours a day."

It refers to cases where there are two words in the TL for which there is only one word in the learner's mother tongue. As a result, the learner may use that single word in two senses in the target language. The reason for this error is that in Persian, the word /sa? æt/ is used for both "hour" and "o`clock".

False Cognates
8.*She sold her old <u>machine</u> two years ago.
Ou machine- e ghadimiyash ra 2 sal ghabl foroukht."

139

IJLLALW

" He car-ezafe old his 2 years ago sold."   "He sold his old car 2 years ago."
This type of error indicates a word which has the same or very similar form in two languages, but which has a different meaning in each. The similarity may cause a second language learner to use the word wrongly.The word "machine" in this sentence is used because of the influence of its cognate /maʃin/ "car" in Persian.

Wrong use of words
9.*We listened to her <u>speak</u>.
Ma be sohbat ou ghosh dadim.   "We to speech his listened."
"We listened to his speech."

In this case a verb is substituted for a noun because of lack of knowledge of TL vocabulary. In this type of error, the learner goes beyond what he knows of the target language, i.e. he talks about things and events for which he does not possess correct vocabulary items or grammatical patterns.

Sources of Errors
Interlingual and Developmental Errors
Interlingual and developmental errors are caused by the mutual interference of items in the target language, i.e. the influence of one target language item upon another. For example, a learner may produce ***He is comes**, based on a blend of the English structures: **He is coming**, and **He comes**. Such errors reflect the learner`s competence at a particular stage of second language development and illustrate some of the general characteristics of language learning, i.e. they are similar to errors produced by monolingual English children. In other words, they result from the learner`s attempt to build up concepts and hypothesis about the target language from his limited experience with it (Keshavarz, 2001). Burt (1974) classified errors based on their source into three broad categories:

a. Developmental (i.e. those errors that are similar to L1 acquisition).
b. Interlingual (i.e. those errors that reflect the structure of the L1).Different types of interlingual errors include: Transfer of phonological elements of L1, Transfer of morphological elements, Transfers of grammatical elements, and transfer of lexico-semantic elements.
c. Unique (i.e. those errors that are neither developmental nor interference).

Some samples were taken from Persian learners writing and were classified in two main categories: developmental and interference (see Table 4). As can be seen in the table, the composition does not have a "unique" error type. Additionally, the samples evidence the learner's will to get the message across.

Table 4: Interlingual and Developmental Errors

Interlingual Errors			Developmental Errors		
Type of Errors	Number	%	**Type of Errors**	Number	%
Omission of preposition	5		Omission of plural markers	9	
Addition of preposition	8		Omission of regular past tense marker	6	
Verb-number disagreement	2		Omission of irregular past tense marker	5	
Inappropriate preposition	6		Omission of third person singular	8	
Subject-verb inversion	3		Misordering of auxiliary	4	
Use of typical Persian structure	8		Inappropriate part of speech	5	
Omission of subject	2		Omission of copula	1	
Wrong use of negative construction	3		Wrong use of quantifier and intensifier	1	
Total number of errors	37	30.5		39	32.5

Discussion
Over the past few decades there has been a significant change in foreign language methodologies and materials. Similarly, there has been a significant change of attitudes towards students` errors. Throughout the fifties and well

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into the sixties a rather negative attitude towards errors was prevalent. With the emergence of error analysis, as a reaction to contrastive analysis, and with the wave of research interest in the processes and strategies of first and second language acquisition, second language learners` errors gained unprecedented significance. Errors were no longer considered as evil signs of failure, in teaching/learning, to be eradicated at any cost; rather, they were seen as a necessary part of language learning process. The findings of the study revealed that errors are part of learners` performances in learning a foreign language. In this study learners` errors were seen as a natural outcome in their learning. Many language educators today propose that foreign language teachers should expect many errors from their students, and should accept those errors as a natural phenomenon integral to the process of learning aa second language. When teachers tolerate some errors, students often fell more confident about using the target language than if all their errors are corrected. However, based on the foregoing discussion, the following suggestions are offered for the correction of foreign language learners` errors:

- The teacher should feel confident and competent about correcting the errors. If he is not sure of the correct model or appropriate correction procedures he should refrain from correcting his students. In this case, he should consult those colleagues of his who have a better command of the target language or his authoritative reference books.
- Because no teacher has time to adequately deal with all the errors made by his students, a hierarchy should be established for the correction of errors according to the nature and significance of errors.

CONCLUSION

Nowadays, errors made by learners in the process of language learning are not considered as a negative aspect of language learning but a natural step in development of language skills. Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982) believe that analysis of errors made by language learners can help understand the process of language learning deeply; moreover, it will help teachers and curriculum designers to decide on teaching materials which best fit learning needs of language learners.

Learning a foreign language demands not only willingness, but also practice and commitment by both learner and teacher. That's why, indisputably, error analysis is a fundamental and relevant tool in language teaching, in order to reorganize and transform the teacher's point of view and readdress his/her methodology, with the aim of fixing and filling the students' gaps. When a teacher realizes the nature of his/her students' errors and their possible sources, s/he can make better decisions, which will positively affect his/her performance and fulfill current pedagogical and professional demands.

The results of the study showed that most errors included in writing by pre-intermediate learners of English as second language resulted from inadequate lexical knowledge, misuse of prepositions and pronouns, seriously misspelled lexical items, and faulty lexical choice. With regard to the timing of error correction, learners should not be interrupted for their errors. Rather errors should be corrected after the classroom activity. The teacher should make a note of the learners`` errors during doing activities, e.g. writing or reading passage and then explain them to the class as a whole, an d not directly to the individual who has made the errors. In this way, a more relaxed atmosphere will be created in the classroom whereby the learners would feel free to express themselves in the target language. An approach employed by the present author in dealing with learners` errors in writing, was to write the common errors on the blackboard and explain them to the class as a whole. Then, learners were asked to examine their writings and try to discover their errors. This discovery procedure was followed by classroom exercises on the point(s) with which the learners had problems.

This study makes us conclude that Farsi as the first language of the learners of this study was not the main obstacle in second language learning. Most of the errors made by learners in this study showed somehow their developing process and were categorized under developmental errors (32.5%). Developmental errors are those types of errors which are common among native speakers of English and foreign learners of English. The insights gained from error analysis with regard to the processes and strategies of second language learning provides valuable information for devising appropriate materials, effective teaching techniques and constructing tests suitable for different groups of learners at different levels of instruction. This finding also confirms that most of the errors made by learners were not under the influence of their native language. Teachers should be aware of the distinction between errors and

mistakes. They should be treated separately. Errors are rule governed and systematic in nature and such indicative of the learner`s linguistic system at a given stage of language learning. In contrast to errors, mistakes are random deviations and unrelated to any system, such as slips of tongue or pen, false starts and the like.

Limitations of the Study

Error analysis, while significant in the understanding of language learning, also has limitations. There is a danger in giving too much attention to learners" errors as the teacher tends to become so preoccupied with noticing and correcting errors at the expense of the generation of meaningful language. Error analysis can keep us too closely focused on specific languages rather than viewing universal aspects of language. Another critical uncontrolled variable that might have affected the results of the study was the variation in the length of writings. Although care was taken to control of writings, some groups of learners still wrote longer pieces than others.

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POSSIBLE DEMOTIVATING FACTORS FOR SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT
The present study investigated demotivation among Iranian secondary school students. The necessary data were gathered from 604 secondary school male (N=318) and female (N=286) students. A 35-item demotivation questionnaire along with an item eliciting the participants' own assessment of their motivation to learn English was administered. Based on the results of a principal factor analysis, three factors, namely, (1) Inadequate School Facilities, (2) Improper Teaching Material and Content, and (3) Absence of Intrinsic Motivation were identified as the major demotivating factors for the language learners. Contrary to the results of previous research, however, teacher-related factors were not found as strong causes of demotivation. On the basis of the participants' own assessment of their motivation, they were divided into less and more motivated groups. Results of a mixed between within ANOVA and the follow-up tests indicated that Improper Teaching Material and Content was the main demotivating factor for both groups. The study may be of aid to Curriculum designers, material developers and those involved in the Iranian educational system.

KEYWORDS: Demotivation, foreign language learning, Iranian secondary school learners

INTRODUCTION
By and large, the purpose of learning English is two-fold in Iran: on the one hand, it is seen as a key for unlocking the gates of higher education (passing an English test is a prerequisite to many university courses and English is a mandatory part of the general education component of almost all university courses); on the other, it is realised as a ticket to the foreign world and strongly associated with traveling out of the country (Piller, 2010). Yet, Iranian students, especially those at school age, have distaste for English, the level of foreign language proficiency is unsatisfactory, and the students are not willing to attend English classes at school (Sharifzadeh et al., 2010). To remedy this problem, researchers have fairly recently started investigating demotivation in the Iranian educational system (e.g., Jomairi, 2011; Akbarzadeh & Sharififar, 2011; Tabatabaei & Molavi, 2012). However, most motivational research within Iran has focused on learners at the university level. In fact, other educational settings, especially schools have rarely been the topic of research. Therefore, this paper extends this line of research to the Iranian secondary school students. Since secondary school students' motivation to learn English or lack thereof affects their future academic and social career, it was assumed that understanding demotivating factors among this group of learners can provide a key to more effective English language instruction both inside and outside the school context.

LITERATURE REVIEW
Research on motivation in the realm of second language learning has been mounting steadily in the past years (e.g., Dornyei, 1990, 2006; Dweck & Leggett, 1988); however, demotivation is a fairly new topic (e.g., Sakai & Kikuchi, 2009; Jomairi, 2011). The significance of studies on demotivation lies in the fact that researchers and teachers who observe learners becoming demotivated in the language classes tend to understand the cause of their demotivation for theoretical and practical reasons. As Sakai and Kikuchi (2009) argue, a case in point is that "understanding the causes of demotivation lends support to understanding theories of motivation" (p. 58). Quite some time ago, Dornyei (2001) defined demotivation as "specific external forces that reduce or diminish the motivation basis of a

143

behavioural intention or an on-going action" (p.143). Despite what Dornyei (2001) believed, however, there is not a consensus among researchers about the conjecture that the causes of demotivation are solely external. Researchers (e.g. Arai, 2004; Falout & Maruyama, 2004; Kojima, 2004; Tsuchiya, 2004a, 2004b, 2006a, 2006b) argue that internal factors like lack of self-confidence and negative attitudes towards the foreign language may also result in demotivation (Sakai & Kikuchi, 2009).

Attempts to investigate demotivation in the language teaching domains are associated with Dornyei (1994) and Rudnai (1996). However, mainly inspired by Dornyei (1994, 2001), many researchers investigated the phenomenon of learners' demotivation (Arai, 2004; Akbarzadeh & Sharififar, 2011; Amirkhiz & Mahmoudi, 2011; Falout & Maruyama, 2004; Hasegawa, 2004; Jomairi, 2011; Tabatabaei & Molavi, 2012; Tsuchiya, 2004a, 2004b, 2006a, 2006b; Wang & Malderez, 2006; Tran Thi, 2007).

Rudnai (1996), among others, utilising Dornyei's (1994) motivational model conducted interviews with students from two elite and two vocational secondary students who claimed to be unmotivated. She concluded that the factors which resulted in demotivation among her participants were in the learners (e.g. their lack of self-confidence which was the result of negative past experience) and in the learning situation (e.g. their being placed in a group which did not suit their English proficiency level, their having no choice, and lack of constancy in language learning in a relaxed and pleasant atmosphere as well as absence of skilled teachers).

In a similar vein, Dornyei (1998), examining Hungarian secondary school students in Budapest, came to the conclusion that (1) teachers' attributes such as their personalities and commitments, (2) school-related factors such as large class sizes and inappropriate level of classes, (3) learners' low level of self-confidence which was the result of their earlier experience of failure, (4) learners' negative attitudes toward the foreign language they were studying, (5) learners' compulsion to study the foreign language, (6) interference of another foreign language that learners were studying, (7) learners' negative attitude toward the foreign language community, (8) learners' peer attitudes, and (9) the course books taught were the major demotivating factors for the students.
Arai (2004) also gathered the responses of 33 proficient English university students who were asked to describe their demotivating experiences and their immediate reaction to those experiences in the foreign language classroom and categorized them into the following four categories: (1) teacher behaviour and personality, (2) classes being boring or monotonous, (3) class atmosphere, and (4) other.

Akbarzadeh and Sharififar (2011) investigated common demotivating factors among university students. The obtained results showed three areas of demotivation: (1) teacher-related factors, (2) student-related factors, and (3) classroom-related factors. Based on the findings, 'classroom-related factors' were recognized as the highest demotivating factors for the participants, especially in the case of less motivated learners. The findings further indicated that more motivated learners and less motivated learners differed in their perception of what demotivated them. Nevertheless, there were no significant differences between males and females regarding their demotivating factors.

Moreover, Mahmoudi and Amirkhiz (2011) investigated the use of the learners' L1, Persian, as a possible source of demotivation among 64 female students in the EFL classroom. The findings based on both observations and interviews led to the identification of the use of Persian in the classroom as a demotivating factor. As the researchers admit, a major limitation of the study, however, may be associated with the small sample size.

In a more recent work, Jomairi (2011) identified (1) teacher, (2) learners' lack of motivation and self-confidence toward learning language, (3) test scores, and (4) inadequate university facilities as causes of demotivation for university students. The findings showed teachers as the major cause of demotivation among the students.

Along the same line, Ghadirzadeh, Pourabolfathe Hashtroudi, and Shokri (2012) collected and analyzed data from university students. Based on the results, five demotivation factors were extracted: (1) lack of perceived individual competence, (2) lack of intrinsic motivation, (3) inappropriate characteristics of teachers' teaching methods and course contents, (4) inadequate university facilities and (5) focus on difficult grammar. Statistically significant differences were reported between more motivated and less motivated groups in terms of (1) lack of perceived individual competence and (2) lack of intrinsic motivation; on the other hand, no significant differences were found between the two groups with respect to (1) inappropriate characteristics of teachers' teaching methods and course contents, (2) inadequate university facilities, and (3) focus on difficult grammar.

In an attempt to identify demotivating factors for Iranian seminary students and distinguishing motivated and demotivated EFL learners in terms of their EFL proficiency, Tabatabaei and Molavi (2012) used the Interchange

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Objective Placement Test (IOPT) and a modified version of Gardner's Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB). The findings showed significant differences in the results of IOPT for the students with higher scores and those with lower scores on the AMTB. Factors such as (1) improper method of teaching English, (2) frequency of classes in a week, (3) problems in understanding listening materials, and (4) students' lack of use of English in real life were found to be the major demotivating factors among Iranian seminary students.

In short, based on the results of previous studies, it seems that six main areas of demotivation emerge:

1. Teaching materials: Textbooks and other teaching materials belong to the traditional methods of teaching (e.g., Arai, 2004; Christophel & Groham, 1995; Groham & Christophel, 1992).
2. Characteristics of classes: A wealth of vocabulary and grammar are presented and the students are required to prepare for the university entrance exam by memorizing the language with an emphasis on form and structure instead of meaning (e.g., Akbarzadeh & Sharififar, 2011; Arai, 2004; Christophel & Groham, 1995; Falout & Maruyama, 2004; Groham & Christophel, 1992; Kikuchi & Saki, 2009; Kojima, 2004).
3. Learners' lack of interest: Learners generally feel that the English taught at school is different from the one spoken by native speakers (e.g., Christophel & Groham, 1995; Ghadirzadeh et al., 2012; Jomairi, 2011; Kojima, 2004; Tsuchiya, 2004a, 2004b, 2006a, and 2006b).
4. Teacher related factors: Teachers' attitudes, language proficiency, behaviour, personality and teaching style also play a significant role (e.g., Akbarzadeh & Sharififar, 2011; Arai, 2004; Kikuchi & Saki, 2007; Kojima, 2004; Tabatabaei & Molavi, 2012; Tsuchiya, 2004a, 2004b, 2006a, 2006b; Zhang, 2007).
5. Learners' feeling of disappointment: They have no sense of belonging to the class and feel incapable of handling the classroom material; they also think that there is more emphasis on test scores rather than learning (e.g., Basit et al., 2010; Christophel & Groham, 1995; Wang & Malderez, 2006).
6. Classroom atmosphere: Learners are afraid of being mocked, disrespected or humiliated (e.g., Arai, 2004; Akbarzadeh & Sharififar, 2011; Basit et al., 2010; Christophel & Groham, 1995; Tsuchiya, 2004a, 2004b, 2006a, 2006b; Wang & Malderez, 2006).

Taken together, however, research on demotivation in the Iranian context appears to be inadequate and researchers have recently started investigating it (e.g., Vaezi, 2008; Gilakjani & Ahmadi, 2011; Ahmadi, 2011). Moreover, teachers' everyday encounter with demotivated language learners and the endless debate about the means of diminishing demotivating factors from language classes are two main reasons for conducting the present study. Accordingly, the present study is intended to investigate demotivating factors among Iranian secondary school students to answer the following research questions.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS
1. What are the possible demotivating factors among Iranian secondary school students?

2. In what respects do less motivated and more motivated individuals differ in terms of demotivating factors?

METHODOLOGY
Participants
A convenient sample of 604 male (N=318) and female (N=286) students studying at secondary schools in Tabriz, Esfahan, Tehran, Shiraz, and Mashhad participated in the study(Iran). Since in the Iranian educational system male and female students are not allowed to study at the same school, the researchers were cautious about selecting male and female participants studying the same field from two schools (one for male students and the other one for female students) in each city. In other words, in order to have a more representative sample, the participants were selected from among the students of both genders studying in the three fields of Art, Humanities and Mathematics in different cities and schools. As Table 1 shows, 229 students in the selected sample studied Art (115 females, 114 males), 142 mathematics (42 males, 100 females) and 235 humanities (162 males, 73 females).

Table 1: Demographic distribution of the participants

City	School	Course	Grade	n	Gender
Tabriz	A	Art	2	104	34 M

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	B	Art	2		70 F
Esfahan	C	Mathematics	3	142	42 M
	D	Mathematics	2		100 F
Tehran	E	Humanities	4	131	111 M
	F	Humanities	3		20 F
Shiraz	G	Art	3	125	80 M
	H	Art	1		45 F
Mashhad	I	Humanities	3	102	51 M
	J	Humanities	4		51 F

Instruments
A modified translated version of Sakai and Kikuchi's (2009) demotivation questionnaire was employed in the present research. The questionnaire originally consisted of 35 five-point Likert scale items "designed to measure six constructs derived from previous studies: teachers (items 10-15), characteristics of classes (items 1, 21 and 26), experiences of failure (7-9, 27, and 30), class environment (items 2, 22-24, 28, 29 and 35), class material (16-20, and 31) and lack of interest (items 25 and 32-34)" (Kikuchi & Sakai, 2009, p. 62). However, the questionnaire was first translated into Persian so that the participants who did not have a good command of English would not face difficulty completing the questionnaire. Two experienced translators were asked to compare the English and Persian versions of the questionnaire to assure that it was properly translated into Persian. Moreover, the questionnaire was modified by changing the alternatives to (1) strongly disagree, (2) disagree, (3) neutral, (4) agree, and (5) strongly agree because students are more familiar with these alternatives compared to those of Sakai and Kikuchi (2009). Finally, in order to elicit data about the participants' motivation to learn English and then divide them into less motivated and more motivated learners, a question was added at the end of the questionnaire. The question read as "How motivated are you to learn English?" and the participants were required to choose their responses from among the alternatives which ranged from (4) 'absolutely motivated', (3) 'much motivated', (2) 'not much motivated', (1) 'least motivated'.

Data collection procedure
The questionnaires were distributed among the students when they were sitting for their final English exams. The students were given ample time to complete them; however, caution was taken not to permit the students to talk about or copy each other's responses. The participants were assured that their responses would be kept confidential.

Data analysis
An exploratory factor analysis was performed using the SPSS statistical software program to explore the factor structure of the questionnaire items. Moreover, the extracted factors were subjected to a mixed between-within analysis of variance in order to assess whether more motivated and less motivated individuals differed in terms of the extracted factors. In addition, independent t-tests and one-way ANOVAs were performed to detect any possible differences between more motivated and less motivated learners in the case of each factor and to identify the differences among each factor for more motivated and less motivated learners, respectively.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
Demotivating factors for Iranian secondary school students
Descriptive statistics of the participants' responses to the 35 items and the percentage of the individuals' responses to the options for each item have been displayed in Table 2. A close inspection of the table shows that most of the items have means higher than 3.00, except items 18 (English sentences dealt with in the lessons were hard to understand) (M=2.89) and 30 (I was often compared with my friends) (M= 2.22). Over fifty percent of the students' responses to the following items was 5 (strongly agree) and 4 (agree): (a) lack of visual and auditory supplementary material (items 21, 23 and 24), and (b) Absence of interest (items 29, 32 and 33). To put it another way, these items were identified to be playing a more demotivating role than the other items. The findings indicate that error correction and the teacher's approach to error correction (item 5) was not bothersome for many students (37.5%). In other words, students did not show preference for one approach over another. Also, some learners were neutral about the presence or absence of class participation (item 13) (37%) which may be a reflection of the purpose of English teaching in Iran at school level. With respect to error correction, over 37% of the individuals were not hurt when teachers mocked their mistakes (item 12). Similarly, some of the students seemed to prefer cooperation over competition (item 27) (38%) which seems to be good news for the Iranian educational system (especially at school level) where teamwork and mutual aid have been neglected for many years. Also, the attitude of the other students towards English (item 29) was regarded important (46%).

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Table 2: Descriptive statistics for the responses to the questionnaire items and options

No	M	SD	Min	Max	1 (%)	2 (%)	3 (%)	4 (%)	5 (%)
1	3.25	1.19	1.00	5.00	8.1	19.5	28.1	26.8	17.4
2	3.23	1.21	1.00	5.00	9.8	17.7	29.3	26.0	17.2
3	3.11	1.22	2.00	5.00	10.4	24.3	22.8	28.1	14.2
4	3.13	1.09	1.00	5.00	8.1	21.0	34.6	21.7	14.6
5	3.22	1.22	1.00	5.00	6.3	17.9	37.3	24.5	14.1
6	3.20	1.32	1.00	5.00	9.9	20.0	27.0	25.7	17.4
7	3.94	1.17	1.00	5.00	18.4	20.4	25.7	19.9	15.7
8	3.29	1.20	1.00	5.00	6.8	19.4	29.3	26.3	18.2
9	3.25	1.22	1.00	5.00	8.4	20.0	26.8	26.8	17.9
10	3.30	1.28	1.00	5.00	9.4	16.4	27.6	27.0	19.5
11	3.23	1.14	1.00	5.00	12.3	17.1	26.0	24.5	20.2
12	3.29	1.13	1.00	5.00	7.6	14.7	35.6	24.7	17.4
13	3.23	1.16	2.00	5.00	8.1	15.6	36.4	24.2	15.7
14	3.31	1.19	1.00	5.00	8.1	15.6	30.3	29.0	17.1
15	3.25	1.14	1.00	5.00	9.3	16.1	37.1	20.2	17.4
16	3.32	1.18	1.00	5.00	6.6	17.1	30.8	28.1	17.4
17	3.39	1.33	1.00	5.00	7.3	15.7	27.6	29.3	20.0
18	2.89	1.32	1.00	5.00	20.2	20.4	23.3	22.4	13.7
19	3.92	1.14	1.00	5.00	19.2	19.5	25.8	20.9	14.6
20	3.32	1.15	1.00	5.00	6.6	17.1	30.6	28.1	17.5
21	3.49	1.21	2.00	5.00	6.0	14.9	28.3	25.8	25.0
22	3.24	1.21	1.00	5.00	9.6	17.5	29.1	25.8	17.9
23	3.34	1.29	2.00	5.00	11.1	16.2	22.5	27.8	22.4
24	3.35	1.30	1.00	5.00	11.6	15.7	21.5	28.0	23.2
25	3.05	1.21	1.00	5.00	11.9	16.6	27.2	25.7	13.1
26	3.15	1.23	1.00	5.00	12.4	29.3	30.1	24.8	16.1
27	3.15	1.18	1.00	5.00	12.4	20.2	4.3	38.3	20.7
28	3.20	1.22	1.00	5.00	8.3	12.4	21.0	29.0	16.6
29	3.50	0.98	1.00	5.00	4.1	21.4	25.0	46.0	12.4
30	2.22	1.20	1.00	5.00	8.6	24.0	26.0	27.0	17.1
31	3.08	1.22	1.00	5.00	10.6	19.2	27.0	23.2	15.2
32	3.43	1.21	1.00	5.00	6.0	16.2	24.3	26.5	24.0
33	3.49	1.17	1.00	5.00	5.8	14.7	23.2	32.0	22.8
34	3.33	1.14	1.00	5.00	7.6	17.5	31.0	30.3	16.4
35	3.23	1.20	1.00	5.00	9.8	27.3	29.5	26.0	17.2

In order to check the suitability of the data for factor analysis, the researchers assessed the Determinant of the R-matrix, Bartlett's test of sphericity (1954), and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olikin (1970, 1974) value. Inspection of the determinant of the correlation matrix revealed the presence of the determinant value above 0.00001 (p=0.053), Kaiser-Meyer-Olikin value (p=.632&>.6) exceeded the recommended value and Bartlett s test of sphericity reached statistical significance (p=.000 &<0.05), supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix. After the pre-analysis, the 35 items of the questionnaire were subjected to a principle component factor analysis using a direct oblimin

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rotation procedure. On the basis of Kaisers criterion, the scree plot, and parallel analysis (Watkin, 2000), a three factor solution (with loadings above .40) was selected. The pattern structure of the principle components analysis and the items loading on each factor are shown in Tables 3 and 4. As indicated in Table 3, items 2, 22 and 35 loaded on factor one, and since the items were related to class environment, the first factor was labelled *Inadequate School Facilities*. Items 16, 20 and 17 also loaded on the second factor. These items were related to teaching material; therefore, the second factor was named *Improper Teaching Material and Content*. Finally, items 25 and 32 having to do with the participants' lack of interest loaded on the third factor which was named *Absence of intrinsic motivation* accordingly. In addition, Table 3 indicates that Factor 1 with a coefficient of .99 enjoyed a high reliability, Factor 3 with a coefficient of .71 had a moderate reliability and Factor 2 with a coefficient of .53 had a relatively low reliability (Pallant, 2007).

Table 3: Results of factor analysis for the items of the questionnaire

No	Items	F1	F2	F3
Factor 1: Inadequate School Facilities (α=.99)				
2	Computer software was not used	.996		
22	Pictures, movies, and the like were not used	.981		
35	Tapes were not used	.996		
Factor 2: Improper Teaching Material and Content (α=.53)				
16	English passages in the text book were unexciting		. 996	
20	Topics of the English passages used in the lessons were dated out		.994	
17	Topics of the English passages in the text book were not based on culture		.861	
Factor 3: Absence of Intrinsic Motivation (α=.71)				
32	I saw no sense in studying English			.413
25	I was forced to study English			.485

Based on the responses the learners gave to the question regarding their motivation to learn English (M=2.46, SD=1.11), they were divided into two groups of more motivated (N=376) and less motivated learners (N=328). Those individuals who had chosen 'absolutely motivated' (N=153) or 'much motivated' (N=120) were regarded as more motivated learners and the participants who had chosen 'not much motivated' (N=95) or 'least motivated' (N=236) were labelled less motivated. Figure 1 illustrates the means of the three factors for more and less motivated learners.
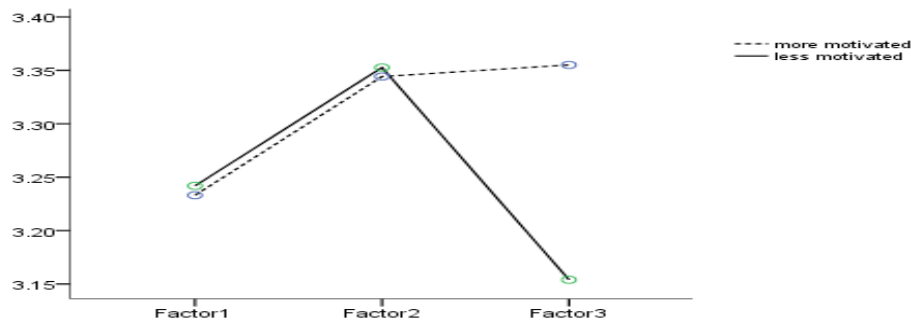
The Means of the Three Factors for More and Less Motivated …

Table 4: Descriptive statistics for the extracted factors

Factor	M	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	Min	Max
1. Inadequate School Facilities (k=3)						
More motivated participants (N=276)	3.23	1.22	-.215	-.856	3	15
Less motivated participants (N=328)	3.24	1.19	-.191	-.812	3	15
Total (N=604)	3.23	1.20	-.202	-.834	-	.

148

2. Improper Teaching Material And Content (k=3)

More motivated participants (N=276)	3.34	0.81	-.194	-.313	3	15
Less motivated participants (N=328)	3.35	0.85	-.192	-.544	3	15
Total N=(604)	3.34	0.83	-.192	-.450	-	-

3. Absence of Intrinsic Motivation (k=2)

More motivated participants (N=276)	3.35	0.82		-.230	-.385	3 10
Less motivated participants (N=328)	3.15	0.91	-1.71	-.588	2	10
Total (N=604)	3.24	0.88	-.225	-.482	-	-

As the descriptive statistics of the factors illustrated in Table 4 show Factor 2 (*M*=3.34, SD=.83) has the highest mean compared to Factor 3 (*M*=3.24, SD=.87) and Factor 1(*M*=3.23, SD=1.20). Note that since three items loaded on Factors 1 and 2 while two items loaded on Factor 3, the researchers computed the means for each Factor out of five and then compared them.

Differences between less motivated and more motivated learners in terms of demotivating factors

In order to see whether there are differences between more motivated and less motivated individuals in terms of the three extracted factors, the data were subjected to a mixed between-within analysis of variance (ANOVA), with the participants' scores on the item on the general motivation to learn English as the between subjects factor and the mean score of the items loading on each factor as a within subject factor. The results indicated a significant difference for the interaction effect of demotivating factors and the groups (Wilks Lamba= .99, *F* (2, 601) =1.69, p<.05, partial eta square=.006) and the main effect of demotivating factors (Wilks Lamba=.402, *F* (2, 601) =446.63, p<.05, partial eta square=.59); however, the main effect of groups (*F* (1, 602) =.1.34, p>.05, partial eta square=.002) was not significant.

Accordingly, three t-tests were run in order to detect significant differences between more motivated and less motivated learners with respect to each factor. The results of the analyses indicated no significant differences between more motivated and less motivated learners for Factor 2 (*t* (602) =-1.24, p>.05), and Factor 1 (*t* (602) =-.089, p>.05); however, significant differences were found for Factor three (t (599.31) = 2.85, p<.05).). In other words, 'Absence of intrinsic motivation (Factor 3) was a more demotivating factor for more motivated learners than less motivated learners.

To examine the differences among the three demotivating factors in each motivation group, two one-way ANOVAs were performed. The results obtained from data analysis for more motivated learners indicated significant differences among the three factors (F (2, 816)=122.15, p=.000). Results of a post hoc analysis showed significant differences among two of the possible three pairs (Table 5). Based on the results displayed in the following table and the means obtained for each factor, it may be concluded that more motivated learners considered '*Improper teaching material and content*' (Factor 2) more demotivating.

Table 5: Post-Hoc Analysis for the Three Factors for More Motivated Learners (N=376)

Factors	1	2	3
1. Inadequate School Facilities		-	-
	1.44	11.01*	
2. Improper Teaching Material and Content		-1.44	-
	17.92*		

| 3. Absence of Intrinsic Motivation | 11.01 * | 17.92* |
| - | | |

Note: The figures in the table show t-values (p<.05)*.

Similarly, the results of the one-way ANOVA for less motivated learners showed significant differences between the three factors (F (2, 690) =135.40, p=.000) as well. The results of a post hoc analysis further showed significant differences among two of the three possible pairs (Table 6). Therefore, results displayed in Table 6 as well as the comparison of the means for the factors revealed that, similar to more motivated learners, less motivated learners identified '*Improper Teaching Material and Content*' (Factor 2) the major demotivating factor.

Table 6: Post-Hoc Analysis for the Three Factors for Less Motivated Learners (N=328)

Type of Motivation	1	2	3
1. Inadequate school facilities	-	-	1.55 12.53*
2. Improper Teaching Material and Content	- 1.55 -		18.32*
3. Absence of intrinsic motivation -	12.53*	18.32*	

Note: The figures in the table show t-values (p<.05)*.

Therefore, in response to the first research question which asked about major demotivating factors among Iranian secondary school students, we can say that three factors namely: (1) *Inadequate School Facilities*, (2) *'Improper Teaching Material and Content'*, (3) and *Absence of Intrinsic Motivation* were identified as the salient demotivating factors. In fact, despite the six factor model of the demotivation questionnaire, in the present study three factors were extracted as a result of factor analysis. Contrary to most previous studies (e.g., Dornyei, 2001), teacher related factors did not appear to be a significant factor. However, findings of the present study partially accord with those of Sakai and Kikuchi (2009) in that that they also found Lack of Intrinsic Motivation factor as a major demotivating factor among Japanese high school students. In the present study, characteristics of classes and experiences of failure did not load as a factor; however, the three factors accord with' findings of other studies (e.g., Sakai and Kikuchi (2009). Another point is that statistically significant differences were found between more motivated and less motivated participants in the *Absence of Intrinsic Motivation* factor. 'The finding is of great importance when determining whether demotivation excludes internal forces or not. It suggests that internal forces cannot be ignored as demotivating factors' (Sakai & Kikuchi, 2009, p. 67).

As for the second research question which addressed the differences in demotivating factors for the less motivated and the more motivated students, the results indicated a significant difference between the two groups in terms of the '*Absence of Intrinsic Motivation*' factor, while the differences for '*Improper teaching material and content*' and '*Inadequate School Facilities*' was not significant. In particular, '*Absence of Intrinsic Motivation*' was a more demotivating factor for students with moderate and high motivation. The reason why intrinsic factors seem more important than extrinsic factors perhaps rests on the importance that people who have a greater influence on the individual place on the intrinsic aspects. In other words, the attributive model (Weiner, 1974) of these people about the reasons for experiences of failure and success in educational contexts is part of the characteristics of individuals. Therefore, highlighting the role of intrinsic factors in explaining and predicting individuals' experiences model in educational contexts makes the role of extrinsic factors seem less important (Ghadirzadeh et al 2012, p.193).

CONCLUSION
Factor analysis was performed to identify the possible demotivating factors for Iranian secondary school students. The findings indicate that *Absence of Intrinsic Motivation* was a demotivating factor for Iranian secondary school students. Contrary to previous studies, teacher related factors were not demotivating for the learners. The more motivated and the less motivated learners, similarly, did not find *Inadequate School Facilities* or '*Improper Teaching Material and Content*' demotivating. The study suggests the following to avoid demotivation among Iranian students and in similar contexts:

1. Curriculum designers, material developers and those involved in the Iranian educational system at school level should reconsider their approaches and policies: perhaps students demotivation is rooted in the unauthentic

learning content; the University Entrance Exam (Konkoor) based teaching method(s) and the unrealistic goal of foreign language teaching at school level.

2. Adding alternative foreign languages (e.g., French or German) to the curriculum and giving students the opportunity to choose may help prevent demotivation in learners who are demotivated as a result of being obliged to study English.

Limitations of the study and suggestions for further research

The present study investigated demotivation among Iranian secondary school students using a questionnarie. In the same context, further studies employing other instruments such as interviews and logs are warranted to scrutinize demotivating factor thoroughly. Research in other educational contexts– for example, language institutes where students are supposed to be voluntarily learning English and, thus, to possess higher levels of motivation– may yield different results.

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151

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Appendix: Abridged Demotivation Questionnaire Items

N	Item

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1	I was never provided with the opportunity to communicate in English.
2	Computer software was not used.
3	Grammar formed the backbone of lessons.
4	Nearly all of the lessons were designed for the University entrance exam (Konkoor).
5	I was expected to produce error free sentences.
6	Memorizing and translating the sentences in the text book was obligatory.
7	I had a hard time memorizing vocabulary and Idioms.
8	I received poor grades on tests.
9	I couldn't speak English.
10	The pace of the lesson was not appropriate.
11	Teachers' were not able to speak English very well.
12	Teachers made fun of students' mistakes.
13	Teachers made one way explanations too often.
14	Teachers were reluctant to teach well.
15	I was scolded by the teacher.
16	English passages in the text book were unexciting.
17	Topics of the English passages in the text book were not based on culture.
18	English sentences dealt with in the lessons were hard to understand.
19	A great deal of textbooks and supplementary material were assigned for self-study.
20	Topics of the English passages used in the lessons were out dated.
21	I was supposed to repeat sentences after the teacher
22	Pictures, movies, and the like were not used.
23	I had no access to the Internet.
24	We didn't have a language lab at school.
25	I was forced to study English.
26	The classes were too crowded.
27	I could not keep up with my classmates.
28	I disliked my classmates.
29	My friends did not like English.
30	I was often compared to my friends.
31	English questions were not clear.
32	I saw no sense in studying English.
33	I lost my interest in English.
34	I lost my goal to be a speaker of English.
35	Tapes were not used.

Originally developed by Sakai & Kikuchi, (2009)

IJLLALW

THE IMPACT OF COMPUTER ASSISTED EXPLICIT FEEDBACK ON NARRATIVE WRITING ABILITY OF INTERMEDIATE EFL LEARNERS

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ABSTRACT
The present study investigated the possible impact of Computer assisted feedback on writing accuracy of Iranian intermediate foreign language learners, majoring English literature in Guilan and Chabahar University,IRAN. Oxford proficiency test and narrative writing pre-test were used to check the homogeneity and comparability of the participants. The most frequently occurred errors EFL learners' writing pre-test were selected to be targeted in the study. Two groups were formed: Computer assisted explicit corrective feedback group (N=20), and control group (N=20). The treatment (explicit corrective feedback) in experimental group was conducted via email. Control group received no corrective feedback of any kind intentionally ,but they were also given some routine help to improve their writing. After the treatment, a post-test was administrated, and a series of statistics were used to analyse the data.Comparisons indicated that the p-value was 0.003 that was less than 0.05; thus it could be concluded that there was a significant difference between the control and experimental group at the end of the treatment. The finding implies that corrective feedback is effective in improving Iranian EFL learners's narrative writing ability.

KEYTERMS: Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL); Error; Explicit Corrective Feedback; Accuracy; Explicit Learning; Narrative writing

INTRODUCTION
Writing is an intricate and complex task; it is the "most difficult of language abilities to acquire" (Allen & Corder, 1974, p.177; cited in Ellis, 1994) it is a complicated process even in the first language. Undoubtedly, writing is the most difficult skill for L2 learners to master. Most contexts of life call for some level of writing skill. Writing involves producing, which implies the ability either to tell or retell pieces of information in the form of narratives or description, or transform information into new texts.
Writing skill is an activity involving some stages of composition task completion (Chen, 2002; Watskins, 2004; cited in Widodo, 2008). The difficulty of learning this skill particularly in an EFL context is due not only to the need to generate and organize ideas using the appropriate choices of vocabulary, sentence, and paragraph organization but also to turn such ideas into a readable text along with a particular rhetoric pattern (Richards & Renandya, 2002). Therefore, teaching writing should be viewed in both cognitive and humanistic perspectives, as Foong (1999; cited in Widodo, 2008) points out. In this sense, writing is considered as the process of writing, involving such activities pre-writing, drafting, revising, and editing. Student writers use writing as a means of exploring and discovering meaning by themselves and develop their own voices.

Writing need is becoming necessary not only in L2, but also in our daily life, particularly owing to the prevalence of information technology, such as writing e-mail, or business letters overseas. To become effective writers, students need to understand the language choices writers make; this involves students developing an understanding of the text type, or genre, required of a task and its social purpose.

According to Nunan (1999), in the mid-1970s, second language teachers discovered "process" approaches that were becoming popular in the first language classroom. In this regard, the process approach concentrates on the creation of the text, rather than on the end product. Product-oriented approaches to writing focus on tasks, these approaches emphasize on sentence level grammar, the belief being that sentences were the building blocks of discourse. Such an approach was consistent with sentence level structure linguistics and bottom-up processing (Nunan, 1999). But in the process approach, teachers focus less on a perfect final product than on the development of successive drafts of a text. Writers are encouraged to get their ideas onto paper without worrying about formal correctness in the initial stages.

A product approach is "a traditional approach in which students are encouraged to mimic a model text, usually is presented and analyzed at an early stage" (Gabrielatos, 2002, p.5). For example, in a typical product approach-oriented classroom, students are supplied with a standard sample of text and they are expected to follow the standard to construct a new piece of writing.

In this regard, as Nunan (1999) put it, deductive learning is a process of adding to our knowledge by working from principles to examples but, induction is a way of adding to our knowledge of the words. In other words, deductive approach works from the general to the specific. In this case, rules, principles are presented first, and then their applications are treated. The deductive approach maintains that a teacher teaches writing by presenting rules, and then examples of sentences are presented. But inductive approach proceeds from particulars to generalities (Felder & Henriques, 1995; cited in Widodo, 2006). In short, when we use induction, we observe a number of specific instances and from them infer a general principle or concept. Widodo (2006) asserted that the deductive approach is related to the conscious learning process in which this approach tries to emphasize on error correction.

Other related issues in teaching writing are explicit and implicit knowledge, as Ellis (2004a) has defined implicit knowledge is intuitive, procedural and automatic and it is available when learner is performing fluently. But explicit knowledge is conscious, declarative and inconsistent. Ellis (2004) characterized explicit knowledge as conscious, declarative, accessible only through controlled processing, verbalizing and learnable. Implicit knowledge, in contrast, is unconscious, procedural, accessible for automatic processing, not verballizable processing. In Krashen's monitor theory, explicit L2 learning never results in acquisition as there is no interface between explicit and implicit knowledge (Krashen, 1982). Ellis (2005) proposed that explicit knowledge helps learners in L2 production. Explicit rules that are provided by pedagogy play an important role in construction of novel utterances. Schmidt (1994; cited in Falhasiri&Tavakoli&Mohammadzadeh &Hasiri, 2011) suggested that it is necessary to distinguish implicit /explicit learning and implicit/explicit knowledge. According to Ellis (2005), implicit learning results from induction and analysis in the input without awareness. As Hulstijn (2002) pointed out, implicit learning is an autonomous and unstoppable process, and learners don't know anything about the connections that comprise their neural system. In Ellis's (2005) view "the most of language acquisition is implicit learning from usage: the vast majority of our Cognitive processing is unconscious" (p.306). Learners cannot be aware of the operations of the cognitive, because they are not able to understand these processes.

LITERATURE REVIEW
Writing is often considered the primary means for demonstrating one's knowledge of content in educational contexts (Mercer & Mercer, 1998; cited in Pennington & Ault & Schuster & Sanders, 2010). The value of writing extends beyond educational contexts because writing proficiency is important by employers and is a prerequisite for many career paths. For example, a survey of 120 major American corporations indicated that writing served as a gateway skill for obtaining and maintaining employment (National Commission on Writing, 2004).

Writing also may play an important role in individuals' access to social networks. Written expression has been used for centuries as a means to share experience with and access reinforcement from communicative partners. The telling of one's story through written narrative is one of society's most cherished communication skills (Bryant, Sanders-Jackson, & Smallwood, 2006). So, the importance role of writing is obvious in our personal life, social life, and professional life, therefore it needs more attention

Brown (2000,) has raised the following question to explain the need for teaching writing. 'How is writing like swimming? He provides the answer by making reference to the psychologist Lenneberg (1967; cited in Brown, 2000) who once pointed out, in a discussion of "species specific" human behavior, that people learn to 'work' and 'talk' but 'swimming' and 'writing' are culturally specific learned behaviors. As we see people who cannot swim at all, so it is for writing. We have non-writers, poor writers and excellent writers based on what and how they were been taught.

Corrective Feedback
There are different types of corrective feedback which a teacher can give to students' writing problems:
- Direct corrective feedback: the correct form is provided.

- Indirect corrective feedback: the teacher only indicates the existence of an error. It can take two forms. The first one is indicating and locating the error by underlying it, but the second one is indication only by writing in the margin that an error has existed in the text.
- Metalinguistic corrective feedback: Some kinds of metalinguistic clues are used to refer the nature of the error. Such type of corrective feedback has two forms: in the first form the error code is written in the margin and in the second form the errors are numbered in the text then grammatical description for each numbered errors are provided at the bottom of the page.
- Reformulation corrective feedback: a native speaker reworks on the students' writing to make the language seem as native-like as possible while the content of the original text remains intact (Ellis, 2009).

As Alroe (2011) put it, error correction for many of those who support it has largely been a matter of common sense and pragmatism. Strongly Krashen, whose theories helped reduce the importance of error correction, did provide it with a role, although a diminished one, in the area of L2 writing. In more recent years he seems to have hardened his stance towards correction but in Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Learning (1981), he put a place for it in discussing the Monitor Hypothesis. In Krashen's theory, explicit L2 learning never occurs in acquisition as there is no interface between the two, Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Learning (Krashen, 1982).

Feedback is considered as the crucial factor in teaching all subject areas. It probably bridges the gap between teaching and learning by reinforcing correct points and rejecting incorrect ones to prevent fossilization. Providing feedback on student writing has played a central role in language classrooms in the past and present.

Previous Studies on Corrective Feedback
This is the fact that everybody in the world acquires speech as a mother tongue, but not everybody learns to read and write. Reading and writing skills are more complex than speaking. In this case, the process of learning writing is the subject to the different forms of criticism. One of the most challenging aspects of the writing instructor's job is responding to students writing and it is certainly the most time consuming. The responding to students directly notice to the erroneous points. Explicit corrective feedback provides metalinguistic explanation of erroneous structures.

Truscott (1996; cited in Herrera, 2002) in his article 'The Case against Grammar Correction in L2 Writing Classes' concluded in writing courses, teachers should not correct learners' grammatical problems and grammar correction increases stress and demotivates students and the effect of correction on students' accuracy is as much as providing no correction.

As Sheen (2010) put it, written CF can be regarded as a positive way "to notice to linguistic forms in writing products for notice to linguistic forms in writing products for L2 learners" (p.208).
Ferris and Roberts (2001) considered the extent to which error feedback needs to be explicit so that students get to self-edit their texts. They state their findings are in line with Krashen's (1982) Monitor Hypothesis, which claims that formal learning and explicit knowledge function as an editor which operates when learners are intentionally focused on form, when they know the feedback group outperformed the no-feedback group in editing outcomes; nonetheless, coded feedback had no noticeable effect. They were not the only researchers concerning themselves with this issue, in second language acquisition, the main body of the research has been very much in response to Krashen's claim that learners only learn through unconscious acquisition. Learning, he claims, which is conscious, does not lead to acquisition, which is unconscious, and acts only as a monitor. Conversely, some other researchers (Ellis, 1986; Schmidt, 1990, 1994, 2001; Schmidt and Frota, 1986; cited in Sheen, 2007) believe that learners' attention to forms is necessary for earners.

Corrective Feedback and Computer Assisted Language Learning
The important role of corrective feedback in learning is clear to us. To do it easier and more effective, computer as a tool helps learners to learn better. In this modern life that computer has an essential role; it can play its vital role in learning. According to Francis (2007) if learners are to receive feedback, it is important to be consistent, this consistency is perhaps even more important in the CALL environment.

As Jafarian and Soori and Kafipour (2012) put it, with respect to the use of computers in language teaching and learning, teachers and researchers have been testing and developing ways to implement computers in their teaching context since the 1960s when computers were first put into use as part of language teaching. However, many language teachers continue to be uncertain about using computer can be effective in the educational context. In the

late 1970s, CALL programs were quite "primitive" because they included mainly of question-answer sequences, and were not widely used at the educational level to limited hardware and software support (Daies, 2001; cited in Jafarian&Soori&Kafipour, 2012). Advantages of using computer in teaching writing are obvious. New technology offers the writers an excellent package of tools with which to prepare, organize and present documents.

RESEARCH QUESTION
The present study is designed to find answers to the following questions:
1. Is there a significant difference in the narrative writing ability of those who are assisted by computer explicit corrective feedback and those who are deprived of such assistance in the classroom?

The following hypothesis was formed to answer the research question.

1. There is no significant difference in the narrative writing ability between those who are assisted by computer explicit corrective feedback and those who are deprived of such assistance.

METHODOLOGY
This study aimed to investigate the effectiveness of explicit corrective feedback on EFL Learners' narrative writing ability. To this end the following steps were taken to test the hypothesis.

Participants
The study was carried out in Guilan University and Chabahar Maritime University. The subjects of the study were 40 Iranian students both male and female; their age range was between 20 to 25 years old. The mean age was 22.5. Rregarding the gender, 25 of the subjects were female and   15
were male. Twenty male and female students were in experimental group and twenty male and female students in control group.The subjects were not selected randomely; rather participants remained as intact groups. They were assigned two different groups: explicit group and control group. Subjects were majoring in English literature who took essay writing course. The language proficiency of subjects was evaluated using an Oxford proficiency test.

Instrumentation
By considering the purpose of the study, a number of instruments for collecting the relevant data were used. The applied instruments are presented and described as follows:

Oxford Proficiency test
In order to homogenize the participants and to see whether they are in the same level of proficiency or not, the researcher used Oxford proficiency test; it included three sections of Vocabulary and grammar; Reading, and Writing. Since answering to the writing section was not necessary at this stage, they received a writing task separately, the participants only answered to the first two sections, vocabulary and grammar, and reading. The participants were asked to answer the questions in 60 minutes. The researcher herself corrected the papers and finally it was found that all the participants were in the same level of proficiency, intermediate level.

As Table 1 indicates, the estimated mean and standard deviation values of Oxford proficiency test of all subjects of the study amounted to be 48.62 and 6.72.

Table 1: Oxford proficiency Pre-test Mean Score of All Subjects

Number	Mean	Std. Deviation
40	48.6271	6.72847

Table 2 shows that the Oxford proficiency pre-test mean scores of the control and explicit groups amounted to be 50 and 47.28, respectively. The analysis reveals that there were no significant differences between the two groups in terms of their language proficeincy, and all subjects were intermediate EFL learners.

157

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics on Oxford placement Pre-test Scores

Group	Mean	Std. Deviation
Control	50.0000	5.89380
Explicit	47.2857	7.38338

The independent t test result shown in Table 3 and 4 also indicates that   with an alpha level of 0.05, the two groups were not statistically different in terms of their overall language proficiency, p = 0.062> 0.05.

Table3: Group Statistics of experimental and control groups

	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
	Experimental	30	15.4667	.93710	.17109
	Control	30	14.8667	.92786	.16940

Table 4: Independent Samples Test of experimental & control groups

		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
Scores	Equal variances assumed	.158	.693	4.569	38	.062	2.10000	.24077	-.61805	1.58195
	Equal variances not assumed			4.569	37.994	.062	2.10000	.24077	-.61805	1.58195

NarrativeWriting Pre-test
A writing-orientd pre-test was used as the other required instrument in this study. A narrative writing pre-test adapted from 'Pragraph Development' (Arnaudet & Barrett, 1990) was used to determine whether subjects were homogeneous in their narrative writing skill.

Narrative Writing Post-test
A narrative writing test was used as a post-test to check the potential differences in writing performance of the subjects over time in two different groups at the end of the treatment.

Materials
A variety of topics from IELTS test were assigned to students; the students totally wrote seven tasks.

Procedure
The study was conducted in the winter and spring of 2012 in two universities. The students of Chabahar maritime university(20 students in computer assisted explicit fedback) were the experimental group that were taught through virtual syatem by a university professor. The participants in the control group were students in the Guilan university who were taught at class by a university professor. The semester lasted 12 sessions and classes were hold once a week of two hours. For collecting appropriate data, the entire study was spread over a period of 12 weeks ; 5 sessions were devoted to teaching basic principles of writing and only 7 sessions were devoted to writing.

Pre-test
One week later, when it was confirmed that the subjects were at the intermediate English language proficiency level, all of the subjects took part in narrative writing pre-test. Writing pre-test included a topic for learners to write a

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narration of that topic. In order to increase the reliability, two raters scored the students' written texts. First, they scored by considering both fluency and accuracy of subjects' written texts. Then, by determining the targeted linguistic structures, raters scored the accuracy of the papers once again but this time basd on the percentage of the correct use of the three target linguistic structures. The average mean scores of the three target structures was considered as total writing accuracy score. In the following session, subjects' written texts were returned with corrective feedback for the experimental group.

Target Structures
Three linguistic errors chosen by the researcher to be targeted in the research were those which occurred most frequently during the writing pre-test. It was decided that the three most recurrent error categories would be focused on in this study. The greatest difficulty occured with the correct use of the verb tense (19.66% of all errors), followed by definite and indefinite articles (14.49% of the total errors), and correct use of the subject (11.46% of the total errors).

Treatment
After conducting pre-tests, researcher randomly chose the Chabahar University group as explicit ones and one class of Guilan University as a control group.Both groups were passing essay writing course and they participated writing course once a week for two hours.For five weeks English teachers taught students of all groups different skills of essay writing: format,coherence,cohesion punctuation, linguistic structures . After that the experimental and the control groups were asigned similar tasks to write every session.The only difference between the experimental group and the control group was that in experimental group the subjects were provided with the professor's corrective feedback in the form of explicit feedback through email correspondence. Control group received no corrective feedback of any kind intentionally ,but they were also given some routine help to improve their writing. Subjects of the experimental group received seven writing tasks during the treatment via email and for every task they had 45 minutes to write and 15 minutes extra time to send back their tasks done.

First the tasks were given to both groups ,as mentioned earlier, the experimental group had 45 minutes time to write the narration and 15 minutes more to connect and send the tasks back. Then, raters corrected the narrative tasks focusing on target structures. The experimental group received explicit corrective feedback. In explicit corrective feedback, the errors, their location, and description of violated rules were provided. In control group, students were informed that there were some errors in their description, but they were not told where the errors were or what rules had been violated. The teacher returned the original written texts of subjects to them with their marks on their sheet with corrective feedback for the experimental group. Afterwards, they received the next writing topic, and the same procedure was adopted for the next writing task.

Post-tests
The last writing was considered as a post test for the two groups. On the post-tests, subjects in experimental group and control group did not receive any corrective feedback.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
Narrative Writing Pre-test
All the participants in the two groups participated in the writing pre-test to determine whether they were homogeneous EFL writers or not. At first, both fluency and accuracy of subjects' written texts were considered in scoring. All scores of writing pre-test were out of 20 for each subject. In order to increase the reliabilty of the test, the researcher asked two experienced university professors to correct the papers. the result of the reliability of the two scorers is presented in table 4.1 bellow.

Inter-Rater Reliabilty
Table 5 displays that both raters were very close in their grading the papers. The 95% agreement rate was calculated for scoring by two raters at p-value of 0.36 > 0.05.

Table 5: Inter-rater Reliability

Inter-rater Reliability	t-test for Equality of Means				
	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	38	.369	.35055	-.38925	1.02562
Equal variances not assumed	37.865	.369	.35055	-.38932	1.02569

According to the p value (p=.36 ≥ .05) estimated by the independent t. test it is claimed that the two groups were not significantly different in their narrative writing ability test.

Narrative Writing Post-test
As it was mentioned in procedure section the last writing task given to control and experimental groups was considered as the post test for the project. The test once again was evaluated by the two professional instructor who showed at pre test that their scoring was reliable according to the interreliability test conducted.
In order to test the research hypothesis an independent t. test was conducted using the score of the subjects of the two groups in post test narrative writing. The result of this analysis is presented in tables 6 and 7bellow:

Table 6: Group Statistics of control and experimental groups

	VAR00002	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
VAR00001	Control group	20	13.6500	2.70039	.60383
	Experimental group	20	16.1000	2.04939	.45826

Table 7: Independent Samples Test of control and experimental groups

		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
VAR00001	Equal variances assumed	2.266	.141	-3.232	38	.003	-2.45000	.75803	-3.98455	-.91545
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.232	35.43470	.003	-2.45000	.75803	-3.98820	-.91180

As table 6 indicates that the mean scores of control and experimental groups are 13.65 and 16.10 respectively. Furthermore statistics estimated by independent t test shown in table 7 , p=.00 ≤ .05 , indicates that the p value is less than probability level of .05 ; as a result it can be concluded that the experimental group was significantly different and outperformed the control group at the post test. The finding rejects the null hypothesis and indicates that explicit corrective feedback is effective in improving the narrative writing ability of EFL Learners.

CONCLUSION
In this study, according to the procedure of the research explained in last two sections, first the researcher compared the performances of two groups of experimental and control via an independent t test in narrative writing; according to the result of the statistics gained in the study, the p-value was 0.06 that was more than the critical value 0.05; in addition, the result of the descriptive statistics showed that the mean difference between the groups was not significant; as a result there was not a significant difference between the groups and they were almost the same in their narrative writing ability at the beginning of the study, the subjects were homogenous.
Later, the subject's performance in post-test was calculated via an independent t test; the p-value was 0.003 that was less than 0.05; thus it could be concluded that there was a significant difference between the two groups in their writing ability. Therefore ,the null hypothesis was rejected and it could be inferred that the treatment was a proper technique to improve students narrated writing ability; the differences between control and experimental groups was due first to
the contact between the teacher and the participants; the control group treatment was done at class; the experimental group was taught via email.

The findings of this study are in line with Ellis (2009), Bitchener & Knoch (2010), Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis (2001), and Carroll & Swain (1993), that the provision of more direct and explicit corrective feedback is more beneficial for language learners. Based on noticing hypothesis theory, to learn something, it has to be noticed first. Learners have to consciously notice or pay attention to input (corrected written texts) to improve it to intake for L2 learning. Regarding the limitations of the present study, the first one is due to the sample size of the participants. There were 40 subjects in this study that were divided into two groups; because of the limited number of participants, there was not a possibility of randomization in the research. The second limitation of the study is related to the age range of the subjects; again due to the limited number of participants there was a limited range of age present in the study. The third limitation is due to the proficiency level of the subjects. As mentioned before, the limitation in the sample size led to some problems in this research that the last one was related to not having several proficiency levels in the research study.

The first delimitation of the study is related to the type of feedback provided to the participants of the study. In spite of different corrective feedback in the literature, the researcher only chose one type: explicit corrective feedback. The second delimitation of the study is related to the target features in the narrative writing ability. Only three target features (subject, verb tense, definite & indefinite articles) were focused on by the researcher.

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HEDGING AND BOOSTING AS INTERACTIONAL METADISCOURSE IN LITERATURE DOCTORAL DISSERTATION ABSTRACTS

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ABSTRACT
Writing traditions of different disciplines of study are linguistically uniquely ritualized in the way writers present their arguments. Claims in other subjects are strengthened by showing commitment through boosting devices while other subjects recommending detached way of writing through hedging. The present study was undertaken to investigate the culture of writing in literature subject by analyzing dissertation abstracts of PhD candidates in the field using Hyland's (2005) metadiscourse taxonomy. Sixty abstracts, from 2007 to 2012, were selected and analysed using AntConc concordance tool supplemented by manual analysis. The study discovers that literature PhD candidates hedge three times more than they use boosters favoring the use of low commitment modal auxiliary can and solidarity phrases. They boost only when they are convinced that their claims share some universal understanding. The study recommends that lessons on hedging and boosting need to be included in the research writing subjects of novice writers for them to be more conversant with the conventions of research writing that strictly obeys the required formality.

KEYWORDS: Hedges, boosters, interactional metadiscourse, dissertation abstracts, literature PhD students

INTRODUCTION

Research abstracts have recently attracted wide scholarly attention in the field of corpus linguistics especially from those whose primary focus is on metadiscourse. Modern linguists have realized that research abstracts (RAs) constitute a special genre with unique linguistic features. When crafting abstracts, writers employ language cautiously because the acceptance of their research papers depends largely on how they are presented to the academic community (Nivales, 2010). They have to decide either to increase the strength of their propositions by using boosters or decrease the force through the use of hedges. Researches indicate that hedges and boosters serve three main functions: 1) threat minimizing strategy to signal distance and to avoid absolute statements; 2) strategies to accurately reflect the certainty of knowledge; and 3) politeness strategies between writers and editors (Salager-Meyer, 1997; Nivales, 2010; Hinckel, 2009).

The growing interest on hedges is apparent in various research investigations spanning hedging in speaking to hedging in writing (Hyland, 1994). Scholars have explored frequency and functions of hedging according to genre and different rhetorical sections of scientific papers (Salager-Meyer, 1997). Mojica (2005) studied hedges in research articles of Filipino engineers and linguists to examine how these authors use this academic discourse feature. Her study indicates that there was significant difference in the two groups of authors' ways of showing commitment and detachment to their proposed ideas: Engineers boost more while linguists hedge more. She attributed this difference to the highly technical discussions in engineering as well as to its writing conventions which may not be as rigid as those of the linguists' (Nivales, 2009). Her study further notes that the use of hedging by engineers, despite the probable absence of academic writing training, could be influenced by the Filipino culture, which is known for its politeness. This suggests that every discipline of study is uniquely ritualized in its extent to which it accommodates hedging and boosting metadiscourse features. Abdi (2011) observes that academic writers leave traces of themselves in their writing which may be linked to their national culture. This study is specifically set to investigate whether literature PhD candidates are highly committed or detached to their ideas in the way they present their dissertation abstracts to the academia. The study has been necessitated because communication through writing of doctoral theses is both prestigious and highly structured. As such, writing abstracts, for such theses, has proven to be very specialized activity with many visible and invisible layers. Therefore, it is hoped that an analysis of how doctoral researchers confidently or detachedly present their ideas would be highly beneficial to all stakeholders concerned in the teaching and learning of English.

Framework

A recent taxonomy of metadiscourse formulated by Hyland (2005) which appears in Table 1 below was chosen as the model for this study. As noted by Abdi, (2011) Hyland's model is highly preferred in modern metadiscourse studies for being recent, simple, clear and comprehensive.

Table 1: A model of metadiscourse in academic texts

Category	Function	Examples
Interactive	**Help to guide the reader through the text**	**Resources**
Transitions	express relations between main clauses	in addition; but; thus; and
Frame markers	refer to discourse acts, sequences or stages	finally; to conclude; my purpose is
Endophoric markers	refer to information from other texts	noted above; see figure; in section 2
Evidentials	refer to information from other texts	according to X; Z states
Code glosses	elaborate propositional meaning	namely; e.g; such as, in other words
Interactional	**Involve the reader in the texts**	**Resources**
Hedges	withhold commitment and open dialogue	might; perhaps; possible; about
Boosters	emphasize certainty and close dialogue	in fact; definitely; it is clear that
Attitude markers	express writers' attitude to proposition	unfortunately; I agree; surprisingly
Self mentions	explicitly reference to author(s)	I; we; my; me; our
Engagement markers	explicitly build relationship with readers	consider; note; you can see that

This study only concentrated on Hedges and Boosters under interactional metadiscourse, and had nothing to do with the rest. Unlike interactive metadiscourse resources that aim at guiding the reader through the text with the aid of linguistic signposts, interactional metadiscourse deals with writers' expression of opinion and their relationship and interaction with the readers (Velde & Gillaerts, 2010). Interactional metadiscourse is more personal, direct, evidently related to interpersonality. We have restricted our study to this type by primarily focusing on hedges and boosters as main means of showing commitment and detachment in written texts.

RESEARCH QUESTION

The study specifically aims at addressing the following question:

How do literature doctoral candidates present their arguments in the abstracts of their academic research?

METHOD OF RESEARCH

The Corpus

RAs abstracts for doctoral dissertations for literature were selected to be the corpus of the study. Sixty abstracts, from 2007 to 2012, (ten for each year) were downloaded from http://pqdt.calis.edu.cn/, which is an international abstract database for dissertations of all disciplines. The corpus was later converted into text format so that they could be operated on *AntiConc* software. In order to ensure reasonable coverage across the discipline, we randomly selected ten abstracts from each category of literature ranging from African, American, Caribbean and English literature so that conclusions drawn should cater across all these categories.

Detecting Hedges and Boosters

All the seven items listed in the model above under hedges and boosters were used during analysis. However, since no comprehensive list exists, as admitted by some scholars (Adel, 2006; Vassileva, 2001), some forms, not mentioned in the list, were also recognized in the process of analysis and were put into groups. Hedges were grouped into three. The first category consists of modal and lexical verbs with low degree of commitment such as *may, might, could, can* and *would*. Introductory verbs like *seem, suggest, appear*, and phrases that use any or a combination of these, such as *it may seem to appear, it might be suggested* formed another category. Lastly, probability adjectives and their adverbs counterparts like *possible/possibly, probable/probably, presume/presumably* were also grouped together. Boosters were similarly classified into three. The first group comprised of modal auxiliaries with higher degree of commitment like *must, should, have to,* and *need to*. Adjectives as well as adverbs like *certainly, definitely,* and *obviously* were treated as boosters as they are used to show confidence in the claims. Solidarity features like *it is well-known, it is a fact, as we all know,* were also grouped as boosters in this study.

Data Analysis
Data for the study was analysed with an aid of *AntiConc* software concordance tool which has come to be widely used in studies on corpus linguistics. Besides that the tool is fast, effective, and time saving, it was further chosen for its ability to detect how words and phrases are commonly used in the corpus. All the files were selected, and each hedging and boosting item was entered individually to see how it frequently occurs in the corpus. All the results were recorded manually for further analysis. To supplement the machine concordancing strategy, a manual analysis followed immediately to identify other items that perform equal function of boosting and hedging but were not included in the model in Table 1 above.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
Results of the study are shown in Table 2 below.

Table 2: Distribution of hedges and boosters in the corpus

	Type	Resources	Frequency
Hedges	**Type 1:** Low commitment modal auxiliaries	May	7
		Might	7
		Could	5
		Can	17
		would	8
			44 in total
	Type 2: Introductory verbs	Seem(s)	4
		Suggest(s)	8
		Appear(s)	4
		Believe	1
		Assume(s)	2
			19 in total
	Type 3: Adjectives and adverbs	Possible/possibly	5
		likely	1
		probably	0
		presumably	0
		perhaps	0
		Apparently	1
			7 in total
Grand Total			**70**
Boosters	**Type 1:** High commitment modals	must	4
		Should	6
		Have to	0
		Need to	2
			12 in total
	Type 2: Adjective and adverbs	certainly	0
		definitely	0
		obviously	0
			None

	Type 3: Solidarity features	It is a well-known	1
		It is a fact	8
		We all know	0
			9 in total
Grand Total			**21**

As seen from Table 2 above, doctoral researchers in literature use hedges three times more than boosters. This may not be very surprising. Literature, as a subject belonging to art, is very personal and subjective. As such interpretation of events in works of fiction might not be presented precisely as they heavily rely on personal perception and judgment. These advanced scholars are quite aware that one only needs to use overt boosters when they are convinced about the certainty of their claims or when their statements contain ideas that they believe to be true and universally proven. This may not necessarily apply to literature due to its subjective nature with the presence of bulk of conflicting schools of thoughts that remain unresolved. Furthermore, doctoral dissertations are meant to be original and should significantly contribute to the growing body of knowledge in the field. As such, candidates trade cautiously when presenting such fluid work to highly experienced professors. Hence, opting for hedges than boosters would help them tone down their statements and reduce risk of opposition. Literature candidates deliberately avoid personal accountability of their claims by blatantly leaving room to accommodate opposing views which may open up a new debate in the field.

It appears Type 1 (modal auxiliaries of low commitment) is preferred when hedging when showing detachment to their claims. Modal auxiliaries constitute 63% of the total hedging resources used. Among the five modals identified in the corpus, *can* takes a lion's share of 37%. The study agrees with Mojica (2005) who also observed that modals are the favored form of hedging highly used in most texts. Hinkel (2009) note that use of low commitment auxiliary modals, such as *can, may, might, could,* serve a huge purpose in written academic discourse. These verbs, together with other linguistic elements perform a range of textual and pragmatic functions. They often serve to mark evidentiality, possibility and likelihood, strategic vagueness, and politeness in discourse. In the corpus, the candidates use such modals to refer to matters of personal beliefs and knowledge which served as a basis for writers to express their judgments about states of affairs, events, and actions in the work of fiction. These low commitment modals represent gradient markers of possibility and tend to have overlapping meanings that can be interchangeable in some contexts. The students detachedly want their readers to know that they do not claim to have the final word on the subject.

Type 2 hedges (introductory phrases) which comes second in the rank equally perform a similar function to low commitment modals. Literature students' use of phrases like *I suggest, it seems, it appears,* in the following syntactic structures, does not show confusion or lack of authoritative knowledge:

a)   Al-Masadis ethical literary project, I *suggest,* reads artistic representation as a   mode of creation (Malcom, 2012 PhD abstract).
b)   Rural society is just too sparse, and relationships stereotypically *appear* as changeless as the age-old rural modes of living (Moffitt, 2012 PhD Abstract).

c)   Their use of dramatic form and the manner and style in which they (re)present an unsung history *seems to suggest* a perspective and animus (Prece, 2008 PhD Abstract)

Literature doctoral candidates' use of italicised phrases, in the above excerpts, indicates their precision in reporting results. The phrases present the true state of the writers' understanding and may be used to negotiate an accurate representation of the state of the knowledge under discussion. In fact, these students may wish to reduce the strength of claims especially when stronger statements cannot be justified by the data or evidence presented, which in the end will deter their thesis defence. Advanced L2 prose analysts are expected to master such appropriate use of precision and vagueness and acquire judgment of where and how to be appropriately imprecise in their writing of literature abstracts.

The study further agrees with Biber et al. (1999) who observe that overall frequency levels of high commitment boosting modals, such as *must, should, ought to, need (to),* and *have to* in academic writing is around half of that of low commitment modals. It has also been observed that they are the preferred form of boosting as revealed in the corpus of this study, with 57% of the total boosters. In general terms, the uses of boosting modals of high commitment convey commitment, obligation and compulsion to act perhaps through a sense of duty, self-discipline, or merely through the sense of expediency (Leech, 2005). Additionally, according to Leech (2005), these modals

refer to logical (that is, inferential and reasoned) necessity, based on logical deduction *(as in the heater should/has to/ought to work now)*. Boosting modals typically refer to the necessity of actions and events and real-world obligations that can be social, moral, physical, psychological, or emotional that compels one to act. In the following excerpts identified in the corpus,

   d) […] political and economic reforms specifically targeting corruption and governance *must* be undertaken as well (Bellin, 2009 PhD abstract)
   e) These new techniques and changes *must* be fully integrated into to the conduct of current research in African history (Walsh, 2009 PhD abstract)

Writers use modal booster *must* commitedly to strengthen their claims and impart an element of objectivity and the necessity to undertake such an action without much ado. In (d) Bellin stresses on the need to perform political and economic reform those targeting corruption and good governance. While in (e) Walsh emphasizes that the new techniques and changes have to be integrated fully into the current research trends of African history. Corruption is universally viewed as a malpractice that deters development hence the writer knows that his overt use of booster *must,* to stress his claim, will go highly unopposed and easily accepted. In the same vein, the new techniques and changes, that Walsh puts forwards, are new innovations to the field of African history which indicate his research originality; hence their use of strong boosters indicate their high commitment and conviction about their research output.

The analysis also reveals that boosting modals *need to, ought to,* and *have to* have rarely been used in the corpus. There is only one incident ("there is urgent *need to* re-evaluate the entire selection policy") where modal *need to* has been featured as a booster. Despite their resemblance to *must* in denoting obligation and necessity, the former have been disfavored due to their low gradient strength. These advanced scholars operated on two clear extremes. In their crafting of abstracts, only high hedges and strong boosters were chosen leaving a very tiny room for modals with weak stamina.

It is also noticeable from the corpus that Type 3 solidarity feature booster *(it is a fact)* has been used eight times out of the total twenty-one boosters used constituting 38%. These students could probably choose this booster as a way of occupying a niche and urging readers of their abstracts to see the importance of their study. Appealing to readers, in this case high profiled academicians, to see the need of their study, is a strategy to assert their identity and their originality, as well as the possible contributions their studies could make, hence have their dissertations approved.

It is also worthy commenting on the scanty usage of adjectives and adverbs as both hedges and boosters. They both occupy less than 1% of the total metadiscoursal devices under discussion. The limited usage of qualifying words maybe attributed to students desire to be as direct as possible. Dissertation abstracts which are meant to be summaries of a huge document need to present important ideas that capture the gist of their theses only in a single paragraph. Hence, the candidates only opt for words that are functional and leave out grammatical ones like adjectives and adverbs.

CONCLUSION
Advanced L2 writers, especially those writing on subjective topics like the ones in literature, need to be familiar with means of projecting their commitment or detachment in written discourse. How to be imprecise and appear reserved in formal writing is delineated by culturally and socially determined conventions since the author and the reader may not share the same norms and expectations. The study has discovered that literature doctoral students' hedge three times more than they use boosters; favoring the use of low commitment modal auxiliary *can*. We have observed that students opt for modal hedges as a way of reducing the risk of opposition, being precise in reporting results, but also as a means of being polite and accommodative in their attempt to get their thesis approved and have them passed. However, these scholars sparsely use boosters to show their research originality but also when they were quite sure that their claims share some universal understanding.

We, therefore, agree with Nivales (2010:43) in recommending that lessons on hedging and boosting need to be included in the research writing subjects as well as the need for novice writers to be more exposed to the conventions

of research writing. Developing writers need to be aware of the usefulness of metadiscoursal devices in presenting their claims especially on topics that are controversial. Hedges have been widely commended to be very useful resources that students can utilize in their serious academic writing.

We further note that making overt conclusions regarding the writing culture of doctoral literature abstracts is beyond the scope of a single study. Further researchers can diachronically investigate the changing trends in the use of hedges and booster over time. A comparative study can also be undertaken to assess whether literature PhD students from various parts of the globe use similar linguistic resources' in crafting RAs, for instance, comparing African literary scholars and Americans and investigating factors behind.

Limitations of the study
Corpus of the study was limited because the abstracts used were only those that were accessible online. All those that are not published online were not part of the corpus. Secondly, the data was strictly for doctoral candidates, therefore, results and conclusions drawn here may not be confidently generalized to other group of literature candidates.

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ANTHEMS AS PROPAGANDA:
A DISCOURSAL TRANSLATION QUALITY ASSESSMENT

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ABSTRACT
Translation of works of aesthetic and literary value particularly anthems has been one of the thought-provoking and serious areas in translation studies. Anthem as one of the techniques of propaganda transmission is a formal song of loyalty, praise, or happiness and a song that is important to a particular group of people. This paper assesses the quality of two English-Persian translations of the anthems in Orwell's Animal Farm based on House's revised discoursal model. Accordingly, a literary work has to be translated overtly, to be realized as an adequate translation, and any deviation from it would be considered as an error. First the professional profiles of the translators were analyzed to find out the expert and novice translators based on Dimitrova's notion of 'expertise in translation'. Second the profiles of the source text and the two translations were analyzed on four different levels: function of the individual text, genre, register (field, mode and tenor), and language/text. Two types of errors were discussed: the covertly and overtly erroneous errors. Finally conclusions were drawn to find out whether the expert or novice translator's translation is more or less adequate. The findings of the study revealed that expert performance does not always result in superior performance.

KEYWORDS: Discourse, Translation Quality Assessment (TQA), Adequate Translation, Anthem, Propaganda

INTRODUCTION
Background of the Problem
Translation of sociopolitical works of aesthetic and literary value has been one of the thought-provoking and serious areas in translation studies. The situation becomes more challenging and demanding when (a) the source language (SL) and target language (TL) are culturally and socio-linguistically different, and (b) the source text (ST) like Orwell's Animal Farm (1945) is loaded with a large number of literary devices. It is clear that language is truly and inextricably interwoven with culture. It is not an exaggeration to claim that "language is the lifeblood of culture and that culture is the track along which language forms and develops" (Hongwei, 1999, p. 121; Cf. Bailey, 2005, p. 9). On the other hand, form and content are the lifeblood of poetry. Since form and content are of rather equal importance in poetry, it is very difficult and problematic to preserve both in the process of translation. Therefore, the polarity between the significance of form and content places the translator in two minds whether to go towards form or content and put his/her effort in vain in some cases. It is observed that some translators tend to preserve the content, thus, the form of the original is lost. On the contrary, some translators is apt to preserve the form, therefore, the contents is lost. Some other translators, on the other hand, leave the form and content of the original aside and have an intertextual or interpretative inclination towards their translation. Whether, more or less, form is lost or content in the translation depends upon many aspects including the original text, the translator(s), power agencies, publishers etc. It is obvious that there are reasons and philosophies that lie behind these major discoursally ideological distortions. Furthermore, some professional translators try to keep both form and content of the source text to a great possible extent in the translation.

Purpose of the Study
This paper aims to assess the quality of two English-Persian translations of the anthems in Orwell's Animal Farm (1945) based on House's (1997/2009) revised discoursal model, among the latest and successful approaches to translation evaluation. The two almost concurrent translations were done one by the expert/experienced translators and one by the novice/non-experienced ones. Therefore, Dimitrova's (2005, p. 16) notion of "expertise in translation" is applied. She holds that expert performance is defined as "consistently superior performance on a

169

specific set of representative tasks for the domain". Using the terms "experts and novices" (p. 10), Dimitrova highlights that "translation ability can develop into translator competence (TC), through formal learning and training and/or through gaining practical professional experience. Translator competence can develop into translation expertise" (p. 19).

Statement of the Hypotheses

On the basis of above mentioned research questions, the following hypotheses have been formulated:

(1) Based on House's translation quality assessment model (1997), a literary work has to be translated overtly, to be realized as an adequate translation, and any deviation from it will be considered as an error.

(2) Based on Dimitrova's (2005, p. 16) notion of "expertise in translation", expert performance is defined as "consistently superior performance on a specific set of representative tasks for the domain".

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Propaganda

Propaganda, one of the major conduits of social control, is a specific type of message presentation aimed at "serving an agenda", "to actively influence people's opinions", and "to merely create a false image in the mind" (NETCHARLES. Retrieved 1/11/2013). Propaganda refers to "information which is false or which emphasizes just one part of a situation, used by a government or political group to make people agree with them" (LDOCE, 2009). In other words, propaganda is a tool in an agency's hand as an attempt to mold public opinion into biased, untrue and fake images in order to gain unfair control or power. Propaganda may be transmitted overtly or covertly. That is, it can be spread through the mass media explicitly and implicitly in order to receive heavy coverage to be more influential. In fact, the very intention of propaganda is to encourage, promote and support an idea through repetition, and drown-out or disregard or reject any alternative ideas. Chomsky has a different perspective about propaganda. In his book Media Control: The Spectacular Achievements of Propaganda, Chomsky (1997) maintains that:

> . . . As society has become more free and democratic, you lose that capacity. Therefore you have to turn to the techniques of propaganda. The logic is clear. Propaganda is to a democracy what the bludgeon is to a totalitarian state. (p. 11)

Chomsky claims that propaganda is applied ". . . to control thought and manufacture consent. Nevertheless, people are acquiring an ability and a willingness to think things through", thus, "skepticism about power has grown, and attitudes have changed on many, many issues" (p. 30). He holds that "in a well-functioning propaganda system, nobody would know what I'm talking about when" (p. 40). Fawcett (2009) considers 'lies and propaganda' in the same realm and rate. He highlights that:

> lies told in an era give us some real insights into history. . . . [lies and propaganda have been expressed in variety of topics running] the gamut from war and politics to medicine and crime. . . . [With regard to the negative feedback and consequences of lies and propaganda,] some of the lies [cause] . . . great pain, others great embarrassment. [Concerning the people's response to lies and propaganda,] there are some lies people just want to believe. Other lies are accepted because no one knows better. Many lies are successful simply because the liar is so good at telling them. (p. vii)

However, some of the techniques and strategies that are usually applied to propaganda are as follows: (a) Selected facts in support and confirmation of an idea or statement (b) Lying and purposefully deceiving through an intentionally untruthful statement (c) Repetition, that is, to retelling the same words repeatedly to be imprinted on the people's mind forever. (d) Identifying the (true or false) enemy, that is, to diverting the public opinion and attention into an imaginary enemy away from the speaker (e) rhetorical questions (intending to not to encourage a specific answer, but rather to elicit the listener to regard a message or perspective) (f) contention (a strong opinion that someone expresses, that is, bold statements).

Anthem

Anthem, as one of the techniques of propaganda transmission, refers to "a song that has a special importance for a country, an organization or a particular group of people, and is sung on special occasions" (Hornby, 2013). In other words, anthem is "a formal song of loyalty, praise, or happiness and a song that is important to a particular group of people" (Merriam-Webster, 2004). According to this dictionary, the origin of anthem goes back to the church in the mid-16th in which it was regarded as a church music. It was sung at morning and evening prayer. Since anthem is linked to religion as one of the most powerful and magic phenomena political powers tended to misuse its application and use it as a technique of propaganda in order to stabilize their power and position and establish their

ideology among the public people. Later on it became as a symbol where each country has a particular anthem for itself called national anthem. According to Encyclopedia Britannica,

> National anthem, hymn or song . . . [expresses] patriotic sentiment and either governmentally authorized as an official national hymn or holding that position in popular feeling. The oldest national anthem is Great Britain's "God Save the Queen," which was described as a national anthem in 1825, although it had been popular as a patriotic song and used on occasions of royal ceremonial since the mid-18th century. (Britannica, 2012)

However, Anthems in Animal Farm are sources of hollow inspiration and stimulation of 'loyalty, praise, or happiness' especially the anthems after the death of old Major. Since they are sung in a frenzy and in a fit of hysteria, they can be considered as emotional and not factual phenomena.

Propagandists and Anthems in Animal Farm

Anthems are the most outstanding samples of propaganda in Orwell's Animal Farm. The novel initiates with a war resulting in a victory. Propaganda in Animal Farm is used to deceive, mystify and bewilder the animals, to conceal the reality of the situation from them, and to stop them thinking for themselves. The prominent propagandists of the novel were Old Major, Squealer and Minimus. The anthems in Animal Farm which were the focus of analysis in this paper were "Beasts of England", "Animal Farm, Animal Farm", and "Comrade Napoleon!".

Old Major and Beasts of England

Old Major is an award-winning boar, holds a meeting consisting of the animals of the Manor Farm in the big barn. According to SparkNotes (2007):

> As a democratic socialist, Orwell had a great deal of respect for Karl Marx, the German political economist, and even for Vladimir Ilych Lenin, the Russian revolutionary leader. His critique of Animal Farm has little to do with the Marxist ideology underlying the Rebellion but rather with the perversion of that ideology by later leaders. Major, who represents both Marx and Lenin, serves as the source of the ideals that the animals continue to uphold even after their pig leaders have betrayed them.

Old Major tells them his dream in the form of the song "Beasts of England" of unity among animals living together in peace without being tyrannized, oppressed, or controlled by human beings. The song inspires the animals to voluntarily "toil for freedom's sake" even if they die before the achievements envisaging the "golden future time". The anthem "Beasts of England" is so arousing and provoking that the animals sing it for a couple of times in unison. Major highlights that the animals have to be determined to work toward such a utopia. "Beasts of England," was more than a revolutionary anthem he teaches them preparing for the Rebellion but most of animals are not brainy enough to bring the song into action straightforwardly. This song is the reflection of his dream in words, indicating that Animal Awakening and Animal Spring is coming soon. Old Major "not only bestows his theory upon the animals, he awakens them from the dreamtime of Man's ideology and rouses them to action" (Gradesaver. Retrieved 22/7/2013). Showing considerable fervor in their eagerness, the animals welcome Major's dream to come true. Animals sing "Beasts of England" yet again after the battle. However, singing this song is marked as useless and obsolete and becomes forbidden by Napoleon and Squealer in favor of a new anthem containing a promise never to harm Animal Farm. In fact, "Napoleon replaces the revolutionary spirit of 'Beasts of England' with the exact opposite, a promise not to rebel", Minimus's "Animal Farm, Animal Farm**,** /Never through me shalt thou come to harm!" (Gradesaver. Retrieved 22/7/2013). Some animals suspect that there is something wrong with the story but they cannot contemplate and reason not being able to describe what or how. It is presumed that the main reason Napoleon forbids the Major's song is that animals learnt the song by heart, thus, he cannot revise it like the Seven Commandments. Therefore Napoleon forces them to put the song out of their mind. Three nights after his death, Snowball, Napoleon, and Squealer, three younger pigs, establish the philosophy of Animalism based on Major's main guidelines.

Squealer as a Propaganda Machine

Napoleon's propaganda is prevalent among the other animals by a silver-tongued pig called Squealer. Highly influential in making the animals believe almost anything and turning "black into white" (Orwell, 1945, p. 18). In

fact, "Squealer is the most prominent propagandist of the novel in favor of Napoleon as his minister of propaganda" (Gradesaver. Retrieved 22/7/2013). Representing a totalitarian government's propaganda machine, Squealer defends the pigs' power and control over the properties and disseminates untrue statistics indicating the success of Farm and animals. By Squealer, Orwell shows and helps the reader discover that the people in power very often apply the baffling language, jargon and sophistries to turn true to false in order to maintain their social and political position. One of the significant aims of Orwell was to display how the politicians and power agencies manipulate the fact for the sake of maintaining their power. He believed that the position of power brings about distortion and corruption. The power that Squealer works for is Napoleon. By the use of various rhetorical techniques, Squealer's attempts are towards supporting Napoleon's actions and policies. Moreover, he uses simple phrases —as by teaching the sheep to repeat "Four legs good, two legs better!"—and confines the debate lexicon. Regarding Squealer's strategies in persuading the animals, SparkNotes (2007) states that:

> By complicating language unnecessarily, he confuses and intimidates the uneducated, as when he explains that pigs, who are the "brainworkers" of the farm, consume milk and apples not for pleasure, but for the good of their comrades. . . . [Squealer engenders] in the other animals both self-doubt and a sense of hopelessness about ever accessing the truth without the pigs' mediation.

Squealer's name was even intelligently chosen to reflect his personality to a great possible extent. According to the Merriam-Webster's collegiate dictionary (2004), "squeal" means (a) "to make or cause (something) to make a long, high-pitched cry or noise" (b) "to tell someone in authority (such as the police or a teacher) about something wrong that someone has done" (c) "to say (something) in a high and excited voice". The first sense refers to Squealer's strategy in making the animals to chant limited slogans in spite of the fact that they could not contemplate. The second sense refers to Squealer's betrayal and lack of morality and steadfast faithfulness to his leader. The third sense of the word "squeal" refers to Squealer's sly and deceptive use of rhetorical skills.

Minimus and His Poems
Minimus is the poet pig who composes propaganda songs and poems about and under the rule of Napoleon. Minimus was the pig who "had a remarkable gift for composing songs and poems" (Orwell, 1945, p. 34). Like the name selection strategy of the other protagonists of the novel, the concept of "Minimus" means "a creature or being that is the smallest or least significant" (Dictionary.Reference. Retrieved 20/2/2014). He named "Minimus" since he did not complain and express his own feelings and beliefs although was forced to use his talents in support of Napoleon. He represents "the Soviet Union's artists, who were forced to use their talents to glorify communism rather than express their personal feelings or beliefs" (Gradesaver. Retrieved 22/7/2013). His nationalistic song "Animal Farm, Animal Farm, /Never through me shalt thou come to harm!" was written to replace the earlier unwavering anthem "Beasts of England," which Old Major told and passed one to another. In fact, Minimus was the poet and writer of the second and third national anthems of Animal Farm in praise of Napoleon, after Major's "Beasts of England" is forbidden and outlawed. This short poem was a warm-up to the big change. Kirschner (2004, p. 762) maintains that ""the switch from 'Beasts of England' to 'Animal Farm!' is a parody of the transition from Lenin's proletarian internationalism to Stalin's 'Socialism in One Country' ". The third national anthems was called "Comrade Napoleon!" The replacement of the original anthem by Napoleon with the assistance of Minimus and Squealer was an ideological change representing the official corruption and distortion of the revolutionary doctrines established by Old Major. Serving as propaganda, the main purpose of the songs and more specifically the chants and anthems was to make the working-class animals voice the same terms at the same time. As a result, the pigs could maintain their plans and retain power. Furthermore, the songs distracted the animals' focus of attention from sense of individuality into the daily tasks with an empty whimsical sense of achieving freedom.

Literacy and Propaganda
Literacy is "the ability to read and write" (Hornby, 2006). In contrast, illiteracy or analphabetism refers to the inability to read and write. Literacy is the tool for providing a necessary platform for the deep understanding and decoding written or spoken words. Furthermore, visual literacy refers to the ability to comprehend visual forms of communication such as body language, pictures, maps, and video. Literacy covers a multifarious set of abilities to recognize and apply the dominant symbol systems of a culture for personal and community progress. Regarding the definition of literacy, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) states than:

> Literacy is the ability to identify, understand, interpret, create, communicate and compute, using printed and written materials associated with varying contexts. Literacy involves a continuum of learning in enabling individuals to achieve his or her goals, develop his or her knowledge and potential and participate fully in community and wider society. (2005)

Some of the examples related to literacy in Animal Farm are Beasts of England, the Seven Commandments, the child's book, the manuals, the magazines, and the horse-slaughterer's van. The matter of illiteracy is so prevalent among the animals that it is mentioned more than twenty times throughout the story directly or indirectly. The animals does not understand, are not able to contemplate, and are not able to express their feelings, ideas and beliefs. Except for a couple of animals including the pigs, the dogs, Muriel, the goat, Benjamin, the donkey, most animals could not even read and write (Orwell, 1945, pp. 24-25). Regarding the pubic, some of the expressions indicating the animal's illiteracy, uncertainty, stupidity and idiocy are as follows:

Can you not understand that liberty is worth more than ribbons? (p. 18)
[The animals] could never think of any resolutions of their own. (p. 24)
None of the other animals on the farm could get further than the letter A. (p. 25)
The birds did not understand Snowball's long words, but they accepted his explanation, . . . (p. 25)
They could not understand, . . . (p. 27)
. . . at least they thought that they remembered it. (p. 36)
. . . some of the animals remembered-or thought they remembered . . . (p. 46)
. . . they could no longer remember very clearly . . . (p. 47)
. . . hardly anyone was able to understand. (p. 53)
None of the animals could form any idea as to what this meant, . . . (p. 54)
. . . seemed to understand, but would say nothing. (p. 54)
. . . the animals had remembered wrong. (p. 54)
The animals believed every word of it. (p. 55)
Do you not understand what that means? (p. 58)
. . . the other animals were too ignorant to understand. (p. 61)
They could not remember. (p. 61)
. . . , mistaken ideas had been current. (p. 64)

Literacy to propagandists is "a source of power and a vehicle for propaganda" (Gradesaver. Retrieved 22/7/2013). On the other hand, if an audience is illiterate, the propaganda works well and is believed easily and widely. In other words, the less literate the people are, the more they will believe and trust in propaganda and propagandists. Therefore, literacy and awareness are in contrast with and against propaganda and propagandist. From the other point of view, literacy should be consistent in order to promote the past and present conditions. Having a good command of history, not forgetting the past and being aware of the present conditions are among the yardsticks which help to promote the present conditions and develop new ideas. There have been some scholars (Burke, Shepard, & Ventura) who stressed that 'those who forget, don't know, or cannot remember the past and history are doomed to repeat it' (Goodreads. Retririved 1/2/2014). Thus it is for propagandists and their power agencies to evade the issue of literacy among the public people by means of various policies and strategies. One of these policies and strategies utilized by the pigs in Animal Farm is to wrest control of the media from the animals. According to Oxford Dictionary, media refers to "the main ways that large numbers of people receive information and entertainment, that is television, radio, newspapers and the Internet" (Hornby, 2006). In other words, the media is the tool to mold the people's minds and public opinion into the leaders', pigs in Animal Farm, intention and for the sake of maintaining, proving and stabilizing their power. It is clear that controlling and narrowing the media are in contrast with the concept of democracy. The animals were restricted to even newspapers: "Muriel, the goat, . . . sometimes used to read to the others in the evenings from scraps of newspaper which she found on the rubbish heap" (Orwell, 1945, p. 24). This means that the reading material including newspapers were downgraded to rubbish which is nonsense.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS
According to House's (1997/2009) revisited discourse-based TQA Model, the core discoursal framework of this study, and Dimitrova's (2005) notion of 'expertise in translation', the researcher aims to efficiently answer the following questions:

(1) What mismatches and differences are found between the textual profiles of the source text, target text one (TT1) and target text two (TT2)?
(2) Which overtly erroneous errors are found in the translations by the expert and novice translators?

(3) What is the relation between the translators' level of professional experience and the degree of adequacy of translation in the two (almost concurrent) translations of Animal Farm?

METHODOLOGY

The method and analytic framework of this research for the analysis and comparison were as follows:

First, on the basis of the analysis and interpretation of the translators' professional profiles, the expert or experienced translators were differentiated from the novice or non-experienced translators.

Second, the profiles of the source text and the two translations were individually analyzed and interpreted on four different levels: "Function of the Individual Text, Genre, Register (Field, Mode and Tenor), and Language/Text" (House, 1997, p. 107). The analysis and interpretation of each text were paralleled and followed by tables. The initial step was that the notion of context of situation were broken down into manageable analytic units, that is, the "three sociolinguistic dimensions of the context of situation jointly characterizing a particular register": field, mode and tenor (House, 2009, p. 34). If a translation text, in order to be "adequate", is to fulfill the requirement of a dimensional, and as a result of this, a functional match, then "any mismatch along the dimensions is an error", such dimensional errors, called "covertly erroneous errors" (1997, p. 45).

Third, House's (1997) revisited discourse-based TQA model was applied to the corpus of this study. The English and Persian translations were analyzed in terms of overtly erroneous errors. The overtly erroneous errors categorized as omissions, additions, substitutions, ungrammaticality and dubious acceptability were found through the in-depth analysis of the texts.

Fourth, the final qualitative judgment of a translation text "consists of a listing of both covertly and overtly erroneous errors and of a statement of the relative match of the ideational and the interpersonal functional components of the textual function" (pp. 45-46). Based on House's (1997/2009) revisited translation quality assessment (TQA) model, a literary work has to be translated overtly, to be realized as an adequate translation, and any deviation from it would be considered as an error.

Finally, by applying Dimitrova's (2005, p. 16) notion of "expertise in translation", a comparison were drawn between the two translations.

Corpus

The main concern of this paper was to assess the quality of English- Persian translations of the anthems in Orwell's Animal Farm (1945), the source text (ST), based on House's (1997/2009) revised discoursal model. The two (almost concurrent) Persian translations were by Saleh Hosseini and Masumeh Nabi-Zadeh (2004) under the title of Mazraeye Heyvanat [the farm of animals] as TT1 and Mohamad Ali Jodeyri and Samad Mohamadi Asyabi (2005) under the title of Galeye Heyvanat [the castle of animals] as TT2. Orwell's Animal Farm is filled with songs, poems, and slogans. Serving as propaganda, the anthems include Old Major's rousing song, "Beasts of England", Minimus's revised anthem, "Animal Farm, Animal Farm", and Minimus's ode to Napoleon, "Comrade Napoleon!". All of these songs or anthems serve as propaganda.

DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

Source Text Author's Profile

As a novelist, political writer, essayist and journalist, Eric Arthur Blair (1903–1950) (UCL Orwell Archives, n.d.), known by his pen name George Orwell, was born in India in 1903 and died in England in 1950. Shedding more light on Orwell's personality and ideology, SparkNotes maintains that:

> As a young . . . socialist, speaking openly against the excesses of governments east and west . . . [he] could not turn a blind eye to the cruelties and hypocrisies. . . . [Orwell was] a sharp critic of both capitalism and communism, and is remembered chiefly as an advocate of freedom and a committed opponent of communist oppression. His two greatest anti-totalitarian novels—*Animal Farm* and *1984*—form the basis of his reputation. (2007)

Bloom (2005, p. 370) believes that "fable necessarily suited Orwell better than the novel, because he was essentially an essayist and a satirist, and not a storyteller." Along his great essays, Orwell has written six novels, *Burmese Days*

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(1934)*, A Clergyman's Daughter* (1935), *Keep the Aspidistra Flying* (1936), *Coming Up for Air* (1939), *Animal Farm* (1945), *Nineteen Eighty-Four* (1949). The novels are highly filled with the theme of fear and threat and reflect "the extensive changes of outlook and the shifts of values in British and indeed much of human society in the first half of the twentieth century" (Orwell, 1976, p. 8). It continues "Orwell holds a unique place in contemporary English literature" and "honesty, vigor and relevance to today are present in all these novels" (pp. 9-10). The introduction of the book (p. 8) says "He attended Eton, his first publication was a patriotic poem printed by a provincial newspaper during the 1914-18 war, and in 1922 he joined the Indian Imperial Police and served in Burma for the next five years." From that time (1927) his life, until then, seemingly cast in an "upper middle-class mold" and pointing towards a conventional career in "Imperial service", took an entirely fresh course (Orwell, 1976, p. 8). Regarding his marriage at the end of his life after the death of his first wife a couple of years earlier, Stanley (1999, p. 234) believes that "Orwell did plan to write other books, according to his friends, and married while in the hospital, but three months later in 1950 he finally died of tuberculosis."

Translators' Professional Profiles
Saleh Hosseini and Masumeh Nabi-Zadeh
Saleh Hosseini (1946-) from Songhor, Kermanshah of Iran is a translator and critic. Hosseini has a PhD in English Literature of George Washington University of the USA (1975-1979) and he is currently teaching in Shahid Chamran University of Ahvaz, Iran (IRAN-NEWSPAPER. Retrieved 18/12/2007). Iran newspaper holds that Hosseini has written and translated more than twenty six articles, novels and books mainly on literary criticism and translation, as a consequence, he was acclaimed by Iranian Ministry of Culture and Guidance as the leading translator and critic of the Iranian year 1376 (1997).

According to National Library and Archives of Iran, Masoomeh Nabi-Zadeh has contributed in a few translations as an editor (NLAI. Retrieved 01/08/2013).

Mohamad Ali Jodeyri and Samad Mohamadi Asyabi
Mohamad Ali Jodeyri (1958-) translated a few novels and short stories and written/compiled a few books on general fields and Samad Mohamadi Asyabi (1963-) like Masoomeh Nabi-Zadeh has contributed in a few translations as an editor (NLAI. Retrieved 01/08/2013).

Based on the translators' professional profiles, the Persian translations analyzed in this study were by Saleh Hosseini and Masumeh Nabi-Zadeh (the experts) under the title of Mazraeye Heyvanat (the farm of animals) (2004) as TT1, and Mohamad Ali Jodeyri and Samad Mohamadi Asyabi titilng Galeye Heyvanat (the castle of animals) (the novices) (2005) as TT2.

Text Profiles
The profiles of the original text with its two translations were analyzed at this part. The analysis of texts were in four different levels as 'function of the individual text, genre, register (field, mode and tenor), and language/text'. Table 1 highlights the register analysis of the source text and its comparison with the translations.

Table 1: ST and TTs Register Analysis

Register		ST	TT1	TT2
Field	Subject matter	Sociopolitical and ideological anthems/propaganda, Anti-totalitarian Satire	√	√
	Social action	General/Popular	√	√
Tenor	Author's provenance and stance	A British political novelist and essayist with pointed criticisms of political oppression and totalitarianism	Distorted to some extent	Distorted to some extent
	Social role relationship	Asymmetrical	√	√
	Social attitude	Formal	√	√

| Mode | Medium | Simple/Written to be read, Informational Text, Explicit, Non-Abstract Information | √ | √ |
| | Participation | Complex | √ | √ |

Based on Table 1, the original was distorted both in TT1 and TT2 in the realm of tenor. However, the function and genre of the source and target texts were illuminated in Table 2.

Table 2: ST, TT1 and TT2 Analysis of Function, Genre

	ST	TT1	TT2
Function	Ideational	Ideational	Ideational
Genre	Poetry, Anthem, Satire	Poetry, Satire	Partly Prose, Anthem

Table 2 underlines that the genre of TT2 was highly distorted where 'poetry' in ST was translated into 'prose'. 'Form and content' are the essential, inseparable**,** interwoven and indispensable elements of poetry. Since the source text is poetry, 'form' as one of its main features was partly lost in TT2. At the level of language/text, the comparison of the source text and target text one was illustrated in Table 3.

Table 3: Comparison of ST and TT1 at the Level of Language/Text

Item	ST	TT1	Difference (No.)	Difference (%)
Word	286	241	-45	15.7%↓
Clause	34	37	+3	8.8%↑
Sentence	14	14	0	0%
Paragraph	11	11	0	0%

Note. ↓= decrease, ↑= increase

The highest difference between the source text and target text one at the level of language/text was in the number of words with 15.7% decrease. This reduction indicates a distortion with application of the strategy of omission. Whatever the purpose of the omission is in the translation, it is ideological and leads to misunderstanding and misinterpretation of the message of the source text. Moreover, Table 4 focuses on the comparison of source text and target text two at the level of language/text.

Table 4: Comparison of ST and TT2 at the Level of Language/Text

Item	ST	TT2	Difference (No.)	Difference (%)
Word	286	306	+20	7%↑
Clause	34	44	+10	29.4%↑
Sentence	14	14	0	0%
Paragraph	11	11	0	0%

Note. ↓= decrease, ↑= increase

Table 4 displays that a dramatic increase in the number of clauses and a minor increase in words occurred in target text two. This increase indicates the application of the strategy of addition to the translation. This manipulation done by the translator is also ideological. It is clear that any minor or major linguistic changes lead to the distortion of the message of original text. With regard to the extra-linguistic effects of translation texts, there will be sociopolitical effects and changes under any manipulation of translation texts especially in the translation of socio-politically motivated literary texts such as Animal Farm and anthems of this novel in particular.

Table 3 and 4 explores the differences between the source and target texts at the level of language/text. These differences were illustrated in Figure 1 more tangibly.

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	Word	Clause	Sentence	Paragraph
□ TT2	306	44	14	11
▣ TT1	241	37	14	11
■ ST	286	34	14	11
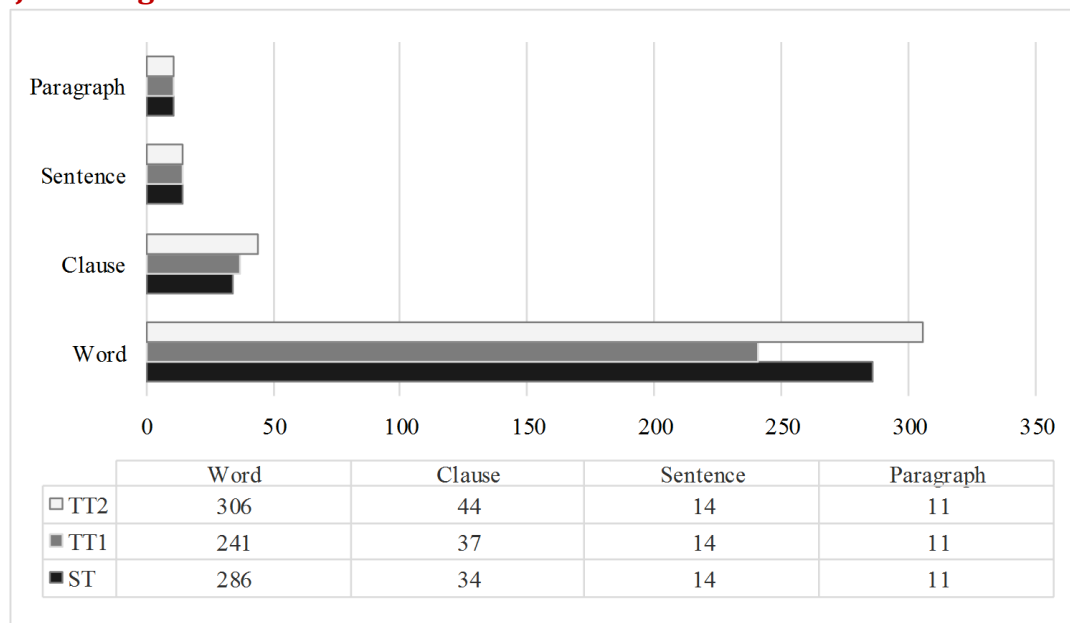
Figure 1: Comparison of ST and TTs at the level of language/text

Figure 1 demonstrates that the major mismatches between ST and TTs at the level of language/text fell into the category of 'words'. Furthermore, some mismatches were discovered in lexical, syntactic and textual means in the process of the analysis of the texts. Theses mismatches were illustrated in Table 5.

Table 5: Mismatches between ST and TTs' Profiles in Lexical, Syntactic and Textual Means

Category	ST	TT1	TT2
Lexical means	More archaic expressions	Some archaic expressions	A few archaic expressions
	Less idiomatic expressions	More idiomatic expressions	Less idiomatic expressions
Syntactic means	Short clauses and long sentences	Short and simple clauses and sentences	Short clauses and long sentences
Textual means:	Strong textual cohesion	Strong textual cohesion	Relatively strong textual cohesion
(a) Clausal linkage	More	More	More
(b) Iconic linkage	Strong	Relatively strong	Relatively strong
(c) Theme dynamics	Strong	Relatively strong	Relatively strong

RESULTS
Conducting the comparative analysis of the source and target texts in details, the covertly erroneous errors of the translations were illustrated in Table 6 in short.

Table 6: Covertly Erroneous Errors of TT1 and TT2

Category	TT1	TT2
Author's Personal Stance	1	1
Lexical Means	2	1
Syntactic Means	1	0

Textual Means	1	2
Genre	1	1
Total Errors	6	5

Table 6 demonstrates that the covertly erroneous errors of TT1 and TT2 are almost at the same rate. Furthermore, after the linguistic analysis of the texts, we summarized the overtly erroneous errors in Table 7.

Table 7: Comparison of Overtly Erroneous Errors of TT1 and TT2

General Categories	Specific Categories	TT1	TT2
A mismatch of denotative meanings of ST and TT2 elements	Omissions	31	10
	Additions	19	5
	Substitutions	44	11
The breaches of the target language system	Ungrammaticality	0	0
	Dubious Acceptability	0	0
Total Number of TT1 and TT2 Overtly Erroneous Errors		94	26

According to Table 7, the highest rate of the errors were in 'additions' and the lowest rate of the errors in the subcategories of 'the breaches of the target language system' both in TT1 and TT2. The overtly erroneous errors were also appeared in Figure 2 more clearly.
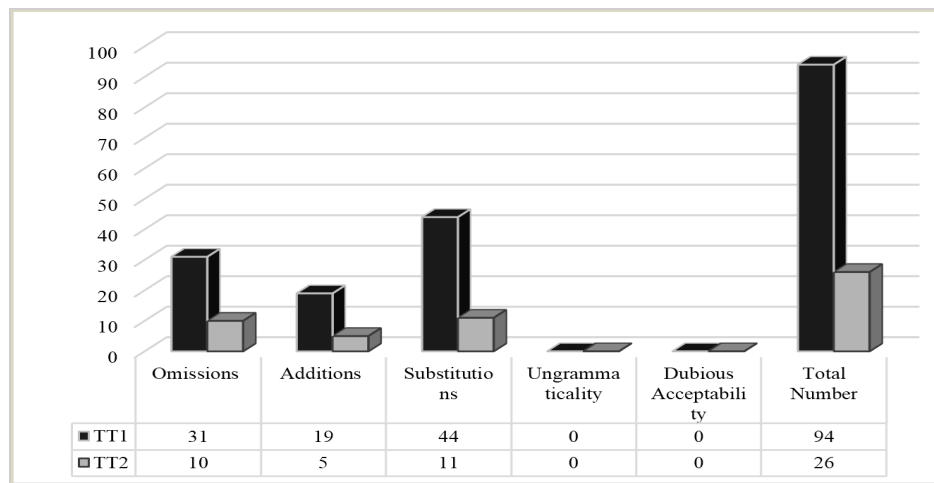
Figure 2: Side by Side Comparison of TT1 and TT2 Overtly Erroneous Errors

It is observed that the total number of the overtly erroneous errors in TT1 is more noticeable than TT2.

CONCLUSIONS
Each and every translation carried out by translators is considered as a work of art and the translator and his/her translation are fully respected. Hence, the purpose of this study was not to degrade the translators and/or belittle their translations at all. The study was purely pedagogical and research oriented. Regarding covertly and overtly erroneous errors, the results of the study demonstrated that there were some distortions in the Persian translations. According to House (1997), a literary work must be translated overtly. House (1997, pp. 74-75) maintains that "Fairy tales may be viewed as folk products of a particular culture, which would predispose a translator to opt for an overt translation". Moreover, House (1997) maintains that the less covertly and overtly erroneous errors, the more adequate and overt translation will be the result. The covertly erroneous errors found in the comparative analysis of both source and target texts were different in essence but at the same rate. In other words, there was a relative match between ST and TTs in the realm of covertly erroneous errors. However, the overtly erroneous errors discovered in TT1 were considerably (72.3%) more than TT2. Therefore, TT1 was a less adequate and less overt translation than TT2. Moreover, the social and ideological effect the target text readership achieves, particularly in the case of TT1, would be different from that of the source text. In TT1, although the translator tried to preserve the genre of the original by translating poetry to poetry, the content of the original was heavily lost. This means that the form of the translation is poetry but the content is not 'anthem'. It is a more 'epic'. Thus the tenor of the translation changed. In other words, the social effect of an 'anthem' is totally different from that of an 'epic'. Accordingly the authors' purpose seems to

178

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be entirely different from the translators'. On the other hand, in TT2, although the translation is 'prose', in contrast with 'poetry', the content was highly preserved. We can conclude that translating 'poetry' is too complicated and challenging for (experienced or non-experienced) translators to preserver both form and content to a great extent. Furthermore, to the best of our knowledge, it can be concluded that 'content' is more seminal and vital than 'form' particularly in the case of this study.

However, as it was mentioned in the introduction, expert performance is considered as "consistently superior performance on a specific set of representative tasks for the domain", based on Dimitrova's (2005, p. 16) notion of "expertise in translation". In this paper, TT1 which was translated by expert or experienced translators was a less adequate translation than TT2 which was translated by novice or inexperienced translators. In other words, TT2 translated by the novices is a more adequate and less covert than TT1. Regarding the findings of this study, expert performance did not result in superior performance. On the contrary, novice performance led to a (relative) superior performance in comparison with expert performance. Finally, we can conclude that expert performance does not always result in superior performance.

The focus of this study was on the TQA of 'anthems in Animal Farm'. Two almost concurrent translations were chosen out of more than ten translations. At present, not only every country has a national anthem of its own but also even sports communities have their anthems called stadium or sports or arena anthems. Different anthems are for different discourse communities. Such anthems and even their translations can be discoursally analyzed and/or assessed. Moreover, the assessment can go further to evaluate the efficacy of target text readership in social contexts and communities and compare it to its counterpart, source text readership. In other words, extra-linguistic considerations, social factors, external influences and communicative effectiveness can be in a parallel position along with linguistic considerations in analyzing translation texts and assessing their quality. However, the findings of this study can help those translators that are dealing with literary or sociopolitical translations, aiding them to fully consider the translational methods in their profession and pay careful attention to the linguistic and extra-linguistic elements and dimensions of original texts.

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179

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THE EFFECT OF PRE-TASK PLANNING THROUGH INFORMATION GAP ON SPEAKING SKILL OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNER

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ABSTRACT
This study was an attempt to examine whether implementing pre-task phase through information gap in EFL English classrooms affects students' speaking abilities. A standardized test was administered to 34 female low intermadiate students studying English in a language institute in Amol, Iran, to sample nearly homogeneous subjects. The 34 students were divided into two equal groups: the experimental and control group. Then, as a pretest, a standardized speaking test, which was in the form of an oral interview, was administered to both groups to determine their level of speaking. Afterwards, sets of pre-task planning and communicative tasks based on the information-gap principle were adopted. The tasks were presented to the experimental group as treatment within 16 sessions during the last ten to fifteen minutes of the class time. In the end, the standard speaking test was administered to both groups as a post-test and the results were analyzed according to t-test. There was a significant difference between the experimental group and the control group. The experimental group performance on post-test was better than control group. It can be concluded that the treatment made difference. Furthermore, the results of the t-test indicated that the pre-task planning through split information activities enhanced speaking skill.

KEYWORDS: Task-based, pre-task planning, Information gap tasks, speaking skill.

INTRODUCTION
The mastery of speaking skill in English is a priority for second-language or foreign-language learner. Consequently , learner often learn evaluate their success in language learning as well as the effectiveness of their English course on the basis of how much they feel they have improved in their spoken language proficiency (Richard**,** 2008). Brown (1994) states that speaking is a skill in producing oral language which occurs when two or more people interact whit each other aiming at maintaining social relationship between them.

Richards and Renandya (2002) state speaking in a foreign language is difficult for foreign language learners because effective oral communication requires the ability to use the language appropriately in social interaction. According to Widdowson (1994), speaking is the active production skill and use of oral production .It is the capability of someone to communicate orally with others. Bygate (1995) has asserted that one of the basic problems in foreign language teaching is to prepare learners to be able to use the language .

Task-based instruction can thus be defined as an approach which provides learner with a learning context that requires the use of target language through communicative activities and in which the process of using language carries more important than more production of correct language forms. Therefore ,TBI is viewed as one model of communicative language teaching (CLT) in terms of regarding real and meaningful communication as the primary characteristic of language learning (Richards & Rodgers , 2001; willis,1996).

Speaking tasks are helpful to fulfill the conditions to practice the target language communicatively. Through design of communicative tasks in speaking classes, fluency can be achieved , accuracy can be prompted through these

pedagogic tasks (Brumfit ,1984). Pica and Kanagy et al put tasks into six categories :Jigsaw task , information gap task , problem –solving task , decision –making tasks and opinion exchange tasks (Richards & Rodgers , 2001).

In this study information gap is discussed as a pre-task .The aim of this study is to investigate how this pre-task promote learners speaking skill. According to Penny Ur (1996) the activities and tasks based on the information –gap principle make students participate actively in the process of learning .this will , in turn increasing students 'motivation to learn English much more enthusiastically.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE
Pre-task planning
Willis (1996) has divided task completion into three sections: The pre-task ,the task-cycle , and the language focus. She defined that in the pre-task , the teacher will present what will be expected of the student in the task phase. Additionally the teacher may prime the students with key vocabulary or grammatical constructs .Pre-task planning promotes speech complexity because it frees L2 learners from real time communicative stress. Learners can then put more of their intentional resources on the planning for their oral task (Skehan,1998 ; Wendel ,1997).

Pre-task planning promotes speech accuracy because it has the potential to free up L2 learners 'attentional resources to attend to "form" .assuming that the nature of real communication prioritizes meaning over form(Van Patten, 1990,1996).Pre-task may encourage learners to distribute more equitable their attentional resources between meaning and form (Wendel ,1997; Skehan,1998).
Ellis's (1987) study show that pre-task planning and co-planning opportunities promotes accuracy of oral And written production . Pre-task planning promotes speech fluency because it allows L2 learners to process the "content" and "language" of their planned speech at a deeper and more meaningful level; moreover, it provides the learners the opportunity to practice the content and language of their speech before producing it orally for real communication (Wendel,1997).The use of pre-task was a key feature of the communicational teaching project(Prabhu,1987).

Information gap
It refers to a situation where information is known by only some of those present. In CLT, it is said that in order to promote real communication between students, there must be an information gap between them, or between them and their teacher. Without such a gap the classroom activities and exercises will be mechanical and artificial (Richards & Schmidt, 2002). Harmer (1991) defines information gap as a "gap between the two (persons) in the information they process, and the conversation helps to close that gap so that now both speakers have the same information".

Liao(2001)clarifies that information gap activities give students opportunities to English inside or outside the class .they also have genuine communicative value. This task sets up conditions for participants to modify their interaction through the negotiation of meaning (long, 1980, Varonis &Gass , 1985). Doughty and Pica (1986) also declare that information gap activities can promote real communication and facilitate Language acquisition. Wilkin (2001) proposes that the aim of the recent teaching English as Foreign Language (EFL) is speaking achievement.

Speaking fluently demonstrates one of the aims which teachers are planning to obtain with their learners as foreign language, using different approaches, techniques and activities in order to improve Learners speaking. English as foreign language provides less opportunities for learners. Learners learn English in classroom and the class is the only place that they can express their ideas and they have no chance to show themselves in society. In this study tries to provide activities help learners to enhance their opportunities for speaking and also tries to investigate the influence of pre-task activities through information gap on learners 'speaking.

RESEARCH QUESTION AND HYPOTHESIS
Question: Dose pre-task activity through information gap have a significant effect on speaking skill of elementary students?

Hypothesis 1: Pre-task activity through information gap has no significant effect on speaking skill of foreign language learners.
Hypothesis 2: There are not statistically significant differences at (a ≤ 0.05) in the mean scores of each level of speaking skills in the pre and post test of the experimental group.

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METHODOLOGY

Participants

In order to examine the effect of pre-task on speaking ability of EFL, 34 girls between 11-14 years old in low intermediate level according to placement test which was held before new term were selected. They were studying in a language institute in Amol, Iran. The data were collected in the Winter semester of 2014. To homogenize participants in term of their language proficiency, a pre-test in the form of standardized oral test was applied, based on which the subjects were assigned into the experimental group and control group.

Instruments and data collection

The instruments used in data elicitation procedures were as follows: testing material, scoring rubric teaching materials, and the teaching material.

1. Testing material :

In order to collect the data the researchers used an oral test according to what participants had studied in their textbook (Family and Friends) at both pre- test and post-test stages for both the experimental and control groups .The test included vocabulary, pronunciation, grammar, fluency and comprehension .The test took for about 5 to 10 minutes for each subject and scored by two raters according to evaluation rubric. They reduced the subjectivity of scoring and enhanced reliability. The reliability of test was also calculated by KR-21 formula and it was about 0. 33.

2. Scoring (The Oral Speaking Rubric):

The oral speaking rubric adopted in this study was based on Ur's testing scale model with some modifications to rate students' oral performance. Following Ur's model, this study also assessed students' oral performance on two major criteria: fluency and accuracy.

Each criterion's characteristics were defined into five short behavioral statements. This helped to make the test reliable, since it avoids subjectivity by providing clear, precise and mutually, exclusive behavioral statements for each of the scale. The amount of maximum score gained was 5 for each aspects, ten points in all.

3 .Teaching material:

The teaching materials provided for the experimental group in pre-task phase, the information-gap work sheets, were based on grammar and vocabulary. Gap- information worksheets for pre-task were prepared by researchers based on two sources: websites (Lantern fish ESL and boggles ESL) and the students' textbook.

Procedure

After the pre-test, the subjects were divided into two groups. The experimental group received the treatment, pre-task, which was hypothesized to develop speaking skills while the control group was taught without treatment. For the experimental group, one of the researchers prepared a master handout based on information, language structures, and vocabulary the students had been studying.

Before speaking phase in the first session, one of the researchers introduced teacher and students the activity. Then, the researcher deletes pieces of information on two sets of handouts. For example, Handout "A" would have some information deleted that handout "B" would provide.

After being accounted to this task, the subjects in the experimental group were divided into pair groups and each one received one handout. Then they completed work sheets by asking each other. The teacher had been doing it before speaking or language focus for 10 minutes.

Research was applied by the same teacher for both groups and before teaching one of the researchers gave instruction to teacher how to do the pre-task through information-gap. She prepared all the needed aids and materials (lesson plan, worksheets, lap top, pictures, songs, video, and others).

The researchers sometimes participated in class and listened to students` opinions and suggestions to evaluate the process of teaching by using pre-task through information gap activities. The pre-test of speaking skills was prepared by the researchers with some key words and students' marks were recorded by using oral speaking rubric.

For scoring participants, we asked two teachers to score them. It was applied upon the experimental and the control groups. The amount of maximum score gained was 5 for each aspects, ten points in all in Ur's testing scale, but the researchers added 5 for each aspects, twenty points in all.

The process of teaching the two groups followed the time planned of the experiment included 16 the English language institute sessions for each group plus four sessions for evaluation and testing.

The post- test of speaking skills was applied upon the experimental and the control groups. It was like the pre-test and prepared by the teacher as the final exam.

Data Analysis
The purpose of the current study was to explore the influence of implementing pre-task through information gap task in English classrooms on students' speaking abilities The data collected from the study were statistically analyzed using the Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS V.20). To test the research hypotheses and question, since we were seeking examining mean differences in speaking ability of the control and experimental groups, t-test for independent groups was used.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
In order to make sure of the homogeneity and the normality of each group three factors of skewness, One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (K-S), and Q-Q plot were used in pre test as shown in Table 1.

Table 1:Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
pre	.146	34	.065	.960	34	.251

The sig. value obtained was more than .05, and might be used to conclude that distribution of scores for all groups was normal.

Table 2 indicates the homogeneity of two groups in this study.

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 Differenc e	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
p r e Equal variances assumed	.013	.908	.422	32	.676	.353	.837	-1.353	2.059
Equal variances not assumed			.422	31.82 3	.676	.353	.837	-1.353	2.059

The sig. 2-tailed is equal and more than 0.05 so we might conclude that there is no difference between experimental and control groups in pre-test and they were homogeneous.

To test the first research hypothesis, (there is no significant effect of pre-task activity through information gap on speaking skill), independent sample *t-test* was used to measure the statistical differences in means between the experimental and the control groups in the results of the post test. The result is shown in Table 3.

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Table 3: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
p o s t Equal variances assumed	5.168	.030	-9.079	32	.000	-5.588	.616		-6.842	-4.334
Equal variances not assumed			-9.079	23.899	.000	-5.588	.616		-6.859	-4.318

According to the findings and on the basis of calculation of sample *t-tests*, observed value of 2- tailed statistic for the experimental groups and the control group(.00) was less than the alpha level of .05. So, we concluded that there was a significant difference between the experimental group and the control group in their performance on the posttest.

To examine the second null hypothesis (There are not statistically significant differences at in the mean scores of each level of speaking skills in the pre and post test of experimental group). paired sample *t-test* was used to measure the differences in developing students' speaking skill between the pre- test and post-test of the experimental group. The result is shown in Table 4.

Table 4:Paired Samples Test

	Paired Differences							
				95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 1　experimental	-5.824	2.555	.620	-7.137	-4.510	-9.397	16	.000

Observed value (.00) of 2- tailed test for the experimental groups in the pretest and posttest was less than the alpha level of .05. It can be, therefore, concluded that there was a significant difference between performance of the experimental groups from time 1 (pretest) to time 2 (posttest).

Table 5 shows the mean score of experimental group in pre and post test.

Table 5: Paired Samples Statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
experimental	pre	10.47	17	2.348	.570
	post	16.29	17	1.160	.281

As can be seen from the Table 5, the mean of the experimental group in pre-test is 10.47 and in post test is 16.29. So , we might state that experimental performance was better after treatment.

With a quick review of these findings, we can figure out that the experimental group performed better than control group. It can be inferred that the higher performance of the experimental groups was as result of employing pre-task through information gap.

Discussion

185

IJLLALW

The results of the research findings are in line with the conclusions from several previous studies on examination of the effect of pre-task planning and information gap activity on speaking skill. Crookes (1989) investigated the effects of pre-ask planning on the nature of L2 speech production, who defined pre-task planning in tem of time available for planning: "minimal and ten-minute pre-task planning". He found that while speech produced under the ten-minute planning condition was more complex and contained more variety of language, there was no significant difference in the accuracy of speech produced respectively under the ten-minute and minimal pre-task planning conditions.

Williams (1992) investigated the effects of pre-task planning on discourse markers grammatical accuracy, and the complexity of speech of non-native English speaking teaching assistants. William's study showed that pre-task planning promoted speech complexity but not speech accuracy. Foster and Skehan (1996), also, found that pre-task planning and task-based activities have positive effect on complexity and fluency of learners' language. Another research conducted by Sangarun(2001)revealed that pre-task planning has the potential to improve EFL learners' speech performance.

Yuan and Ellis's study (2003) on pre task and on-line task planning proved that pre- task planning has positive influence on grammatical complexity. Their results had shown that pre-task planner produce more fluent and lexical varied language than on-line planner.

Klanri's (2007) study investigated the effectiveness of the two communicative activities, information-gap and role-play in developing students' speaking proficiency in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classroom. Findings reveald that the Information-gap and the Role-play are highly recommended as effective methods in the improvement of students' speaking proficiency.

A research conducted by Defrioka (2009) proved that the implementation of information gap activities can better improve the students' interaction in speaking class. Student-centered class included pair work and group work also contributed to improve outcomes. Some experts have discussed the advantages of applying information gaps activities in teaching speaking.

The study conducted by Karimi (2010) revealed that the EFL learners' degree of learning increases when they learn new words by the use of information-gap tasks in the classroom.
Another research conducted by Jondeya (2011), investigated the effectiveness of using information gap on developing speaking skills for eight graders in Gaza governorate schools. For achieving this aim, she adopted the experimental approach. The results proved that there were statistically significant differences in the mean scores between the pre & post speaking test of the experimental group in each level of speaking skills in favor of post test. The results also indicated that there were statistically significant differences in the mean scores of each level of speaking skills in the post test for experimental group compared with the control group.

By examining the result and comparing the present study with previous studies, the results of findings proved that using pre task through information gap activities as a method to improve students' speaking ability had a significant impact on improving students' speaking proficiency .our finding demonstrated who received information gap in pre task, experimental group, attained more achievement than ones in control group. To sum up, we can say that pre-task planning through split information activities enhanced speaking.

CONCLUSION
It appears that under many languages teaching and learning approaches, task-based is the most attractive one between teachers and scholars. They believe it is not satisfactory to consider learners like vessel only to know a certain number of grammar rules and vocabulary of the target language. Everyone expects learners to be able to involve in real life situation and their achievements demonstrate themselves.

In order to activate learners in classroom environment and make them communicatively competent, scholars have been implemented many techniques. These techniques make students practice the language communicatively in the classroom which will result in students' being communicatively competent. On the other hand, they require students to be actively involved in the activities going on in the classroom and also enhance their motivation for learning a foreign language.

One of the specimen activities in which has the above characteristics and is actually assigned to communicative language teaching is information gap. It is an activity which resembles real life situations and requires students to

extract information from their peers. By info-gap learners are actively involved in the process of learning and they should be able to use language to communicate with one another.

It might be concluded that implementing pre-task through information gap tasks in Iranian English classroom does affect positively the students' speaking abilities; and the students who are exposed to these treatment will be able to communicate in English much more efficiently than those who are not.

Limitations of the study
This study, like any other researches, suffers from some limitations that may raise some new questions for further research in the field. The most important limitation included in the study would be the reliability of test: with the value of 0.33 which was less than 0.7, we can hardly claim that our tests are strongly reliable. Another limitation is related to sample from the same background, limited age and sex who are at the same context (available institutions) and using the small number of participants (34people) have an influence on generalization of the result. The third one is that information gap task is used in pre-task, for further studying other kinds of tasks cab be implemented.

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THE EFFECT OF INSTRUCTED READING STRATEGY ON READING PERFORMANCE OF IRANIAN IELTS TEST TAKERS

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ABSTRACT
This quasi-experimental study investigated the effects of reading strategy training on Iranian International English Language Testing System (IELTS) learners' reading comprehension performance. Two pre-intermediate level intact classes took part in this research. The two groups were labeled as Group A (n= 35, the control group) and Group B (n= 37, the experimental group). Both groups were homogenous based on their scores on the administeredproficiency test. During the treatment sessions, five reading strategies were taught to check their effectiveness on reading comprehension ability of the participants.The participants' reading comprehension ability was assessed through pre-test and post-test. Results of data analysis showed that the participantsin theexperimental group benefit more from reading strategy training. The experimental groupparticipants significantly improved their reading comprehension scores over time, from pre-test to post-test.

KEYTERMS: Cognitive Strategy,Language Learning Strategies(LLSs),Meta-Cognitive Strategy, Strategy Based Instruction (SBI).

INTRODUCTION
Overview
Strategies for language learning and language use have been receiving considerable attention in the areas of foreign language teaching and learning (Cohen 1990; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990; Wenden, 1991). Language educators in many different contexts have been seeking ways to help students become more successful in their efforts to learn and communicate in foreign languages. The application of language learning strategies is viewed as one vehicle for promoting greater success. A strategy is considered to be "effective" if it provides positive support to the students in their attempts to learn or use the foreign language (Cohen, Weaver, & Li, 1996).Language learning strategiesdefined as specific actions consciously employed by the learner for the purposes of learning language (Griffith, 2003).

Research has also shown that factors like language proficiency exert influence on the strategies that the language learners select and use (Shmais, 2003). Research has demonstrated increasing evidence of language proficiency differences in the use of language learning strategies, with advanced level learners using more strategies and more frequently than low level learners (Dreyer & Oxford, 1996; Oxford &Ehrman, 1995; Oxford &Nyikos, 1989). In contrast to these significant proficiency differences, there are also studies showing a less clear distinction in strategy use among different levels (Dadour& Robbins, 1996; Poole, 2005; Park, 1999, as cited inLee & Oxford, 2008). Kaylani's (1996) studyfound out that the girls were different from boys in terms of strategy use, not because of only proficiency, but because of gender in relation to proficiency.

Statement of the Problem
The importance of using reading strategies is especially critical for English language learners, since high levels of English language literacy— which are essential for even minimal academic achievement at any level (elementary, secondary, university, and tertiary)—have beenfound to correlate with frequent and complex strategy use (Anderson, 1999). While we know of the importance of second language reading strategies, there is still a gap in our knowledge about the effect of strategy instruction especially for the IELTS learners. Little research has specifically aimed at investigating the IELTS learners in the use of language reading strategies. The current study seeks to shed more light on this area to investigate if language reading strategy use differs according to language proficiency.

Significance of the Study

There are many studies that examined the effect of SBI in ESL context rather than in EFL one (e.g., Poole, 2005). Most studies investigated the effect of SBI on IELTS learners in listening strategies (e.g., Cross, 2009) or speaking strategies (e.g., Dadour& Robbins, 1996; Oxford, Park-Oh, Ito, & Sumrall, 1993). However, the present study intended to find out if there is any difference in the strategy use among IELTS students in their reading comprehension.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Research into language learning strategies began in the 1960s. With the shift of psychological theory from behaviorism to cognitive psychology, educational practice has shifted from identifying learners as passive recipients to identifying them as active constructors in processing knowledge (Tseng, 2005). Realizing the importance of learners in their learning process, researchers have started to think that relying only on methods cannot guarantee success in EFL teaching and learning (Ellis, 1997) since there are always some students who seem to be successful in ESL/EFL learning regardless of teaching methods (Xuan, 2005). Therefore, many researchers have shifted their focus from different teaching methods to language learning strategies, because they are a key factor affecting learners' rate of language acquisition and the level of language proficiency (Ellis, 1997).

The advent of language learning strategy(LLS)research can be traced back to the studies of successful language learners conducted by Rubin (1975) and Stern (1975). These early researchers tended to make lists of strategies presumed to be essential for all good language learners.By means of observation and interviews with learners, Rubin (1975) identified seven strategies that good language learners (GLLs) used. First, they are willing and accurate guessers. Second, they have a strong desire to communicate, or to learn from a communication. Third, they are usually not afraid of appearing foolish by making mistakes. Fourth, besides focusing on communication, they also attend to form. Fifth, they practice by seeking opportunities to use the language. Sixth, they monitor their own and the speech of others by constantly attending to how well their speech is being received and whether their performance meets the standards they have learned. Seventh, they attend to meaning.Stern (1975, as cited in Grenfell &Macaro, 2007) listed the top-ten strategies of the GLLs: 1) A personal learning style or positive learning strategies, 2) an active approach to the task, 3) a tolerant and outgoing approach to the target language and empathy with its speakers, 4) technical know-how about how to tackle a language, 5) strategies of experimentation and planning with the object of developing the new language into an ordered system and/or revising this system progressively, 6) constantly searching for meaning, 7) willingness to practice, 8) willingness to use language in real communication, 9) self-monitoring and critical sensitivity to language use, 10) developing the target language more and more as a separate reference system and learning to think in it.

Interest in studying the language learners' strategies has blossomed and increased during the last few years (Chamot& El-Dinary, 1999; Griffiths, 2003; Oxford &Nyikos, 1989). According to Chamot (1992), successful language learners differ from less successful ones in a number of ways, of which perhaps the most important is the degree to which they are strategic in their approach to the various tasks which comprise language learning. According to Bruen (2001), the more effective learners employ more learning strategies to learning than the poorer learners. Recent research suggested that there is no single strategy pattern used by effective language learners (Chamot& O'Malley, 1994; Oxford, 1990).

The most general finding of the research in learning strategies isthat the use of appropriate language learning strategies leads to theimprovement of proficiency or achievement in general and to specific skillareas in particular (Oxford &Crookall, 1989). Further, this general finding led to the idea that using appropriate learning strategies can help learners to take the responsibility for their own learning and meanwhile enhance learner autonomy, independence, and self-direction (Oxford &Nyikos, 1989). A major outcome of research into the strategies used by successful language learners is the conclusion that learners should be taught not only the language but also directed toward strategies they could use to promote more effective learning (Rubin, Chamot, Harris, & Anderson, 2007).

As suggested by Singhal (1998), reading strategy instruction improves readers' comprehension of specific texts, especially texts that are less familiar or somewhat challenging to readers. A growing body of research (e.g., Çubukcu, 2008;Farjad, 2011; Kern, 1989; Khezrlou, 2012; Muñiz-Swicegood, 1994;Nemati, 2009; Pani, 2004; Salataci&Akyel,

2002; Song, 1998) suggests that reading strategy instruction is indeed beneficial and should be a requirement in all areas of literacy learning.

Strategy based reading instruction helps teachers differentiate the teaching of reading. It also supports many types of readers by explicitly teaching and modeling reading comprehension strategies (Gibson, 2009). Researchers believe that teacher's modeling of strategies facilitates the learners' reading comprehension (e.g., Brigitte, McKown, Cynthia, & Barnett, 2007; Cotterall, 1990; Miller & Perkins, 1990; Pani, 2004). In direct explanation of comprehension strategies, teachers explicitly provide declarative knowledge (what the strategies are), conditional knowledge (when to use them) and procedural knowledge (how to use them). Scaffolding in instruction and teachers' feedback is reduced when students become more independent in the application of reading strategies (Fan, 2010). Such instruction can provide a useful way of increasing students' metacognitive awareness and use of reading strategies when coping with academic reading tasks (Mokhtari&Sheorey, 2002). For example, Pani (2004) recorded the process and findings of mental modeling technique in a teacher education course. The trainees tried to guess the meaning of unknown words in text and then listened to their tutor's mental modeling while doing the same task. Findings from the study showed that mental modeling can be an effective pedagogic strategy in Indian classrooms in terms of motivating the learners to develop improved reading strategies.

Strategy based reading instruction is an effective way for teaching students of all ages to read, from their earliest ages throughout their schooling years (Gibson, 2009). In the strategy-based approach, the teacher is the instructional agent. With the strategy-instruction approach, students learn to use specific procedures to guide their access to text during reading, and strategies instruction can be applied to any piece of text (Fetters, 2010). As suggested by Salataci and Akyel (2002), strategy instruction has a positive effect on students' reading strategy use and reading comprehension in English.

In a large number of research studies conducted in the past three decades, comprehension strategy instruction including multiple reading strategies has been justified to be beneficial to help students become strategic readers and improve their reading comprehension (e.g.,Abdelhafez, 2006; Barbe-Clevett, Hanley, & Sullivan, 2002; Baumgart, 1998;Binotti, Hamilton-Gunkel, &Sipple, 2001; Carlson, Leonard, Matheis, & Wilson, 2001; Elder, 2006; Fan, 2010; Iddings, Ortmann, Pride, & Pride, 1999;Jenks, 2002;Kornfeld, 2003; Macaro&Erler, 2008; Muniz-Swicegood, 1994; Palincsar& Brown, 1984;Serran, 2002; Song, 1998).Therefore, comprehension strategy instruction which focuses on teaching reading strategies to the students to help them become strategic readers and more self-regulated learners seems not only promising but also necessary (Fan, 2010).

RESEARCH QUESTION AND HYPOTHESIS
RQ: Does instructed reading strategy affect reading performance of Iranian IELTS test takers?

RH: Instructed reading strategy affectsreading performance of Iranian IELTS test takers.
The current study adopted a quasi-experimental design. The measurement wasconducted through pre- and post-test, immediately before and after treatments.This study incorporated one independent variable and one dependent variable, strategy training and reading comprehension performance respectively.

METHODOLOGY
Participants
This study was conducted in two IELTS intact classes selected from some Englishlanguage institutes in Tehran. The participants' mother tongue was Persian. The average age of the subjects was 21.5 years old, with an age range of 15-27. Prior to taking part in the research, they passed some conversation courses. Also, they studied English three years in guidance school, four years in high school. Besides they took general English and English for specific purposes in universities. They were from different fields of study.The two groups were labeled as Group A (n= 35, control group) and Group B (n= 37, experimental group).

Materials and Instruments
Treatment Material
During treatment sessions, the teachers used 10 reading comprehension textsfrom the *Longman Introductory Course for the TOEFL iBT Test*,regardless of the groups; all the students received the same passages for the instruction.

Instrument: Pre- and Post-tests

In order to measure the participants' reading proficiency, reading comprehension section of the *Longman Introductory Course for the TOEFL iBT Test* was used for both experimental and control groups (see Appendices B & C). According to Philips (2007), the author of the book, "*Longman Introductory Course for theTOEFL iBT Test* is intended for intermediate-level students. The text starts *below* the level of the TOEFL test and continues up to the level of the *easier* tasks on the TOEFL iBT" (p. xiii).

Procedure
Before the treatment sessions, the two participating groups took a reading pre-test.A*T*-test ran on the scores obtained from the pretest, revealed no statisticallysignificant difference between groups regarding their reading ability.

Later on, the teachers defined what a strategy is. Next, the teachersintroduced five reading strategies that good readers apply for comprehending a text.The five reading strategies were: 1) activating background knowledge, 2) makinginferences, 3) paraphrasing, 4) guessing the meaning of the word from the contextualclues and, 5) reading the title. After introducing them, the teachers talked aboutimportance of using such strategies. The other sessions, the reading strategies were modeled asthe following:

1. During the first treatment session, the teachers used the title of the text to helpthe learners to activate their prior knowledge.
2. Then, the teachers asked the learners to make prediction about the content ofthe text.
3. Next, the learners were taught how to benefit the contextual clues to guess themeaning of the new vocabulary inside the texts.
4. After all of the abovementioned steps, the learnerslearned how to paraphrase the sentences.
5. Finally, the teachers asked the students to look for the key words in the textwhich lead them to infer the writer's intended message.

It should be mentioned that in each session, first the teachers modeled the strategy and then administered the second text to the students to find out if they could employ thestrategies independently and without the researcher's assistance. In the control group, the students were given placebo; that is, the teachers gave the text to the students and they were required to read it silently and answer the questions. Then, the teachers asked them what the meanings of unknown words are in the text. When they were not able to answer the meaning of the vocabulary, the teacher gave its L1 equivalent. At the next stage, the teacher read the text aloud and the students only listened. The teachers translated every line of the text and at the end the teachers asked the students to answer the reading comprehension questions of the text. The same process was followed with the other texts.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
Learners' developing skill of reading comprehension was tested immediatelybefore the treatment sessions (pre-test) and after it (post-tests). The pretest consisted of 50multiple choice items. One point was awarded for each item that was answered correctlyby the learner. So, the maximum score was 50 for each student. For example, if a learnerhad 26 correctly answered questions out of 50 items, his/her score became 26 out of 50.

As mentioned before, pre-test was administered to make sure the participants in both groups were homogeneous in terms of their ability of the reading comprehension under investigation. Table 1 represents mean scores of both groups in the pretest.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics for Groups on Pre-test

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Control Group	35	14.09	3.82
Experimental Group	37	14.27	4.75

As can be seen from the table 1, the mean of the group A and B are 14.09 and 14.27 respectively. Hence, we can say that the two groups were homogeneous in the beginning of the study.

Table 2: Independent Samples T-Test on Pre-test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig.(2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Equal variances Assumed	.013	.911	.485	70	.629	.08185	.16868
Equal variances not assumed			.486	69.973	.629	.08185	.16851

Table 2 indicates that there is no difference between two groups before teaching the reading strategies. The results of the post-tests, on the other hand, were put into SPSS, which appears below in Table .3.

Table 3: Students' Mean Scores in Post-test

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Control Group	31	23.70	1.44207
Experimental Group	35	36.60	1.80196

As can be seen from the Table 3, the mean scores of the control and experimental groups are 23.70 and 36.60 respectively. In other words, the mean score of the experimental group was raised from pre-test to the post-test, which showed an improvement in reading comprehension.To determine whether strategy instruction has differently affected the learners' reading comprehension ability, an independent *T*- Test was run on the post-test scores of the two groups.

Table 4: Independent Samples T-Test on Post-test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig.(2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std.Error Difference
Equal variances assumed	1.548	.818	-4.665	64	.000	-1.89032	.40525
Equal variances not assumed			-4.728	63.386	.000	-1.89032	.39982

Table 4 indicates that the experimental group performed significantly better than the control group.

Discussion
Reading research in the L1 and L2 fields has shown that reading strategies can be taught to students, and when taught, they enhance student performance on tests of comprehension and recall (Kornfeld, 2003; Macaro&Erler, 2008). Although these studies have claimed the positive effect of strategy training in the L1 or ESL settings, there

have been relatively few studies to investigate the effect of strategy training on IELTS students' reading ability in an EFL reading classroom situation.

The purpose of this study was to explicitly teach reading comprehension strategies and subsequently investigated its effects on the IELTS EFL students' reading comprehension. The results of this study support the hypothesis that strategy based instruction results in improved reading comprehension among IELTS EFL learners.

The results of this study support the results obtained by the previous research studies in terms of positive effects of teaching reading strategies on the students' reading comprehension (e.g., Barbe-Clevett, Baumgart, 1998; Elder, 2006; Fan, 2010; Iddings, Ortmann, Pride, & Pride, 1999).

Prior research has established that the use of reading strategies significantly ameliorates the students' reading comprehension ability. Nevertheless, previous research has been restricted in some ways: in some studies, the focus of attention was only on teaching metacognitive strategies (Mothus&Lapadat, 2002), or cognitive strategies (Song, 1998) and vocabulary learning strategies (Austermuehle, Kautz, &Sprenzel, 2007) as well. Moreover, some of studies investigated which strategy categories the students use more in their learning (Soleimani, 2008). However, the present research intended to find out if the students efficiently employ the collection of some cognitive and metacognitive strategies they receive in the class to overcome their problems in reading and comprehending a text.

In the present study, the experimental group had higher post-test scores compared with the control group; however, this difference was not highly significant. One possible reason might be the *time* factor. O'Malley and Chamot (1990) argue:

> The teaching of the strategies will involve a considerable investment of time and effort in order to be effective. Therefore, we need long- term studies investigating the effect of strategy training. Otherwise, their teaching might not obtain the intended result as it is expected. (p. 53)

CONCLUSION
The purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of strategy training on the reading ability of IELTS EFL students. To the researcher's knowledge, there is no explicit or implicit strategy training in IELTS reading classes in Iran. The findings of the study showed that the reading strategy instruction improves IELTS EFL students reading proficiency. On the other hand, the findings of a study Khormaei (2005) showed that in Iranian reading classes, nonconsciousnes raising activities outnumber consciousness raising activities. So to compensate for this problem, it seems inevitable to raise the learners' awareness of reading comprehension strategies.

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ELT LEARNERS' PREFERENCES AND TEACHERS' ATTITUDES: DETERMINANT FACTORS IN CURRICULUM DESIGN

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ABSTRACT
Appropriateness of English language teaching (ELT) materials in teaching English has raised issues such as limitations of purposeful materials and curriculums; needs and preferences of teachers and students who are using materials; authenticity of materials; and cultural components. This study tried to discover teachers' attitudes towards ELT material development and to determine the special purposes and learning preferences of Iranian English language learners with a focus on general English materials. Twenty instructors and 200 students participated in this study. To verify the results of the questionnaire, semi-structured interviews were conducted with six instructors. The findings indicated that language teaching would be meaningful and purposeful when curriculum designers and teachers target specific language skills and learners' wants. Local teachers' knowledge of their situations as well as their familiarity with their students' motivation, culture, and learning styles give them a potential advantage over native-speaker teachers in material development.

KEYWORDS: material development; curriculum design; teachers' attitudes; needs analysis; English for academic purposes; specific skills

INTRODUCTION
Communities differ from one another along both social and cognitive dimensions. They differ not just in their fields of knowledge, but also in their ways of talking, their arguments structures, aims, social behaviours, power relations, and political interests (Stoller et al., 2006). Just like a community, learning contexts differ from each other in many aspects (Mellati et al., 2013). Since no medical interference would be prescribed before a thorough identification of patients' ailments; therefore, no language program should be designed without a comprehensive needs analysis (Long, 2005). The exact needs and interests of learners should be concerned in content, materials, classroom activities, or even in teaching methodology (Min, 2008). Every language program should be considered a course for specific purposes; therefore, they differentiate just in the exact needs of learners (Nguyen, 2008).

Recently in foreign and second language teaching, researchers and course designers focus on learners' needs as a prerequisite for effective course design. Successful language learning is vital for refugees, immigrants, international students, and individuals in occupations requiring advanced foreign language proficiency (Dudley-Evans & John, 1998). Programs and materials that are designed with special groups are inefficient and language teaching in all probability is inadequate in the combination of target language varieties, skills, lexicons, genres, registers, and groups that have different needs (Long, 2005; Daloglu, 2004; Burden, 2008). According to Fahim and Samadian (2011), Iranian educational system is mostly based on Grammar Translation Method (GTM). Richards and Rodgers (2001) list characteristics of GTM as follow:

> The goal of foreign language study is to learn a language in order to read its literature; reading and writing are the major focuses; vocabulary selection is based solely on the reading text used; words are taught through bilingual words lists, dictionary study, and memorization; the sentence is the basic unit of teaching and language practice; accuracy is emphasized; grammar is taught deductively; and students' native language is the medium of instruction (p. 6).

Fahim and Samadian (2011) stated that the above statement is unfortunately pronounced in Iranian English classes. Even though different books (Concepts and Comments, American Reading, Select Reading) are worked in them, but

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teaching methods are the same. However, institutes in Iran have adapted a more productive communicative approach, along with task-based and notional-functional syllabuses. They believe that the problem of the State program regarding English classes seems to lie on the consequences of adopting GTM approach.

The importance of conducting needs analysis increased when the theory and practice of needs analysis and language teaching were in flux. It increased when educators responded to theory change and research findings in SLA and second language syllabus design (Branden, 2006; Read, 2008; Shawer, 2010). Sources of information for needs analysis are published and unpublished literatures, learners, teachers and applied linguists, domain experts, and triangulated sources (Nunan, 1988; Stoller et al., 2006; Khademi et al., 2013). There are different kinds of methods conducted by researchers and course designers for an effective needs analysis such as unstructured interviews (Hoadly-Maidment, 1980), surveys and questionnaires (Bailey, 1982), and classroom observation (Long, 2005; Burden, 2008).

Development in language teaching requires the increased use of authentic materials in the language teaching courses (Richards & Renandya, 2002); authentic passages are listening experiences that are very close to a real-life one, as their language has not been graded to reflect the learners' level of English. However, both authentic and inauthentic materials could inform the curriculum. Artificial texts or materials may intentionally contain a high frequency of a particular language item to alert learners to their existence and to provide them with practice in manipulating them (Su, 2011). Curriculum and course designers are not the only sources of selecting content and method of every course, teachers' and learners' attitudes, concerns, and needs are also magnificent factors in selecting content knowledge as well as features that determine successfulness and failure of a particular course. A course book material should contain: Pronunciation practice, introduction of new vocabulary and practice, grammar explanation and practice, recordings for listening practice, listening and speaking communicative tasks, mixed-skills communicative tasks, short and long reading texts, dictionary work, review of previously learnt material, and some entertaining or fun activities (Ur, 1996; Richards, 2001). Few researches showed that Iranian students perceived their English language course content uninteresting and not directed to their goals and aims (Hashemi et al., 2011). The present study aimed to discover teachers' attitudes in ELT material development and to probe into the special purposes and learning preferences of Iranian English language learners towards different language skills such as listening, speaking, writing, and reading through interview and needs analysis survey. Needs analysis questionnaire focuses on general wants of students. The results of this survey can have clear implications for ELT curriculum development at the global, regional, and local scopes.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE
Recently in foreign and second language teaching, researchers and course designers focused on learners' needs as a prerequisite for effective curriculum design (Dudley-Evans & John, 1998; Long, 2005; Daloglu, 2004; Donohue, 2012). Studies in this area have shown that guidelines and assessment criteria are not always made sufficiently specific to learners and may not constitute homogenous set of requirements. How teachers apply these criteria appears to reflect what they teach and how they perceive language teaching principles (Turner, 2012). Learners should be encouraged to explore and differentiate genres not only in terms of their specific language structures and lexis but also in terms of their social values and cultural characteristics that their communities have generated from them (Hyland, 2002). In many cases, learners that entered university have literacy needs that are not met by standard academic pedagogies. Therefore, when it comes to achieving higher education and under expected outcomes comparable to many other programs, the program had disadvantages (Friginal, 2013). Particularly learners' cultural background and previous educational experience made it difficult to meet the academic expectations of their lecturers and tutors. Learners accepted for special program have diverse language needs (Read, 2008; Daloglu, 2004; Nathan, 2013).

The extensive body of literature on learners' needs and requirements indicated the importance of such issues (Gardner, 2012). Concern has been expressed that learners learn better in some classrooms and learning context, while they underachieve despite using one curriculum. Some learners continue to develop, while others have little advance in their professional skills in spite of teaching the same curriculum (Vincent, 2013). Furthermore, curriculum designers and researchers may address these concerns because they may influence teachers, students and curriculum alike. Therefore, it is critical to examine and understand how they approach curriculum (Long, 2005; Daloglu, 2004). The key factor in differentiating these courses is teacher role; teachers lead teaching to learning, input to intake, curriculum to classroom activities.

Hashemi et al. (2011) investigated perception of English needs of physical education students in Iran and effectiveness of ESP textbooks. The results indicated that Iranian students and faculty, for the students' academic

196

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 5 (3), March 2014   **EISSN: 2289-2737**
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studies and future work, perceive English as important. Therefore, there is the need for an adequate curriculum design and improvement in EAP teaching. They also found that the ESP textbook used for undergraduate students seems to be uninteresting and of little benefit for the students.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study tried to discover teachers' attitudes towards ELT material development and to determine the special purposes and learning preferences of Iranian English language learners with a focus on general English materials through interview and needs analysis survey; therefore, it tried to answer the following research questions:

Q1: What are the special purposes and learning preferences of Iranian English language learners?
Q2: What are the Iranian teachers' attitudes toward appropriate language materials?

METHODOLOGY
Participants

A needs analysis survey was conducted for 20 instructors and 200 students enrolled in general English courses in some Iranian universities (n=220). The sample population of this study was selected randomly from different branches of Islamic Azad University of Iran and they all accepted to participate in this study; therefore, their participation was voluntarily. They were informed about the study from the beginning, and that they could withdraw their contributions at any time without penalty. All participants were provided with written information about the nature and purpose of the research project. All of them were insured that the identity of them to the survey would be held in strict confidence. All participants had similar background and culture, but since they were in different learning environments, they had access to different materials. According to Fahim and Samadian (2011), Iranian educational system is mostly based on Grammar Translation Method (GTM). Concepts and Comments, American Reading, and Select Reading are some of the textbooks that were exposed to in tertiary level. They worked on these textbooks in 16 weeks. Ninety males (40.9%) and 130 females (59.1%) participated in this study and they were between 20-60 years of age. They studied in different courses: 191 (86.8%) of them studied in English language teaching, 18 (8.2%) in English translation, six (2.7%) in English literature and five (2.3%) in other courses. All students were in B.A. level and the instructors were in PhD and M.A. levels. The teaching experiences of the instructors were between 5-15 years of age.

Instrumentations

One of the instruments that were employed in this study was a researcher-made needs analysis questionnaire. It was developed and validated by the researchers. The questionnaire including nine Yes/No questions and 53 likert-scale items that had reviewed by experts for its content validity was piloted with 50 male and female Iranian students. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient of it was .84 (r = 0.84). This questionnaire was developed to discover teachers' attitudes in ELT material development and to probe into the special purposes and learning preferences of Iranian English language learners through some questions about language skills and activities. The questionnaire consisted of six parts: bio data, learning goals, writing, listening, speaking, and learning styles and attitudes towards classroom management. Students' needs analysis questionnaire was a kind of researchers-made one that shed light on the students' preferences in these general skills by choosing special topics and tasks in each particular skill. The researchers also provided an online version of this survey to facilitate the process of its administration and analysis. To verify the results of the questionnaire and to determine the attitudes of teachers in material development, the researchers interviewed with six instructors that participated in this study. They were interviewed orally in order to elicit their attitudes toward the existed materials and textbooks in general English in Iranian universities, their suggestions for materials improvements, and their perception of the students' language problems and wants. The instructors participated in these interviews voluntarily. Prior to interview, they were informed of the purpose and the nature of the study. The questions in these semi-structured interviews were a reflection of the questions in needs analysis questionnaire.

Procedures

Participants were selected randomly and voluntarily. The sample of this study was selected through accidental or availability sampling. Hatch and Farhadi (1981) stated that in this kind of sampling the researcher selects whoever is

available and is willing to participate in the study. To determine the participants' special purposes and learning preferences in language content, the researchers administered the needs analysis questionnaire. To make sure about the genuineness of the teachers and students, the researchers added clear instructions at the beginning of the questionnaire. Then, Face-to-face semi-structured interviews were also conducted with six instructors in 30 minutes. In these semi-structured interviews, the researchers asked some questions about the existed materials and textbooks in Iranian tertiary level and their adequacy to Iranian interests and culture. The interviews were designed to encourage reflection, to elicit teachers' and students' attitudes towards English language content and different attitudes of teachers in material development, and to verify the results of the questionnaires. Participants' answers to questionnaire (quantitative data), were collected and entered into a data file and analyzed statistically using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), version 18. As the nature of this study is descriptive, the researchers employed descriptive statistics to achieve their goals.

Some collected data were qualitative (interviews). They included all open-ended responses to the interviews. The procedure for analyzing qualitative data was as follow: Each data set was read several times to gain some sense of the main ideas being expressed. Then the data were coded and analyzed manually and subjectively.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The first part of the questionnaire was related to purposes of language learning. They included getting job, enhancing career, updating knowledge, getting familiar with English courtiers culture, reading foreign magazines and newspapers, getting required certificate, traveling abroad and communicate easily, understanding foreign music and movies, and learning English for fun. The particular results of this part are shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Purposes of English language learning

	Questions	Means	Standard deviations
1	To get a good job	.51	.501
2	To promote position in career	.52	.501
3	To get familiar with English language countries' culture	.64	.481
4	To read foreign magazines and newspapers	**.27**	**.446**
5	To update knowledge	.69	.465
6	To fill free time (learning English for fun)	**.21**	**.411**
7	To travel abroad and communicate easily	.38	.487
8	To get required certificate	.39	.488
9	To understand foreign music and movies	**.24**	**.426**

The results show that the most significant purpose of studying English in Iranian culture is filling their free time (learning English for fun) (M= .21, SD= .411). After that, they are eager to understand foreign music and movies (M= .24, SD= .426), to read foreign magazines and newspapers (M= .27, SD= .446), to travel abroad and communicate easily (M= .38, SD= .487), and so on. While the students' interests and wants are filling their free time, the main purpose of existed materials (Concepts and Comments, American Reading, Select Reading) is promoting the ability to read and write English (Fahim & Samadian, 2011). Such textbooks lack effective entertainments' activities. Confliction between students' wants and materials purpose would be an impendence that leads the students to a state of confusion and the course outcomes in complete failure. "Mismatch between curriculum objectives and learners' goals lead them to nowhere," a teacher said in the interview, "the objectives of a course determine its content, plan, and strategies; when they are not along with learners' wants, its disadvantages would be more than its advantages".

The next part of needs analysis survey is contributed to writing skills and students' preferences in writing English classrooms. The results of this part are shown in the Table 2.

Table 2: Results of needs analysis questionnaire regarding writing skills

	Questions	Means	Standard deviations
10	I like to take note when I listen to a lecture.	**1.97**	**.867**

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 5 (3), March 2014   **EISSN: 2289-2737**
www.ijllalw.org   **ISSN: 2289-3245**

11	I like to write a summary of a story, novel, or other people's opinions in English.	2.37	1.062
12	I like to learn emails and personal letters in my writing course.	2.30	1.162
13	I like to choose an interesting article from newspapers and foreign magazines and read them.	**1.87**	**.957**
14	I need to know language rules before I can communicate in English.	2.66	1.185
15	I like to list and make tables from written data.	2.83	1.200
16	I like to write academic reports in English.	**1.65**	**.882**

The results represent that Iranian students were mostly interested in academic writing (M= 1.65, SD= .882); they were also eager to learn how to take note during lectures (M= 1.97, SD= .867). Writing academic styles is not among main purposes of existed materials, therefore, it may be possible to demotivate students to learn, and consequently demotivate teachers to teach and leads to underachievement at the end of the course. The main purpose of existed materials is teaching how to read English texts. In the interview, a teacher stated that learners want to write academic papers, but they are not knowledgeable. They need to practice how to generate a topic, how to cite, how to paraphrase, and how to organize academic papers, however, they learn nothing about it in the language course. General content of language courses are monotonous and boring. Teachers have to follow up their curriculums and these curriculums lack effective plan for academic writing. Besides, teachers are not professionally equipped in how to deal with diversity in the classrooms and other learning contexts. The results of listening part of the need analysis questionnaire are shown in Table 3.

Table 3: Results of needs analysis questionnaire regarding listening skills

	Questions	Means	Standard deviations
17	I like to listen to radio programmes in English	2.59	1.084
18	I like to listen to TV programmes in English	**1.44**	**.662**
19	I like to listen to news in English.	**1.75**	**.820**
20	I like to listen to course lectures conducted in English	2.12	1.089
21	I like to listen to telephone calls in English	3.04	1.245
22	I like to listen to other non-English-speaking nationalities	3.24	1.103
23	I like to listen to English-speaking nationalities	**1.47**	**.730**
24	I like to listen to music in English.	2.21	1.099
25	I like to listen to English podcasts.	2.15	1.074

The results determine that participants believed that listening to TV programs are the most beneficial activity in their listening classrooms (M= 1.44, SD= .662), and most of them believed that listening to English-speaking nationalities is more efficient than listening to other non-English-speaking nationalities (M= 1.47, SD= .730). The results also indicate that the next preference of them in their listening classrooms is listening to English news (M= 1.75, SD= .820). In the interviews, students stated that their teachers mostly ignore the listening skill. Some of them said, "They are eager to materials and textbooks that focused on language skills other than listening". "However, those textbooks that contain listening activities applying unauthentic and graded listening activities that are not attractive for learners". These activities are not related to their real life and what happens around them in the world, so, the students have difficulty to learn them. This difficulty does not concern the learners' interest, however, they rarely expose to such listening activities in their daily life. All B.A and B.Sc. students, except English majors, pass a course of three credits in general English, which according to Ghonsooly and Pishghadam (2007), do not seem to be so

IJLLALW

much useful and interesting for them. Students are mostly believed in authentic materials; however, their courses are full of graded listening activities. "High motivation is the least characteristic of every learning activity; therefore, employing unauthentic materials demotivate learners and they leave the class physically or even mentally," said the teacher in the interview, attractiveness of subject matter is as significant as motivation in the classroom".

Speaking part of the needs analysis questionnaire sheds light on Iranian preferences and tendencies about interesting topics for speaking activity in their speaking classrooms. The results of this part are reported in Table 4.

Table 4: Results of needs analysis questionnaire regarding speaking skills

	Questions	Means	Standard deviations
26	I like to speak about jobs and work.	1.89	.915
27	I like to speak about health and fitness.	**1.66**	**.895**
28	I like to speak about going shopping.	2.51	1.168
29	I like to speak about foreign culture and people	**1.46**	**.711**
30	I like to speak about using telephone.	2.97	1.246
31	I like to speak about holidays.	2.41	1.274
32	I like to speak about describing families.	2.49	1.229
33	I like to speak about world history.	2.58	1.126
34	I like to speak about literature.	2.19	1.050
35	I like to speak about education.	**1.74**	**.893**
36	I like to speak about movies.	2.10	.843
37	I like to speak about fashion.	2.58	1.101
38	I like to speak about psychology.	**1.73**	**.874**
39	I like to speak about science.	2.12	1.055
40	I like to speak about nature and environment.	**1.74**	**.835**
41	I like to speak about animals.	2.33	.851
42	I like to speak about sports.	3.05	1.107
43	I like to speak about traveling.	2.05	.885
44	I like to speak about food and cooking.	2.20	1.048

The results show that in participants' point of view, the five most interesting topics for speaking and discussion in their classrooms are speaking about foreign cultures and people (M= 1.46, SD= .711), health and fitness (M= 1.66, SD= .895), psychology (M= 1.73, SD= .874), nature and environment (M= 1.74, SD= .835), and education (M= 1.74, SD= .893) respectively. While little attention is paid to the oral form of the language, it is unfair to expect perfect language proficiency on the part of learners. Oral tasks are limited to the presentation of phonetic symbols and the different skills that students require; apparently, these courses are not effective enough to acquire language and the students who leave the public school system suffer from poor English language proficiency (Ghonsooly and Pishghadam, 2007; Fahim and Samadian, 2011). "Recently more attention had paid to oral speaking", according to teachers' attitudes in the interviews. Activities such as free discussions and oral presentations help language learners to enhance their oral proficiency.

The last part of the needs analysis questionnaire is about students' styles and their attitudes toward classroom management. The results are presented in table 5.

Table 5: Results of needs analysis questionnaire regarding classroom management

Questions	Means	Standard deviations

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 5 (3), March 2014   **EISSN: 2289-2737**
www.ijllalw.org   **ISSN: 2289-3245**

46	I like to work alone.	2.85	1.237
47	I like to work with other students.	**2.11**	**.954**
48	I like to complete a task through a problem-solving activity.	2.21	.966
49	I like to act out a role-play exercise – example: buying a bus ticket.	2.14	.970
50	I like to take decisions about my personal learning activities.	**1.95**	**.997**
51	I prefer a teacher-directed lesson with explanations.	2.91	1.030
52	I like to complete imaginative and creative activities – project work.	2.20	1.022
53	I like to give and accept advice and decisions.	**2.03**	**.749**
54	I like my teacher to assess students through observation.	2.32	1.122
55	I like my teacher to assess students just based on their works and tests.	2.91	1.324
56	I like my teacher just to follow only textbook or workbook.	3.71	.944
57	I like my teacher to use supplementary activities and sources to develop your students' ability.	**1.72**	**.886**
58	I like my teacher to treat students equally, as a matter of justice.	2.39	1.318
59	I like my teacher to treat students differently, in terms of their needs and interests.	2.14	1.139
60	I like my teacher to teach with a fixed schedule.	3.30	1.034
61	I like my teacher to change the schedule based on his or her professional judgment.	**2.11**	**1.001**
62	I like my teacher to encourage competition among students.	2.17	1.044
63	I like my teacher to repeat and practice a lot.	2.85	1.237

This part reveals particular students' learning styles and their special attitudes on classroom management and teachers' treatment in classrooms. As the results of Table 5 show, the participants mostly inclined to teacher-oriented classrooms. They would trust authoritative teachers. They also preferred individual tasks to group activities. Khademi et al. (2013) stated that there is a significant relationship between instructors' understanding of learning styles and the students' outcomes. Considering diverse learners' learning styles in curriculum and materials is a prerequisite of effective course. The finding of interviews revealed that Iranian instructors do not consider learners' styles in their teaching. As mentioned by an interviewed teacher:

We are just aware of our lessen plan and try our best to follow it. Considering learners' learning styles is an intricate task that needs a group of professional teachers which is not available everywhere; therefore, we overlook learners' styles in organizing our lesson plans and curriculums. Determining learning styles and organizing how to deal with them are time-consuming processes, so it leads teachers to a state of confusion. Overlooking this characteristic in teaching process, I think is more advantageous than considering it.

In classroom management, the results indicate that 87.2 % (n = 193) of participants intended teachers treat students equally, as a matter of justice, 74.1 % (n = 163) liked teachers assess students through observation, and 72.3 % (n =169) liked teachers repeat and practice a lot in their classrooms. The goal of classroom management is to create and maintain a positive, productive learning environment, to support and foster a safe classroom community, to assist students to keep task focused, and to reduce distraction from learning (Froyen and Iverson, 1999). The findings of

201

IJLLALW

interviews revealed that teachers have contrastive beliefs about classroom behavior. A teacher believed in learners' diversity and focused on learners' productivity. "Those learners that are good learners and have enough talent should be the center of teachers' attention," said the teacher in interview, "talented learners must reach their potentials in any field". In contrast, another teacher believed that "providing enough opportunity, low-level learners find chance to show themselves and develop in the course". Teachers' different approaches to classroom management have been investigated and considered that various factors might have possible effects on their choice (Evrim et al., 2009).

Two main themes emerged around material development, needs analysis, and teaching decisions as the results of the current study: a) initially, the cornerstone of needs analysis to make a course purposeful, targeting learners' specific skills, and learners' sustainability; b) the significant role of teachers in teaching decisions.

The Cornerstone of Needs Analysis
Needs analysis is a political and subjective procedure. Teachers and students need to pay more attention and to get more power in teaching decisions. According to this philosophy, learners who are at the bottom of the hierarchy in top-down educational systems such as Iran, should be given more power and their voices should be heard in material development. Curriculum designers need to become aware of students needs and interests (Ghonsooly & Pishghadam, 2007; Hashemi et al., 2011; Fahim & Samadian, 2011). The results of the study indicated that the participants had propinquity to encounter with authentic materials and listen to English-speaking nationalities. Authentic materials have a positive effect on learners' motivation, provide authentic cultural information about the target culture, and supply exposure to real language (Richards, 2001; Long, 2005; Daloglu, 2004; Burden, 2008; Stoller et al., 2006; Archer, 2008). The participants believed that created materials might be superior to authentic materials because they generally are built around a graded syllabus and therefore provide a systematic coverage of teaching items.

Input factors and individual differences are two major factors that also have an influence on L2 acquisition. Input factors, such as modification and simplification refer to how input is provided. Individual learner differences are concerned with learners' motivation, learning styles, and cognitive capabilities (Ko, 2012). The results of needs analysis questionnaire indicated that the most prevailing Iranian students' learning styles are global, open-oriented, extroverted, visual, and tactile. According to Cohen et al. (2003), learners that have global style preference, enjoy getting the gist or main idea and are comfortable communicating even if they do not know all the words or concepts. Open-oriented learners enjoy discovery learning (in which they pick up information naturally) and prefer to relax and enjoy their learning without concern for deadlines or rules. Those who have extroverted learning styles probably enjoy a wide range of social, interactive learning tasks (games, conversations, discussions, debates, role-plays, simulations). Visual learners rely more on the sense of sight, and they learn best through visual means (books, video, charts, and pictures). If they have a tactile/kinesthetic style preference, they benefit from doing projects, working with objects, and moving around (playing games, building models, conducting experiments). The results of both quantitative and qualitative data confirmed each other.

In classroom management, most students preferred that teachers treat students equally, as a matter of justice. They also asserted those paper and pencil tests are not adequate measures of students' competencies. In their point of view, classroom observation and assessment are good measures for determining students' abilities and competencies. Nevertheless, assessing learners through observation need experts and professional teachers (Daloglu, 2004; Read, 2008; Friginal, 2013).

As perceived language problems in the interview section, students stated limited vocabulary and difficulty in speaking as their major language problems. They also added that they have problems in learning grammar rules, listening ability, communication acts, and reading comprehension skill. On the other hand, the instructors asserted that their students had difficulty mostly in reading comprehension, vocabulary, grammar and writing skills. One of the instructors, in his interview, stated that "the only language related problem and need of the students was reading comprehension that included limited vocabulary and weak grammatical expertise". Other instructors claimed that teaching of speaking in Iranian classes are impractical and unbeneficial due to low language proficiency level of the students and the limitations of time dedicated to language teaching by policy makers.

Jahangard (2012) stated that although the recorded tapes are provided to practice listening in the classroom, there is not enough attention to this part on the side of the teachers and this problem might be due to the lack of time. The problem with vocabulary sections is that vocabulary items are not well contextualized in the books. Nunan (1999) defines authentic materials as spoken or written language data that have been produced in the course of genuine communication, and are not specifically written for purposes of language teaching. Based on this definition, reading comprehensions in books, which are manipulated to represent the grammar rules in the lessons, are not authentic. He

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 5 (3), March 2014   EISSN: 2289-2737
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added that when learners enter universities in Iran, they are expected to read in English and understand autonomously. Although the authors have considered this need for the learners, all textbooks are not well designed so that they develop all reading skills in the learners. Skimming, scanning, intensive, and extensive reading skills that are the most important aspects of reading skills are not explicitly practiced in the textbooks.

In the interviews, instructors argued that language teaching would be meaningful and purposeful when curriculum designers and teachers target specific language skills, and ESP courses are some examples of such approaches (Nathan, 2013; Gardner, 2012). When teachers narrow their focus on special issues, they can pay more attention to vital details that are impossible to consider in a general course or textbook. Like teaching language, teaching every skill has numerous perspectives. Concerning all of them in a language course is possible only when they are targeted specifically. Another important finding of this study is the need of learners' sustainability. As the teachers should be flexible to deal with classroom diversities, learners should be able to tolerate some diversity in their learning contexts. Learners should be taught to select the best choice in the existed materials and classrooms activities. Live among diversity is significant characteristic of a good learner. Teachers and learners cooperation create a meaningful and purposeful learning environment.

Significant Role of Teachers in Teaching Decisions
Researchers see that the main concerns of ESP have always been with needs analysis, text analysis, and preparing learners to communicate effectively in the tasks prescribed by their study or work situation. Recently researchers pay more attention to the role of teachers in the classroom. They always believed that local teachers' knowledge of their situations as well as their familiarity with their students' motivation, culture, and learning styles give them a potential advantage over native-speaker expatriate teachers (Hashemi et al., 2011; Turner, 2012; Hyland, 2002).

One of the prevailing purposes in material development is to raise awareness about students' different preferences, learning styles, and their possible effects on the learning process and outcomes (Ur, 1996; Richards, 2001; Khademi et al., 2013). Learners are different and they learn in a variety of ways. Many variables reasonably influence teachers' education. One of these considering variables is being aware of the students' learning styles (Pourhossein & Ahmadi, 2011). Brown (2007) defines style as a permanent propensity within an individual that is directly related to the individuals' personality. The way individuals perceive, interact with, and answer to their environment is a consistent tendency that indicates their styles. Individual styles could differentiate people from each other. A learning style is the way in which learners try to learn. It includes how they think about learning and how they experience learning process.

In general, learning style is the method by which learners gather information from their environment. However, Dörnyei (2005) distinguished learning style and cognitive style. He suggested that cognitive styles are relatively fixed and learning styles are subject to change. Learners can change their learning styles based on their classroom and their environments' experiences. He also added that teachers could train learning styles (as cited in Ellis, 2008). The magnificent role of teacher emerges in such circumstances. Teacher as a connector should at first, distinguishes learners' learning styles, and then provide appropriate classrooms' activities to develop and foster the distinguished style. Every learning context is unique (Brown, 2007), every context has unique learners; therefore, teacher is the only one that is able to determine learners' styles and differentiate them from each other. Not policy makers, course designers, nor curriculum developers have the ability to determine learners' style. Teachers are in direct contact with learners and watch their feedback to learning tasks. Based on the above statements, teachers are the most significant source to design pedagogical tasks and organize most adequate lesson plans.

The results of the present study confirmed with Ur, 1996; Richards, 2001, 2010; Long, 2005 who argued ESP teachers often have to plan the course they teach and provide the materials for it. It is rarely possible to use a particular textbook without the need for supplementary material, and sometimes no really suitable published material exists for certain of the identified needs. The role of ESP teachers as providers of material thus involves choosing suitable published materials, adapting materials when published material is not suitable or even writing material where nothing suitable exists. The ESP teachers are often involved in various types of evaluation, including both the testing of students and the evaluation of courses and teaching materials. Textbooks suppress teacher creativity and lack flexibility to meet student differences. This leads to the need for asking teachers to adapt and supplement textbooks because material designers cannot anticipate all the emergency of local use or fully provide for individual

203

differences. The teachers' roles are using, adapting, and supplementing external materials to material development and making. The results of needs analysis questionnaire revealed that the most important preference is learning how to write academic articles. Unfortunately, course designers and teachers do not pay enough attention to this area in Iranian classrooms. The results of interview also confirmed this claim. In the interview, instructors ascertained that teachers and policy makers ignore the students' interests in designing courses and classroom schedules. There is a mismatch between learners' and course objectives. The missing loom of this orbit is teacher. Teachers are able to facilitate learning through giving more attention to learners' needs and interests in their classrooms.

CONCLUSIONS

This study tried to discover teachers' role in ELT material development and to administer a needs analysis in an Iranian university context with a focus on general English materials. Two main themes emerged around material development, needs analysis, and teaching decisions as the results of the current study: a) initially, the cornerstone of needs analysis to make a course purposeful, targeting learners' specific skills, and learners' sustainability; b) the significant role of teachers in teaching decisions.

Teachers and students need to pay more attention and to get more power in teaching decisions (Richards, 2001; Ghonsooly & Pishghadam, 2007; Hashemi et al., 2011; Fahim & Samadian, 2011). Authentic materials have a positive effect on learners' motivation, provide authentic cultural information about the target culture, and supply exposure to real language (Richards, 2001; Long, 2005; Daloglu, 2004; Burden, 2008; Stoller et al., 2006; Archer, 2008). Language teaching would be meaningful and purposeful when curriculum designers and teachers target specific language skills, and ESP courses are some examples of such approaches (Nathan, 2013; Gardner, 2012). Learners should be taught to select the best choice in the existed materials and classrooms activities. Live among diversity is significant characteristic of a good learner. Teacher as a connector should at first, distinguishes learners' learning styles, and then provide appropriate classrooms' activities to develop and foster the distinguished style. Teachers are the most significant source to design pedagogical tasks and organize most adequate lesson plans. The teachers' roles are using, adapting, and supplementing external materials to material development and making. There is a mismatch between learners' and course objectives. The missing loom of material development orbit is teacher. Teachers are able to facilitate learning through paying more attention to learners' needs and interests in their classrooms. Local teachers' knowledge of their situations as well as their familiarity with their learners' motivation, culture, and learning styles give them priority to native teachers. Teachers are connectors of curriculum designers to the actual classroom. They are the most reliable source for choosing suitable published materials, adapting materials, plan the courses, provide the materials, and evaluate them. Understanding the experiences of teachers in TESOL programs would help teacher educators and researchers in tailoring TESOL curricula to meet the academic and professional needs of all students planning to teach English in worldwide contexts.

Limitations of the Study

Every research study faces with some unavoidable limitations and this particular study is not different from them. One of the effective ways to improve a curriculum is to adapt and improve the textbooks and the materials employed in the classrooms. Attaining such level in material development and curriculum design requires deep understanding of existed material and precise material evaluation to adapt and adopt the most effective material in any educational context based on new needs analysis criteria. The reports of these kinds of evaluations can be shared among teachers, stakeholders, and material developers to gain more deepen ideas about EFL textbooks. The limitations that this particular study is faced were as follow: The instrument of the study was a general one; probably specific questionnaires were dedicated to every language skills, deepen our understanding, and represent different results. The sample was selected from B.A. students and the criteria for every level are different. The main concern of the study was materials and textbooks; therefore, the effect of factors such as teachers' teaching experiences and applied methodology in the language teaching process were overlooked. Every learner is unique, and every context is unique; accepting this statement, the results are not generalizable to other learning environment as preferences of different learners in different context vary.

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The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
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205

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DOES THE MEDIUM MAKE THE MAGIC? THE EFFECT OF IWRITER ON ADVANCED IRANIAN EFL LEARNER'S ARGUMENTATIVE ESSAY WRITING SKILL

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ABSTRACT
Nowadays education is more and more taking advantage of information technology. One of the most recent and attractive applications is iWriter. It is an interactive application which provides guidance for planning, developing, and checking different kinds of writing. Given the importance of writing, especially the academic ones for university students, this study tried to investigate the effectiveness of iWriter on advanced Iranian university student's argumentative writing skill. To this end, 40 male and female EFL university students were randomly selected. They were given a topic to write about as the pretest. Having been randomly divided into two groups of experimental and control, the experimental group received the treatment which was working with the application for one term (12 sessions). At the end of the experiment, both groups were given a TOEFL test of writing. Then the paired samples t-test was conducted to compare the mean scores of the pre and posttests. The results showed that the experimental groups' argumentative writing skill improved significantly in posttest indicating the positive effect of iWriter. The important thing to note is that the teachers recognize the importance of integrating technology with their instructions and considering its role as being essential for effective teaching. Steps should be taken towards providing more guidance in working with technological applications in classrooms. Teachers and students working with such applications feel committed to their learning, and teaching as a career. The teachers also identify that they feel empowered to take action when they see vulnerable students that need their attention.

KEYWORDS: iWriter, computer-assisted writing instruction, argumentative writing skill

INTRODUCTION
The ability to write well is not a naturally acquired skill, it is usually learned as a set of practices in formal instructional settings or other environments. Writing skills must be practiced and learned through experience. Perhaps writing can be best regarded as a continuum of activities that range from the more mechanical or formal aspects of writing on the one end, to the more complex act of composing on the other end (Omaggio Hadley, 1993). It is undoubtedly the act of composing, though, which can create problems for students, especially for those writing in a second language in academic contexts.

Mastering the argumentative essay is a key skill for success in writing. The argumentative essay helps students to develop critical thinking and research skills, as well as the ability to develop and logically defend a position. Argumentative essays improve research skills in a way that students might need to read secondary sources on a piece of literature, collect empirical data on a scientific hypothesis or examine statistics on a political or social issue. Doing this helps them master basic research skills such as finding reliable sources, summarizing relevant research and synthesizing data.

No matter how good an argument or idea is, it won't work if a student can't logically outline his/her research and make a coherent analysis. Argumentative essays help students master the basic rules of logic, such as avoiding emotional appeals, using sound rather than deceptive arguments and making specific, clear statements rather than generalizations. Students will also master rhetorical skills such as emphasizing the importance of an issue or the potential outcomes of a particular program.

In addition to the basic grammar and mechanics that students learn through almost every writing assignment, argumentative writing can help students master the importance of the structure of essays. A well-written argumentative essay has a clear thesis that is supported by each succeeding paragraph. Students master the importance of staying on topic, of supporting their arguments and of sticking to a thesis that they can defend in the allotted space.

Furthermore for having a clear argument, students must anticipate objections to their position. This might require outlining alternative perspectives or addressing potential questions the reader might have. This approach helps students master the art of developing critical thinking skills and improve their own argumentative skills by understanding potential weaknesses in their positions.

Writing is part of our everyday lives. Services such as Facebook, Twitter, text messaging and email have increased the amount of written communication we use on a regular basis. Your writing can say a lot about who you are, and writing enhancement software can help ensure that you're sending the right message about yourself in the world of communication.

However, learning writing skills is an important aspect of learning English as students could be called upon to write in English for professional or formal reasons. Those who wish to live in an English speaking country will most definitely need to be able to write in English in order to fill out forms and other administrative papers concerning their everyday lives. Writing skills in English are important to learn. ESL teachers need to encourage student participation by making the experience interesting and motivating. One of the ways is to have a writing software in the classroom which considerably encourages students to involve in the process of writing.

Writing applications

In today's age of technology, many teachers may ask themselves how the use of computers can be useful for their own composition classrooms. Douglas Eyman (2010) suggested how computers have been shifting pedagogies in the classroom experience over the past few years: "Composition pedagogy has moved from the current-traditional model toward a process-oriented, more collaborative and less authority-centered model. Computer mediated communication technologies afford the classroom instructor the medium which serves as both a main point for the building of community and a method of collaboration."

Computers have a profound effect on all aspects of language learning and teaching and can be used in developing writing skills as well. Developments of computer technology and the ample use of computers by people all around the world, the extensive implication of CALL (computer- assisted language learning), and CALI (computer-assisted language instruction) have greatly influenced both writing instruction and writing research in recent years.

Writing skills in English are also important to learn. EFL teachers need to encourage student participation by making the experience interesting and motivating. Some of the writing applications may focus on establishing or improving writing skills through word prediction, word suggestion, spoken feedback or other features. These products traditionally are helpful to individuals who have difficulty getting their thoughts on paper or similar problems with the writing process.

The writing process can be an individual and personal one. So, the application that is right for your students will depend on what you want to do with it and how you prefer to work. The best applications allow the users to do what they want, but each program is definitely tended toward one end or the other. For example, *Write It Now* allows for a high degree of note taking and linking ideas, while *Writer's Dream Kit* provides very structured question-and-answer writing guidance.

iWriter Application

The application we used in this study offers sufficient features to help with, including a dictionary, a thesaurus, a

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word count and spell check as well as examples of good writing. These examples of good writing make a model for students to follow and according to which they can make their writings better. It is easy to navigate and has user-friendly features so anyone with basic computer skills can install and quickly figure out how to use the functions and tools of the application. If the time of the classroom doesn't allow to work on them in classroom, students can work on it at home.

It has *In-depth Instruction* which provides a structured and supportive environment that enables students to apply skills while they are learning. Intensive Concentration can be used when students encounter areas of difficulty. It means they can choose to access several forms of assistance, explanations, tips, examples, and options to maximize learning opportunities. Personalized Feedback is another part of this application whose Context-sensitive tips help college students accept responsibility for their weaknesses and build their confidence as learners. Automatic Scoring as the last section helps teachers to quickly measure student areas of concern, using the application's *Teacher Program Manager*, and plan lessons in response to specific needs. These features help lower the effective filter, which increases student participation and engagement in their process of writing. Moreover, using such an application helps students gain autonomy as a way to regulate their own learning. If they have any problems concerning the style of writing for example, while using the application they can go and check that specific style within the application. This makes them know they can solve their problems themselves.

LITERATURE REVIEW
Writing, together with its teaching in both first and second language contexts, is currently the subject of a considerable amount of research and other educational works. Papers on aspects of writing can be found in almost any issue of applied linguistics or educational journals, and there are currently a number of journals devoted to the subject.

This is, however, a fairly recent development, with writing and it's teaching only emerging as a scholarly discipline in the 1970s (Nystrand, Green, & Wiemelt, 1993; Raimes, 1991). Before that time writing was seldom seen as something to be taught for its own sake and in the second language classrooms it was most often used as a way of demonstrating mastery of the structures studied in class or for dictation.

"Technology has found a welcome home in foreign language education." According to Li-Ling Chen Language instruction that integrates technology has become popular and has had a remarkable impression on language education. Several EFL research studies (Blake, 2000; Cheng, 2003; Cheng & Liou, 2000; Egbert, 2002; Higgins, 1993; Kramsch & Andersen, 1999; Skinner & Austin, 1999; Strambi & Bouvet, 2003; Willetts; 1992; Williams & Williams, 2000) suggest that integration of technology can improve academic performance, enhance motivation, and promote learning. To examine how technology supports teaching and learning, Chatel (2002) conducted interviews and observations with eight classroom teachers and four ESL teachers and declared that the selection of appropriate software and websites help ESL students learn and apply English. Lasagabaster and Sierra (2003) conducted a similar research study to examine the attitude of 59 undergraduate students toward CAI software programs. The findings revealed that the students had a positive attitude toward learning another language with computers.

Also, results from some research studies suggest the value of integrating technology into EFL instruction (Carey & Gregory, 2002; Cheng, 2003; Godwin-Jones, 2002; Gonzalez-Bueno & Perez, 2000; LeLoup & Ponterio, 2003). Liu, Moore, Graham, and Lee (2002) investigated the literature relating to how computer-based technology had been used in language instruction during the past decade (1990 – 2002) and found a shift in the research focus. Current research, unlike that conducted in the early 1990s when the value of technology was still questioned, is now centered on how to integrate technology into language instruction to make teaching and learning more effective.

Previous studies have discussed the effectiveness of writing softwares in the writing classroom ("The effectiveness of My Access" Chen & Cheng, 2006; Yang, 2004). The results of the study by Yang (2004) showed students' positive attitudes toward the automated essay writing tool, in terms of the rapid speed of feedback.

Michael Knievel, in his article, "Redefining the Humanistic: Making Space for Technology in Twenty-First Century English Studies," explained that it is important the scholars in the field of composition recognize just how connected

technologies, i.e. computers, are to English studies. Knievel discussed the way in which they are attached. He stated: …technical communication and computers and writing …each with an emergent critical mass of conferences, scholarly journals, programs…are uniquely joined by their definitional relationship to different, but similarly visible, technologies: computers and writing and the networked computer, and technical communication and a range of technologies.

Jim Porter (2003), a scholar at Michigan State University with research in the areas of rhetoric and digital writing, notes that technology plays a significant role in writing, but the ways in which it does so differs depending on the technology, attitudes of the writer, and the pedagogical context in which the writer adapted to the technology.

According to Williams (2005), if the use of the computer software is carefully explained and worked on for students, it can offer them both assistance and autonomy in the writing process. In addition, several researchers have emphasized the use of computer programs to enhance learner autonomy in second language learning, particularly in the field of ESL/EFL writing (Milton, 1997; Williams, 2005). Furthermore, Milton (1997) suggested the use of computer programs to serve the aim of the autonomous development of writing skills, particularly for EFL writers.

The results of a study done by Ozge Kutlu in 2012, named "Using technology for developing writing in an ESP class" points out that using e-mail can save time for the classrooms settings, and we can make our students produce more writing when we use e-mail. Liaw (1998) used e-mail as an exchange tool among L2 students.

Also, results from some research studies suggest the value of incorporating technology into EFL instruction (Carey & Gregory, 2002; Cheng, 2003; Godwin-Jones, 2002; Gonzalez-Bueno & Perez, 2000; LeLoup & Ponterio, 2003). Liu, Moore, Graham, and Lee (2002) investigated the literature relating to how computer-based technology had been used in language instruction during the past decade (1990 – 2002) and found a shift

Above all, because of the many pitfalls in the use of writing software with L2 or EFL students, writing teachers need to be aware of the possible benefits as well as drawbacks for their learners.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS
This study examined qualitative and quantitative effects of using the computer-assisted writing application *iWriter* in an EFL composition class. The following research questions were addressed in this study:

1. Is using iWriter software effective in improving EFL learners' argumentative essay writing skill?
2. What are the learners' attitudes toward using iWriter in the future?

RESEARCH HYPOTHESES
 Ho: iWriter application isn't effective in improving EFL learners' writing skill.

METHODOLOGY
Participants
The participants in this study comprised of 40 male and female EFL students of Payam-e-Noor University of Behshahr with 87% girls and 13% boys. Their ages ranged from 18 to 23 with average of 19 years old. They were randomly selected from the accessed classes. The students were classified as advanced EFL learners, according to Bamford, Julian, and Richard (2004), whom defined advanced language learners as those who "already have a basic knowledge of, and are literate in, the foreign language." All the participants in the study, with at least six years of English study experience behind them at the time of admission, could read and write in English fairly well after two years of intensive English study at the university as English majors. In fact, the shortest time of the participants' English study was five years and the longest 12 years.

Instruments
Pretest
In order to ensure that the subjects in this study were at the same proficiency level in writing in terms of accuracy and quality of their writing, a writing pre-test was assigned to both groups. The test consisted of three topics for students to choose one and write on their own. The papers were scored by three independent raters. To obtain a highly reliable result, the three raters had some sessions to discuss the method for scoring the papers. Since the students were supposed to write five paragraphs (one paragraph for introduction, three paragraphs for the body, and one for conclusion) for the test, each paragraph was scored separately according to the Rubric for the Assessment of

the Argumentative Essay (Appendix II), and then the inter-rater reliability for this holistic scoring was estimated using the Pearson product-moment correlation adjusted by the Spearman prophecy formula.

Post test
After the treatment with the experimental group, both groups were given three topics and asked to choose one. The topics were 1. Are law enforcement cameras an invasion of privacy?, 2. All students in high school and college should be required to take at least two years of a foreign language., and 3.To encourage healthy eating, higher taxes should be imposed on soft drinks and junk food. They were supposed to write an argumentative essay on the chosen topic to see whether the treatment (working with the application) made any significant changes in the mean score of students or not. Like the pretest, the posttest papers were scored by three independent raters according to the Rubric for the Assessment of the Argumentative Essay (Appendix II) and the inter-rater reliability for this holistic scoring was estimated using the Pearson product-moment correlation adjusted by the Spearman prophecy formula.

Interview
The semi-structured interview style was conversational, involving open-ended questions that would encourage the participants to elaborate on the ideas proposed. The main aim of the interview was to answer the second research question which dealt with the attitude of students toward using the application in future. So the main part of the interview concerned asking open ended questions about their ideas toward using the application. The researchers used a portable cassette tape recorder during the interview to take down a respondent's exact words which constitutes a further step toward eliminating certain types of bias and makes possible more refined analysis of the interviews. The interview time for each respondent varied, depending on how much information he/she was willing to share. On average, each interview lasted 15-20 minutes.

Procedure
A total of 40 university students, served as the participants of the study. During the study, the students attended 12 sessions. The first and the last sessions were specifically for the pre- and post-tests. They were given three topics and they should choose one and write an argumentative essay on it as a pretest to examine their current writing proficiency level. The topics were 1. Are fast food chains killing people?, 2. Should those younger than 13 be allowed to have a Facebook or Myspace (or other social networking account)?, and 3. How young is too young to have your own cellphone?. Afterwards the students were randomly divided to two groups of control and experimental. In the other 10 sessions, students in the experimental group were first introduced to and then worked on the application. During the study, the students were first became familiar with the environment of the application with the help of the researcher- teacher.

First from the Home page they chose I want to see models of writing to view the menu of different models available, here the argumentative writing model. As they pointed to each type of writing a dark blue information panel will appear to the right to give them some brief information on it.

When the model opens they saw blue buttons on the left that will take them through some features of the model. As they click on each button, different parts of the model will be displayed in the larger window on the right. If there is a word that they didn't understand in the model, they could double-click on it to see the entry in the Oxford Advanced Learner's Pop-up dictionary.

After becoming familiar with an argumentative kind of essay, there is a Write mode in which students tried to write their own essay. From the Home page they chose I want to do my own writing to view the menu of different types of writing available. Then the students were asked to write in-class essays with different topics. From the very first session students worked in the English Laboratory (one computer set per student).

At the end of the experiment, both groups were given three topics to choose one and write an argumentative essay on it as the posttest. Then their pre and post test scores were compared using a t-test. The result showed that their writing skill improved significantly in posttest indicating the positive effect of using the application.

Follow-up interviews were conducted with nine students. The students were selected by the researcher on the basis of their English writing proficiency: three from the top 33%, three from the middle 33%, and three from the bottom

33%. To maintain the anonymity of the participants in the interviews, each student was assigned a number from 1 to 9.

Data collection and analysis

The data used in this study came from a pre and posttests. There was also a semi structured follow-up interview with nine out of 40 participants. The data collected from the pretest and posttest were analyzed using SPSS software version 21.0. The standard deviation, variance and mean score of each group were derived out. Then the paired samples t-test was conducted to see if there was any significant difference between mean scores of pre and posttest or not.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In order to answer the research questions, descriptive analysis and paired samples t-test were used to investigate any statistically significant differences in results in the post-test compared with those of the pre-test for both groups.

The results of the pretest showed that students were not that much familiar with the argumentative type of essay writing. The mean score was 10.5 with standard deviation of 3.1 showing most of the students were at average to low level at the beginning of the experiment. While the data from the posttest showed a significant difference. The following table shows the mean and standard deviation of the pretest and posttest scores of the students:

Tabke 1: the mean and standard deviation of the pretest and posttest scores of the students

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N	Std. Error Mean
Pretest	10.5000	3.18561	40	.20383
Posttest	12.6750	1.96622	40	.11089

Paired Sample Statistics

As the table shows the mean score of the students in posttest was significantly higher than the mean score of pretest. Also the standard deviation of the posttest (1.9) shows that students became more homogenized and the scores became nearer to the mean score. The paired samples t-test was then conducted to compare the mean scores of the pre and posttests. The following table shows the data in detail:

Table 2: Paired Samples Test

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
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The results of the paired samples t-test shows that the scores of the students worked with the i-Writer application were much higher on the posttest (*M* = 12.6, *SD* = 1.9, *N* = 40) than the pretest (*M* = 10.5, *SD* = 3.1, *N* = 40), *t*(9) = 2.421, *p* < .001, two-tailed.

After all, the results rejected the researcher's hypothesis that working with the i-Writer application doesn't have any effect on the argumentative writing skill of the advanced EFL students. It had a substantial effect and showed a significant improvement on the students' achievement.

The interview data revealed that the majority of students held favorable attitudes towards using iWriter. While the results of this study shed light on the use of the computer-assisted writing application, iWriter, the most important findings were that the majority of the learners preferred the use of iWriter as a writing tool. Furthermore, eight out of the nine selected student participants also recommended the use of iWriter in the writing class in the future. Further discussions of the benefits of adopting computer-assisted writing application such as increased learner motivation and learner autonomy also indicate that this kind of application can be a useful supporting tool in the EFL classroom.

CONCLUSION

As previous studies claimed that all computer-based writing applications cannot be used as a replacement of a teacher (Warschauer & Ware, 2006), the results of this study revealed some similar ideas. However, in addition to comparing the differences between an experimental group (computer assisted writing group) and a control group (traditional writing classroom group), it hopes to enhance language teachers' awareness of how such a computer-assisted writing tool, iWriter, can be used more effectively in the writing classroom to benefit EFL student writers as well as the writing instructor in this study. Therefore, in the teaching process of EFL writing, it is essential that EFL

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig.(2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pair 1 pretest-posttest	11.58000	2.57284	1.33339	.37150	10.92850	2.421	9	.039

writing instructors encourage student writers to make the most of diverse resources, such as computer-based writing applications in order to become autonomous learners.

Thus, the main challenge that instructors in the composition classroom face is how to successfully integrate technology with their pedagogical instruction and goals, all the while engaging and "teaching" their students. However, this is no easy feat, as proven by a study conducted by Epiphany Associates which showed that "it takes approximately five semesters for motivated teachers to accomplish that aim" (Hickey). While this may seem like a good enough reason to resist the growing trend of "technology as the teacher," the integration can be successful if instructors are supported by their administration, given proper training and guidance, and supplied with the necessary tools.

On the whole, the present study showed that technology can be used in order to develop writing skills of the students. Writing skill embraces many different processes (Harmer, 2004). Harmer (2004) highlighted these processes and points out the three processes in writing which are planning, editing, and drafting. At the end of these processes, the final draft will be produced. In that sense, computers can benefit students as they produce writing pieces of high quality on condition that they use computers which allow them change, edit, draft and save their last drafts. (Li & Cumming, 2001; Pennington, 2003). Hence, students may have the chance to improve their writing skill with the technological opportunities more easily than the way they traditionally do. An implication of this study may be the

possibility that we can use technology to make our students' writing skills develop. In this process, we, as foreign language teachers, need to acquire new roles. Chapelle (2003) points out these roles and conditions that "The perspectives of the technologists, social scientist, and the critical analyst offer teachers food for thought about their roles in the changing world of technology." (p.19). For further research, substantially more work will need to be done to determine the effect of technology in larger groups of the students. Further research regarding the role of technology in writing skill would also be of great help.

Limitations of the study
The number of students we used in the study was small and the study can be done with more participants to have more valid and reliable results which can be generalized to a larger population. Another possible limitation is that we depended on having access to participants and, for whatever reason, access was denied or otherwise limited to a larger group for being more representative to the whole population. And the last one could be that the measurements and intervention were made without blinding of the researcher to the experimental group, which has the potential for bias. However, potential bias was minimized by random assignment of participants and the following of standardized protocol by the investigator.

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Appendix I: Interview questions
Instructions: Please answer the questions about your opinions on the effects of iWriter application on your writing skill. Please also note that your response constitutes no right or wrong answers

1. Do you have positive attitudes towards using this writing application?
2. Do using this writing application makes you more efficient at your work?

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3. Dose using iWriter application makes completing the task of writing easier?
4. Do you consider writing application as a good supplement to support teaching and learning? In what ways?
5. If you have access to resources, would you like to try out writing applications?

Appendix II: Rubric for the Assessment of the Argumentative Essay

Rubric for the Assessment of the Argumentative Essay

	3	2	1	0	Score
A. Introduction Background/history Define the problem Thesis Statement Conclusion	Well developed introductory paragraph contains detailed background , a clear explanation or definition of the problem, and a thesis statement. Conclusion summarizes the main topics without repeating previous sentences; writer's opinions and suggestions for change are logical and well thought out.	Introductory paragraph contains some background information and states the problem, but does not explain using details. States the thesis of the paper. Conclusion summarizes main topics. Some suggestions for change are evident.	Introduction states the thesis but does not adequately explain the background of the problem. The problem is stated, but lacks detail. Conclusion summarizes main topics, but is repetitive. No suggestions for change and/or opinions are included.	Thesis and/or problem is vague or unclear. Background details are a seemingly random collection of information, unclear, or not related to the topic. Conclusion does not adequately summarize the main points. No suggestions for change or opinions are included.	_____
B. MAIN POINTS Body Paragraphs Refutation	Three or more main points are well developed with supporting details. Refutation paragraph(s) acknowledges the opposing view and summarizes their main points.	Three or more main points are present but may lack detail and development in one or two. Refutation paragraph(s) acknowledges the opposing view but doesn't summarize points.	Three or more main points, but all lack development. Refutation paragraph(s) missing and/or vague	Less than three main points, with poor development of ideas. Refutation missing or vague.	_____
C. ORGANIZATION	Logical, compelling progression of ideas in essay;clear structure which enhances and showcases the central idea or theme and moves the reader through the text. Organization flows so smoothly the reader hardly thinks about it. Effective, mature, graceful transitions exist throughout the essay.	Overall, the paper is logically developed. Progression of ideas in essay makes sense and moves the reader easily through the text. Strong transitions exist throughout and add to the essay's coherence	Progression of ideas in essay is awkward, yet moves the reader through the text without too much confusion. The writer sometimes lunges ahead too quickly or spends too much time on details that do not matter. Transitions appear sporadically, but not equally throughout the ssay.	Arrangement of essay is unclear and illogical. The writing lacks a clear sense of direction. Ideas, details or events seem strung together in a loose or random fashion; there is no identifiable internal structure and readers have trouble following the writer's line of thought. Few, forced transitions in the essay or no transitions are present.	_____
D. WORKS CITED	Source material is smoothly integrated into the text. All sources are accurately documented in the desired format both in the text and on the Works Cited page.	Source material is used. All sources are accurately documented, but a few are not in the desired format. Some sources lack credibility.	Source material is used, but integration may be awkward. All sources are accurately documented, but many are not in the desired format or lack credibility.	Lacks sources and/or sources are not accurately documented. Format is incorrect for all sources.	_____
E. MECHANICS Sentence Structure Punctuation & Capitalization	Sentence structure is correct. Punctuation and capitalization are correct.	Sentence structure is generally correct. Some awkward sentences do appear. There are one or two errors in punctuation and/or capitalization.	Work contains structural weaknesses and grammatical errors. There are three or four errors in punctuation and/or capitalization.	Work contains multiple incorrect sentence structures. There are four or more errors in punctuation and/or capitalization.	_____
				TOTAL	

Comments:

Grade Equivalent: A= 13 - 15 points
                B= 10 - 12 points
                C = 7 - 9 points   Grade: _____
                D = 4 - 6 points
                F = 3 or less

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THE IMPACT OF CHAT ON THE VOCABULARY RETENTION OF IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS

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ABSTRACT
Using the Internet to access "authentic language material" is one of the ways that help students learn English, particularly English as a Foreign Language *(EFL) students who may not have other ways to access this type of material. Since the evolution of networks, computers have been offering (EFL) learners more than drills: "they can be a medium of real communication in the target language, including composing and exchanging messages with other students in the classroom or around the world" (Oxford, 1990, p.79). No matter what target languages the learners study, most studies have found some positive attitudes towards text chat rooms for language learning, and confirmed that chat room can be a favorable environment for language practice especially for learners who do not live in target language –speaking areas (Blake, 2000). To evaluate the possible effects of chat on vocabulary retention of pre-university students studying in Ghasre- Shirin Pre-University centres, the researcher randomly selected 60 students- 30 male and 30 female, from among 200 students. The design used for the research was Post test only control group. The students, who had been assigned to two groups (control and experimental), answered 28 multiple choice items test with varying levels of difficulty for post-test. While experimental group was taught vocabulary retention by means of chat, control group was taught according to common traditional vocabulary-teaching methods. The treatment was followed for roughly six months. The results of the t-test showed that teaching vocabulary by means of chat had a significant effect on vocabulary retention of pre-university students than traditional ways of teaching vocabulary. Significant difference between t-values of easy, average, and difficult questions is a good indicator of this fact. Since the present study has been done with regard to Pre-university students, and their book is authentic regarding the texts introduced (the texts have been adapted from internet sources) such a significant effect of teaching vocabulary through chat might not be replicable with regard to other sources of text being artificially designed (based on structures) in EFL contexts.*

KEYWORDS: vocabulary retention, chat, pre-university students

INTRODUCTION
Language learning is a process that involves two basic concepts: language and communication. Most language teachers know how difficult it is to get students to use language in class in a meaningful way especially at the oral level. As far as it is clear, no strategy or tool has yet proven to be 'the' one to bring the cure to all our problems. Technology is indeed power and the more power we entrust to the students, the more control we allow them to have over their own learning. This technology allows learners to do multiple language tasks, simultaneously integrating all the basic language skills: reading, writing, listening, and speaking. When used, it is an invaluable asset in the arsenal of language teaching and learning tools.

Over the past 10 years, the speed and the amount of information available on the Internet has helped to promote the interest linguists and foreign language professionals alike have in utilizing it. According to Lafford and Lafford, (1997) the computer-Internet combination provides information through both "non-interactive" and "interactive means." Non interactive means would be such things as on-line newspapers, dictionaries, resource materials, videos, and most on-line school prepared courses. Interactive means would cover such things as E-mail, chatting, chat groups, discussion groups, video teleconferencing (VTC) and some types of interactive software. Another way to look at Internet sites is to break them down into what they can do for the language learner.

As the world becomes more global and in a sense, smaller, the learner or educator could very well be in another country. Using the Internet to access "authentic language material" is an area that will help students studying English, particularly EFL students who may not have other ways to access this type of material. Fortunately, today's up-to-date technology, the combined Internet tool, makes it possible for English learners to access online authentic

materials which can help by "promoting" the cultural awareness that could only be acquired in the past by abroad studying programs (Lafford & Lafford, 1997, 216). However, there has been an online tool around for some time now that gives EFL/ESL teachers yet another opportunity to promote the use of written and oral language to communicate in an authentic way. When the Internet is prevailing and its bandwidth is broad enough to give us the ability to communicate easily with other individuals, synchronous computer-mediated communication (CMC) becomes possible and easy. Synchronous communication in online learning is by all means an important element of language teaching and learning nowadays. More and more language teachers around the world are incorporating online components to their face-to-face classes to offer students the opportunity to communicate with speakers of the language, whether native or non-native. Since the evolution of networks, computers can offer foreign language (FL) learners more than drills: "they can be a medium of real communication in the target language, including composing and exchanging messages with other students in the classroom or around the world" (Oxford, 1990, p.79).

Online text chat appeared as early as Internet came to existence. As text chat is the most simple and easy tool, there are many text chat platforms available, and the most popular text chat platforms include: web (java or php) text chat rooms, Internet Relay Chat (IRC), and MUD or MOO and Messengers (AOL, MSN, Yahoo). There have been several studies using the Internet to link second language learners with native speakers or other learners by web or IRC text chat (Skinner & Audtin, 1999; Blake, 2000; Smith, 2004), and by MOO text chat (Peterson 2001; Schwienhorst, 2004). While some studies investigate the text chat logs by discourse analysis or Interaction Hypothesis and negation of meaning, others focus on learners' motivations or participation. No matter what target languages they study, most studies have found some positive attitudes towards text chat rooms for language learning, and confirmed that chat room can be an accessible environment for language practice especially for learners who do not live in target language –speaking areas (Blake, 2000). Indeed, "CMC in the L2 classroom may be an extremely useful device for facilitating a focus on form because it allows us to combine the learner-centered interactional benefits provided by CMC with those offered by those communicative tasks found to enhance interaction and negotiation" (Smith, 2004,p.365).

E-mail, a form of (CMC), has been called "the mother of all Internet applications"(Warschauer, and Meloni, 2000). Because of the nature of e-mail, FL learners do not have to be in a specific classroom at a particular time of day in order to communicate with others in the target language. They can log in and write e-mail from the comfort of their own room, from a public library or from a cyber-cafe, and these spatial possibilities increase the amount of time they can spend both composing and reading in the target language in a communicative context. Rankin (1997) notes that the additional interaction in the target language provides FL learners with more input than they would be able to expect from class time, which typically amounts to not more than four hours per week in most high school or college settings. The researcher is referring to synchronous communication tools, more commonly known as chat platforms. Chats are synchronic communicative spaces which are incorporated into online activities, especially in EFL/ESL courses due to the possibilities to interact with native and non-native speakers of the L2. Chat brings us the live, real time contact and interaction with and among colleagues and students, which in turn, enhances discussion, interaction and collaboration.

Chat service providers are increasing on the Internet and there are many online tools or software that offers chat rooms. The researcher will focus on the potential of chat as a language learning tool on the different ways it can be used. "Chat is a two-way form of computer-mediated communication (CMC), a dialogue in real time as we keyboard or speak our words and an online conversation between two or more people" (Almeida d'Eça, 2002). This definition contains all the elements that describe the nature and characteristics of chat which, in turn, make them a great tool for language learning especially in the context of English as a Foreign Language (EFL). A review of teachers' use of different chat platforms reveals that Messengers are the most widely used and popular chat tools because of their usefulness and friendly interface. All messengers (AOL, MSN, Yahoo) and other chat software provide the basic text chat. Yahoo Messenger is a popular chat platform for educational purposes. It allows for text and voice (and even web cam if desired) to be used whether one-to-one or in a conference (a group of people who get together in a single virtual space online). Besides its human and empathetic qualities, it adds more reality and life to the interaction.

Yahoo Messenger is what we can call the '4 in 1 tool': a single application that allows practice, reinforcement and consolidation with minimal fuss of the four basic skills: reading, writing, listening and speaking. It is possible to have students working in pairs or in larger groups. As each user can have up to five different conferences running at

the same time, the teacher/moderator can have five groups of students working simultaneously and monitor each group by telecommunicating from one to the other as would be done in a traditional classroom. An additional and invaluable feature is the possibility of configuring Yahoo Messenger to automatically save all text chats and conferences, thus allowing students, teachers and moderators to go back to the log and carry out different activities. While a student can look in parts that s/he did not follow completely, revise a topic for further discussion, or ask for clarifications, the teacher can evaluate the participation of the students, ask for some sort of correction exercise or a (written or oral) report of what happened. Besides, integrating chat in EFL/ESL contexts can be powerfully motivating and bring enormous excitement to what is generally a difficult process - learning a language. Using chat means learning the target language by interacting with people from the real world, in real time (often across several time zones) and using language of the real world whether for communicating by native or nonnative speakers. Several characteristics of chat which may be taken advantage of to enhance language learning are as follows:

1- Interaction with real audiences (those who listen in order to get the message and not its form).
2- Receive input and produce output
3- Immediate feedback from interlocutors.
4- No restrictions regarding location.
5- Opportunity for negotiation of meaning.
6- Collaborative learning towards knowledge construction.
7- Opportunity for intake (what the language learner retains from the input received) through "language noticing" (A hypothesis of second language acquisition which states that for language to take place, students should be aware of what they learn, vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, etc.).
8- Chat logs (written transcription of chat) allowing for further analysis of conversation and adding coherence to the different threads of the conversation.

Most of these aspects have been considered by different hypotheses of second language acquisition: the input hypothesis (Krashen, 1985); the output hypothesis (Swain, 1985, 1993); the interaction hypothesis (Long, 1985); the intake hypothesis (Schmidt; 1990), among others. The negotiation of meaning through interaction and modification of input has also been mentioned as a factor facilitating language learning (Long, 1985, 1996). More recently, Egbert, Chao & Hanson-Smith (1999) have discussed eight conditions for optimal language learning environments, most of which can be fostered in chat: opportunities for interaction and negotiation of meaning, interaction with authentic audience in the target language, students' involvement in authentic tasks, exposure to and encouragement to produce varied and creative language, feedback, meta-cognitive guidance, and an ideal anxiety or stress level.

David Crystal in *Language and the Internet* (2002) talks about the use of chat groups and the influence they have on English learners. Although Crystal oversimplifies the use of chatting by limiting this "tool" to only group settings, individual learners now can go on-line, in the comfort of their home, and chat with a native speaker, one-on-one, without the fear of face to-face engagement. This breaking down the walls of fear can do so much to enhance not only the foreign language ability of the learner, but also his or her knowledge of the target language culture and even possibly some social aspects. In addition, while chatting, the time to think in the second language is drastically minimized and, therefore, the use of translation is lessened. In other words, second language learners are likely to spend less time translating words or phrases from their first language or mixing their first and second language together. This will help them achieve the goal of many second language learners, and that is to begin to think automatically in that second language, vastly improving their response time. This, in addition to modern day E-pals (E-mail exchanges with native speakers), will greatly enhance the reading, writing, grammar, and cultural familiarity of the learner.

The Importance of Vocabulary Acquisition in L2 Learning
Research has shown that vocabulary is the building block of all language skills: reading, listening, writing, and speaking. It has also demonstrated the importance of explicit instruction and learning in helping students to acquire vocabulary of a foreign language (Nation, 2001).

Vermeer (1992, cited in Laufer, 1997) echoed the same point of view that "Knowing words is the key to understanding and being understood. The bulk of learning a new language consists of learning new words, and grammatical knowledge does not make up for a great proficiency in a language" (p. 147). On the other hand, studies indicate that it is insufficient and ineffective to simply rely on incidental learning to acquire L2 vocabulary (Haynes & Baker, 1993; Nation, 2001; Schmitt, 1998). Knowing a word is not as simple as merely understanding its facial meaning. Complete word knowledge involves the form, the meaning, and the uses. It takes time and multiple exposures to acquire the different aspects of word knowledge receptively and productively (Nation, 2001).

The prominent role of vocabulary knowledge in foreign language learning has been increasingly recognized (Rodriguez & Sadoski, 2000). Literacy experts share the belief that vocabulary knowledge and the ability to comprehend text are inextricably linked so that the breadth and depth of a student's vocabulary is a key predictor of his or her ability to understand a wide range of texts (e.g., Anderson & Freebody, 1981). This is true for both native speakers (L1) of English and second language (L2) learners (Coady, 1993). In recent years the development of computer-assisted language learning has created the need and opportunity for investigating the effects of multimedia on vocabulary acquisition. Thus far, numerous studies (Brett, 1998; Chun & Plass, 1996; Davis &Lyman-Hager, 1997; Laufer & Hill, 2000; Lyman-Hager & Davis, 1996; Plass, Chun, Mayer, & Leutner, 1998) have shown that computerized media and a multimedia environment can be helpful for learning foreign language vocabulary.

Statement of the problem
It seems that Iranian EFL learners lag behind in retention of vocabulary. This is something evident for the researcher since he has been involved in the profession with such students for a long time. The fact is that almost all family of words are present in TEFL books. But, due to shortage of interaction between teaching materials and the learner, vocabulary items are not well recalled on the part of the learners. Following the guidelines of interaction in language teaching, it seems that online interaction through chat can be a big help to EFL learners to recall the needed vocabulary on time. To make sure, the researcher is going to see the difference between performance of the students who are taught vocabulary by means of chat in comparison with those who are taught by traditional methods.

RESEARCH QUESTION
Regarding the mentioned problem the following question is raised:
Does teaching by means of chat have any significant effect on vocabulary retention of English language (EFL) learners?

RESEARCH HYPOTHESES
According to the question cited above, the study particularly aims at testing the following null hypothesis:
Teaching vocabulary by means of chat does not have any significant effect on vocabulary retention of EFL learners?

METHODOLOGY
Design
Since I wanted to know the impact of teaching by means of chat on vocabulary retention of pre-university students and I included control and experimental group with post-test, the design used was *Post Test Only Control Group Design*. The design of the study is the one that most classroom teachers conduct (Hatch &Farhady, 1981). Both the experimental and control groups received post-test, but the experimental group received the treatment included teaching vocabulary through chat while the control group were taught the same vocabulary materials by means of paper and traditional representation of the new vocabulary by some techniques such as fill in the gaps, matching and making sentences contained the new vocabulary. The schematic representation of the design is:

G1	random	X	Post test
G2	random	…..	Post test

In this design, initial differences between the groups are controlled for by the random selection and random assignment of the students.

Participants
The participants in the research project were 60 pre- university students whose age was from 17 to 18 years. The participants had passed English Book One for pre-university level and their attained marks on that exam were ranged between 12 and 20. A placement test (Allen, 1992) was given to 200 pre-university students in Ghasre- Shirin pre-

IJLLALW

university centres. Out of the given population, 60 with approximately the same scores were selected and randomly assigned to two groups of 30 students. One group was given the treatment over a six-month period and the other was taught based on the traditional modes of teaching vocabulary. After the treatment period had been completed, a post-test (achievement) test was administered to both groups. The achievement test underwent a pilot study to ensure for validity and reliability of the test. The reliability was reported to be .80. To neutralize possible sex effect, care was taken to choose half of the participants from female and the other half from male sex. To neutralize the possible background and cognitive effect, serious care was taken to choose from students with all educational backgrounds (Natural Science, Mathematics, and Humanities). The treatment started from 15th of March 2009 and ended in 30th of August 2009.

Materials
Regarding the tasks to be performed, each subject was required to perform on the following tasks:
  a. To answer the placement test questions (Allen, 1992)**.**
  b. For the control group, to participate in classes held regarding traditional vocabulary-teaching methods and for the experimental group, to participate in classes held regarding teaching vocabulary by means of chat.
  c. To answer 28 multiple choice items designed for the post test at the end of the experiment by both experimental and control groups.

Instruments
The instrument used was 28 multiple-choice vocabulary items depicted from the book "English from Pre-university Student". The vocabulary items were selected from the second half of the book which consists of four units. The time dedicated was half an hour.

The instruction given to the students at the beginning of the post-test was as follows: *Choose the best alternative. There is just one correct alternative. You have 30 minutes time to complete the test.* Multiple choice items are a common method of assessing learner's comprehension abilities and are widely used in standardized tests such as TOEFL, IELTS and so on. As Wolf (1993) puts it, it is both familiar for the students and easy for the researchers to score. However, Bernhardt (1991) maintained that, such types of tests are not a pure measure of a learner's comprehension, since they are not often passage dependant i.e. the reader does not always need to read a passage to choose the correct answer. To reduce the effect of these problems, Wolf (1991) wrote questions that met the following two criteria: first all the items are context dependant, and second some of the items require the reader to make inferences. Of course, one more point to add is that all distracters in the multiple choice items were plausible in order to prohibit the participants from immediately disregarding responses. However, the researcher tried to create the multiple choice questions in a way that test takers would not be able to determine the correct responses by looking at the other questions on the page. For each multiple choice item, three possible responses were created: one correct and two distracters.

Procedure
During late Esfand 1387 (March, 2009), and in one day, the participants were given the placement test (Allen, 1992) one morning before they had any other activity requiring thinking. Then, during the treatment time which took roughly 6 months time, English Book Two for Pre-University students which includes four lessons was taught. The class were held one session a week and the class time was two hours for both experimental and control group. The control group participated in two more sessions of classes for vocabulary retention in traditional ways while experimental group had two sessions of vocabulary retention by means of chartroom interaction under the supervision of the instructor. They were introduced to a virtual electronic environment in which they could interact with each other by applying the new vocabulary in their practices. During the phase of test administration (post-test) which was in late Shahrivar (late August), with roughly 6 months interval, the participants were given 28 multiple choice items with varying difficulty levels (easy, average, and difficult) that measured vocabulary retention of the participants.

Scoring
Since the test was multiple-choice, there was fortunately, no concern with regard to reliability or validity of the way the answers were scored. Each question had one point.

Findings
1-For comparing the result of the scores gained from the post-test,

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t-test was used. As Hatch and Farhady (1981) put it, the t-test is an excellent statistical procedure to use in comparing two means. The results for comparing means of experimental and control groups regarding easy, average, and difficult questions, as well as sex ,as a probable intervening variable, is demonstrated below.

Table 1: The table of mean distribution of easy questions scores in female student

	groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	P_value / T test result
Post test	control	15	35.31	24.48	.098
	experimental	15	51.42	26.98	
difference	control	15	9.76	3.08	.232
	experimental	15	12.31	7.39	
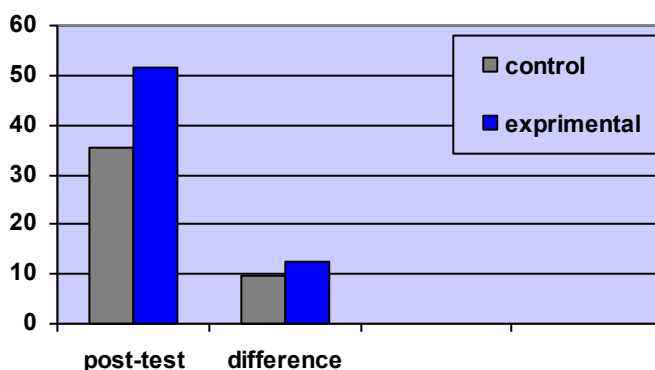
Figure 1: Easy questions scores in female student

Table 1, that is related to the result of simple question scores of female students, shows that there is a difference, although not significant enough to be meaningful, between control and experimental groups, Control group 9.76 $\pm$3.08 and experimental group 12.31$\pm$7.39 . Although the difference is not significant enough, it shows that, even regarding easy vocabulary which is probably easy because of their high frequency, there is difference between performance of control and experimental group to some degree.

Table 2: Table of mean distribution of easy questions score in male students

	groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	P_value / T test result
Post-test	control	15	64.95	22.29	.211
	experimental	15	54.11	24.06	
difference	control	15	8.07	5.63	.788
	experimental	15	8.78	8.39	
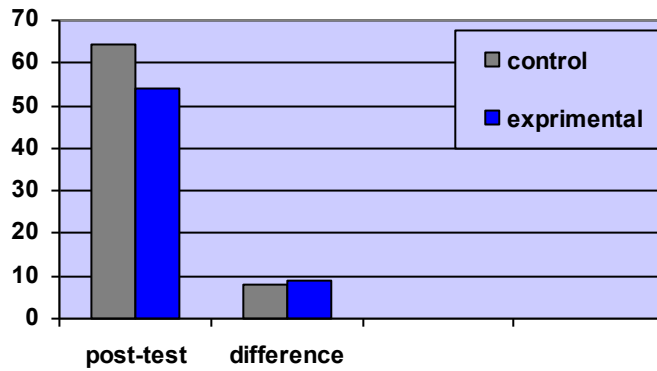
Figure 2: Easy questions score in male students

Table 2 that is related to the result of simple question scores of male students shows that there is a difference, although not significant enough to be meaningful, between control and experimental groups, Control group 8.07$\pm$ 5.63and experimental group 8.78$\pm$8.39. Although the difference is not significant enough, it shows that, even regarding easy vocabularies which are probably easy because of their high frequency, there is difference between performance of control and experimental group to some degree.

Table 3: The table of mean distribution of easy questions score in male and female students

	groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	P_value
					T test result
Post-test	control	30	50.13	27.50	0.07
	experimental	30	52.76	25.15	
difference	control	30	8.91	4.54	0.34
	experimental	30	10.54	7.98	

Figure 3: Easy questions score in male and female students

Table 3 that is related to the result of simple question scores of both female and male students shows that there is a difference, although not significant enough to be meaningful, between control and experimental groups, Control group 8.91$\pm$4.54 and experimental group10.54$\pm$7.98. However, statistically, the difference is not meaningful at the level of p> 0/05 (p=0.34).

Table 4: Table of mean distribution of average questions score in female students

groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	P.value

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
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					T test result
Post-test	control	15	25.20	23.38	.016
	experimental	15	47.72	24.93	
difference	control	15	3.19	2.13	P<0.001
	experimental	15	10.83	5.78	

Figure 4: Average questions score in female students

As we can see in table 4, with regard to female students, there is a significant difference between the mean of two groups regarding average questions, control group 3.19+ 2.13 and experimental group 10.83 + 5.78. Statistically this difference is meaningful enough at the level of (p<0.001),which shows that in average questions, the effect of chat on teaching vocabulary is more significant than that of other traditional methods being at present used by teachers in the classrooms.

Table 5: Table of mean distribution of average questions score in male students

	groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	P_value T test result
Post-test	control	15	62.13	22.49	.690
	experimental	15	58.67	24.61	
difference	control	15	4.13	5.77	.002
	experimental	15	11.55	6.26	
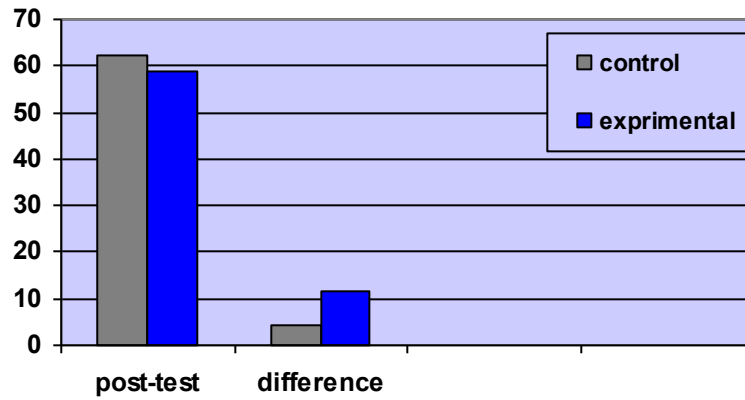
Figure 5: Average questions score in male students

As we can see in table 5, with regard to male students, there is a significant difference between the mean of two groups regarding average questions, control group4.13+5.77 and experimental group11.55+6.26. Statistically this difference is meaningful enough at the level of (p<0.001),which shows that in average questions, the effect of chat on teaching vocabulary is more significant than that of other traditional methods being at present used by teachers in the classrooms.

Table 6: Table of mean distribution of average questions score in male and female students

	groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	P_value T test result
Post-test	control	30	43.67	29.34	0.018
	experimental	30	53.19	24.97	
difference	control	30	3.67	4.30	P<0.001
	experimental	30	11.19	5.93	
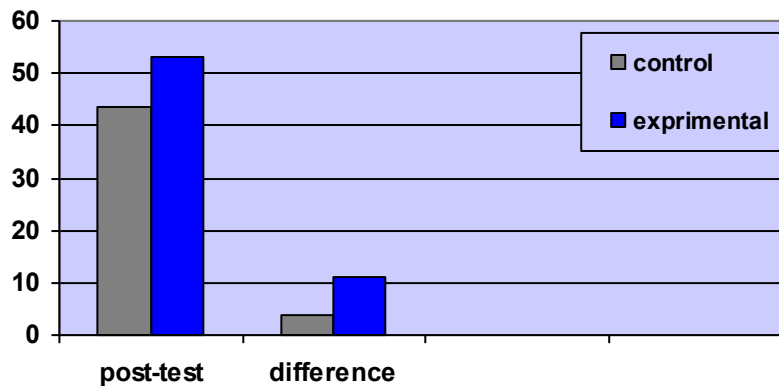
Figure 6: Average questions score in male and female students

As we can see in table 6, regardless of gender, there is a significant difference between the mean of two groups regarding average questions, control group 30.67+4.30 and experimental group 11.19+5.93. Statistically this difference is meaningful enough at the level of (p<0.001), which shows that in average questions, the effect of chat on teaching vocabulary, regardless of gender, is more significant than that of other traditional methods being at present used by teachers in the classrooms.

Table 7: Table of mean distribution of difficult questions score in female students

	groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	P_value

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 5 (3), March 2014   **EISSN: 2289-2737**
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					T test result
Post-test	control	15	21.06	23.58	.052
	experimental	15	38.13	22.55	
difference	control	15	7.45	5.63	p<0.001
	experimental	15	15.83	7.18	

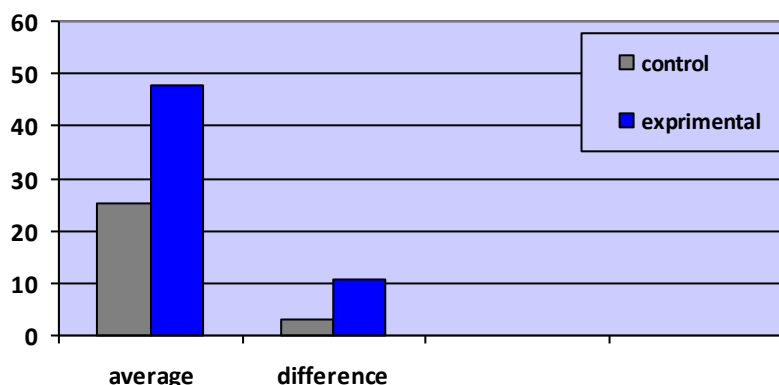*Figure 7: Difficult questions score in female students*

As we can see in table 7, regarding female students, there is a significant difference between the mean of two groups regarding difficult questions, control group 7.45+5.36 and experimental group 15.83+7.18. Statistically this difference is meaningful enough at the level of (p<0.001),which shows that in difficult questions, the effect of chat on teaching vocabulary, with regard to female students, is more significant than that of other traditional methods being at present used by teachers in the classrooms.

Table 8: Table of mean distribution of difficult questions score in male students

|	groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	P_value T test result
Post-test	control	15	40.06	21.80	.736
	experimental	15	43.13	27.16	
difference	control	15	3.92	3.23	P<0.001
	experimental	15	20.11	6.36	

Figure 8: Difficult questions score in male students

As we can see in table 8, regarding male students, there is a significant difference between the mean of two groups regarding difficult questions, control group 3.92+3.23 and experimental group 20.11+6.36. Statistically this difference is meaningful enough at the level of (p<0.001), which shows that in difficult questions, the effect of chat on teaching vocabulary, with regard to male students, is more significant than that of other traditional methods being at present used by teachers in the classrooms.

Table 9: The table of mean distribution of difficult questions scores in male and female students

	groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	P_value T test result
Post-test	control	30	30.56	24.31	0.017
	experimental	30	40.63	24.66	
difference	control	30	5.70	4.85	P<0.001
	experimental	30	17.97	7.02	

Figure 9: Difficult questions scores in male and female students

As we can see in table 9, regarding both female and male students, there is a significant difference between the mean of two groups regarding difficult questions, control group 5.70+4.85 and experimental group 17.97+7.02. Statistically this difference is meaningful enough at the level of (p<0.001),which shows that in difficult questions, the effect of chat on teaching vocabulary, regardless of gender, is more significant than that of other traditional methods being at present used by teachers in the classrooms.

Table 10: Table of mean distribution of all types of questions score in female students

groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	P_value

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 5 (3), March 2014   **EISSN: 2289-2737**
www.ijllalw.org   **ISSN: 2289-3245**

					T test result
Post-test	control	15	27.19	17.44	.013
	experimental	15	45.75	20.68	
difference	control	15	6.31	2.78	P<0.001
	experimental	15	13.29	5.35	
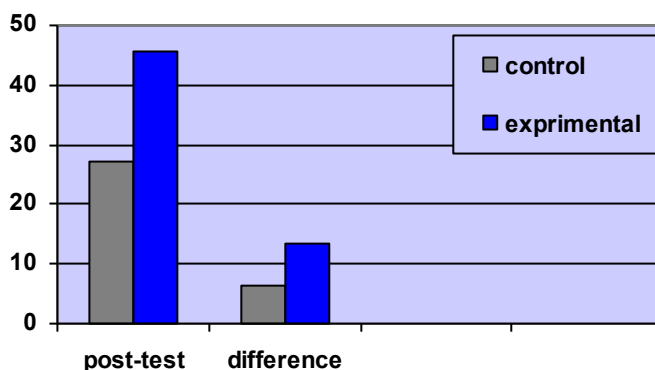
Figure 10: All types of questions score in female students
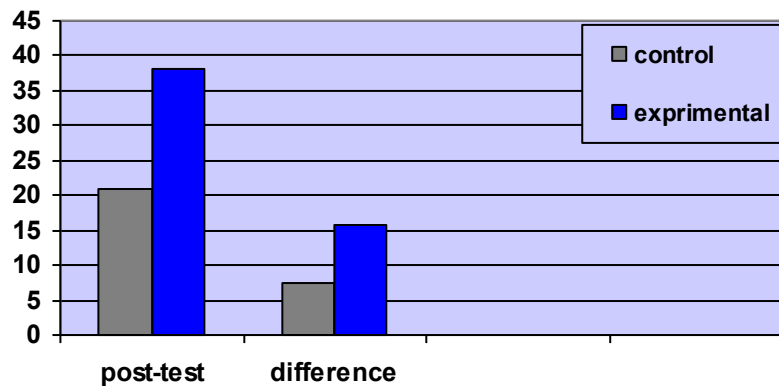
Table 10 shows total t-test result of easy, average, and difficult questions regarding female students. As we can see in table 10, regarding female students, there is a significant difference between the mean of two groups, control group 6.31±2.78 and experimental group 13.29±5.35. Statistically this difference is meaningful enough at the level of (p<0.001), which shows that in all types of questions(easy, average, and difficult), the effect of chat on teaching vocabulary, regarding female students, is more significant than that of other traditional methods being at present used by teachers in the classrooms.

Table 11: Table of mean distribution of all type questions score in male students

					P_value
	groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	T test result
Post-test	control	15	55.71	20.32	.640
	experimental	15	51.96	23.00	
difference	control	15	4.12	2.79	P<0.001
	experimental	15	12.52	5.42	

IJLLALW
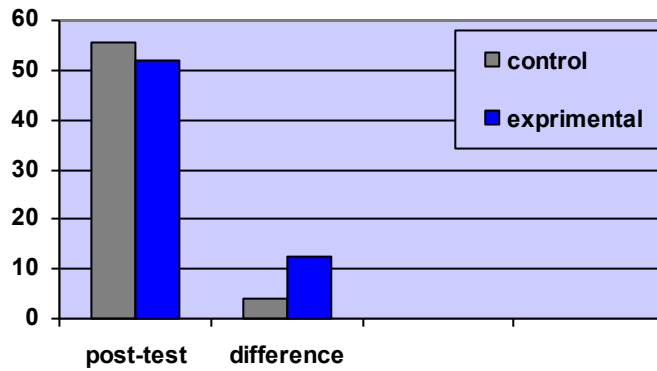
Figure 11: All type questions score in male students
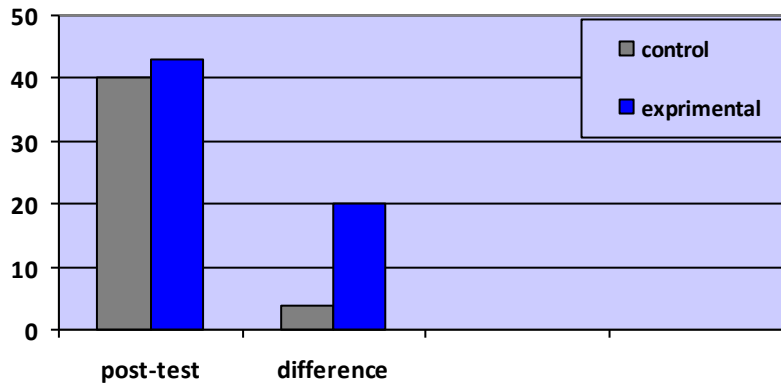
Table 11 shows total t-test result of easy, average, and difficult questions regarding male students. As we can see in table 11, regarding male students, there is a significant difference between the mean of two groups, control group 4.12±2.79 and experimental group 12.52±5.42. Statistically this difference is meaningful enough at the level of (p<0.001), which shows that in all types of questions(easy, average, and difficult), the effect of chat on teaching vocabulary, regarding male students, is more significant than that of other traditional methods being at present used by teachers in the classrooms.

Table 12: Table of mean distribution of all type questions score in male and female students

	groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	P_value
					T test result
Post-test	control	30	41.45	23.59	.211
	experimental	30	48.86	21.72	
difference	control	30	5.22	2.96	P<0.001
	experimental	30	12.91	5.31	
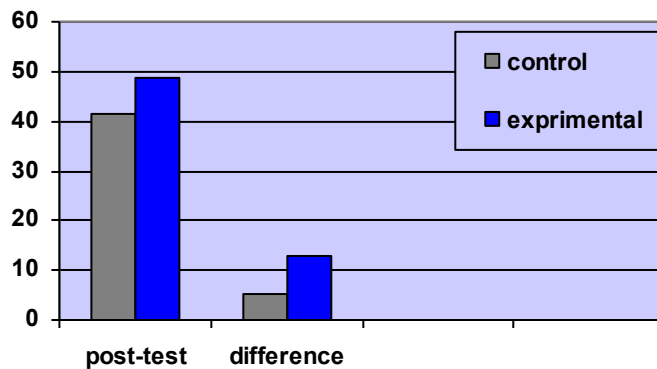
Figure 12: All type questions score in male and female students
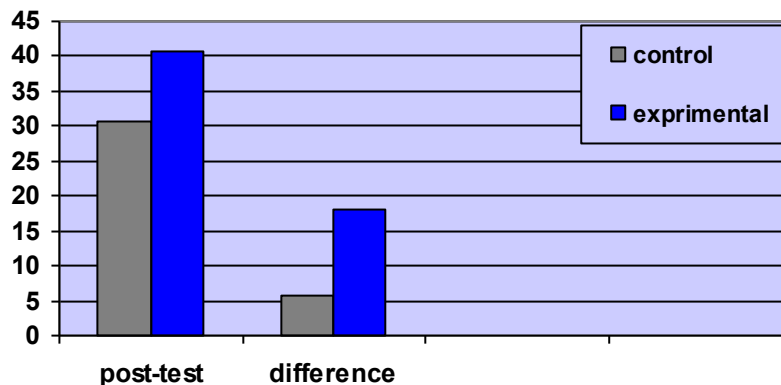
Table 12 shows total t-test result of easy, average, and difficult questions regarding both female and male students. As we can see in table 12, regarding both female and male students, there is a significant difference between the mean of two groups, control group 5.22±2.96 and experimental group 12.91±5.31. Statistically this difference is meaningful enough at the level of (p<0.05), which shows that in all types of questions(easy, average, and difficult),

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the effect of chat on teaching vocabulary, regarding both female and male students, is more significant than that of other traditional methods being at present used by teachers in the classrooms.
The results of the experiments reported provide us with some interesting insights.

Firstly, the results of t- test reported with regard to control groups versus experimental groups seem less noticeable about easy questions. (Table 13)

Table 13: Table of mean distribution of easy questions score in male and female students

	groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	P_value T test result
Post-test	control	30	50.13	27.50	0.07
	experimental	30	52.76	25.15	
difference	control	30	8.91	4.54	0.34
	experimental	30	10.54	7.98	
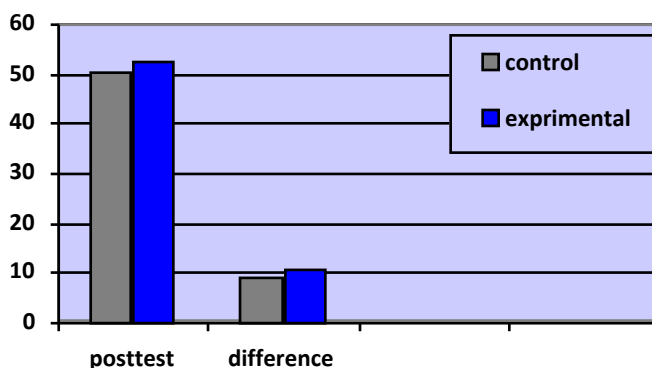
Figure 13: questions score in male and female students

As table 13 Indicates there is a slight difference between mean of control and experimental groups regarding easy questions, control group 8.91+4.54 and experimental group 10.54+7.98. But statistically the difference is not significant enough to be meaningful at the level of p> 0/05. (p=0.34). The results shows that teaching vocabulary through chat is some how more effective than other traditional methods to a little degree, which is not significant enough to be regarded as meaningful. But with a quick glance at table 13, we can see that, although the difference between control and experimental group is not of significance, there seems to be a little difference p= 0.34 which shows that concerning easy vocabulary (high-frequency words), the use of chat is not so practical in comparison with other traditional methods. With regard to average questions, a quick look at the table 14 clarifies some interesting points.

Table 14: Table of mean distribution of average questions score in male and female students

	groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	P_value T test result
Post-test	control	30	43.67	29.34	0.018
	experimental	30	53.19	24.97	
difference	control	30	3.67	4.30	P<0.001
	experimental	30	11.19	5.93	

229
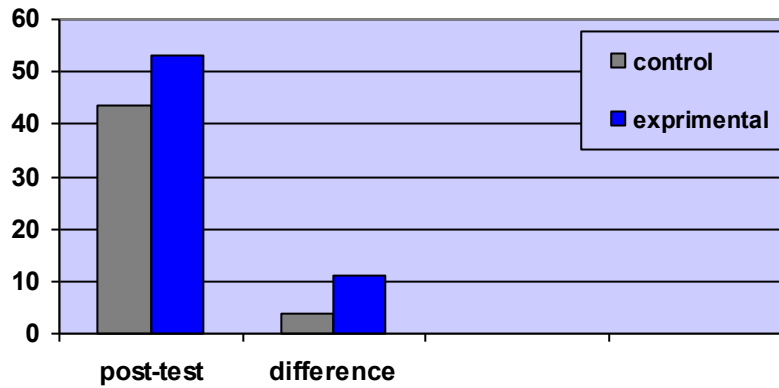
Figure 14: Average questions score in male and female students

The table analyzes the result of average questions of two groups regardless of gender. As table 14 indicates there is a significant difference between mean of control and experimental groups regarding average questions, control group 3.67±4.30 and experimental group 11.19±5.93. Statistically, the difference is significant enough to be meaningful at the level of p<0.001. The results show that teaching vocabulary through chat is noticeably more effective than other traditional methods.

Now, having a look at table for difficult questions (table 15), some interesting insight could be gained.

Table 15: Table of mean distribution of difficult questions scores in male and female students

	groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	P_value T test result
Post-test	control	30	30.56	24.31	0.117
	experimental	30	40.63	24.66	
difference	control	30	5.70	4.85	P<0.001
	experimental	30	17.97	7.02	
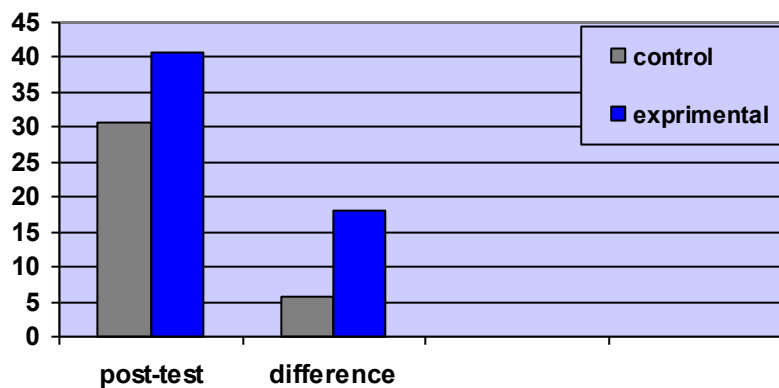
Figure 15: Difficult questions scores in male and female students

The table analyzes the result of difficult questions of two groups regardless of gender As table 15 indicates there is a significant difference between mean of control group 5.70±4.85 and experimental group17.97±7.02 regarding difficult questions. Statistically, the difference is significant enough to be meaningful at the level of p< 0.001. The results show that teaching vocabulary through chat is noticeably more effective than other traditional methods.

Having a perfunctory look at tables 13, 14, and 15 for easy, average, and difficult questions respectively, we can see that the effect of using chat on vocabulary retention of pre-university students is gradable. That is, the more questions are difficult, the more there is effect from part of teaching through chat on vocabulary retention of pre-

university students. Here, the statistical results are a clear indicator of the idea of Social Interaction (Vygotsky) which put emphasizes on interactive factors as consolidating factors for learning new items.

CONCLUSION

The results of the experiment indicate that the extent of teaching vocabulary through chat has a significant effect on vocabulary retention of Pre-University students. Significant difference between t-values of easy, average, and difficult questions is a good indicator of this fact. But one must not forget the fact that, the use of chat has an effect of gradability with regard to the level of difficulty of the questions. Having a look at the given questions, one can see that the more the words are frequent, the easier for the students they are to answer them. This in turn is the indicator of the fact that the more students have interaction with the words, the more they are easily remembered. So, in EFL contexts like Iran , where there is almost little contact with English language, chat could be an effective way for the learners to improve their retention regarding the words that are not that frequently brought to the attention of the learners.

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A SWOT ANALYSIS OF THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL ENGLISH PROGRAM:
A GROUNDED THEORY APPROACH

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ABSTRACT
Inspired by the researchers' own experiences involving and teaching in junior high school English program in Iran, this study aims at evaluating the program. To fulfill the objectives, the study benefits from SWOT (Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats) analysis to present an overall picture of the program. Twenty experienced teachers and members of educational groups involved in the program were selected based on purposive sampling who were supposed to be representative of the accessible population. They were interviewed and their views about the program were meticulously recorded. Using Grounded Theory approach, the data were codified in three phases of open, axial and selective coding. The codified data were the SWOT of the program that was presented in a number of Tables. The interpreted results were presented in some Graphs and Tables, too. The researchers concluded that the program more suffers from weaknesses and is threatened by several threats than it enjoys the strengths or takes advantage of the opportunities. To improve the program, the stakeholders and users of the program should take advantage of the strengths, compensate for weaknesses, avoid threats and tap on the opportunities. For this to be fulfilled, several strategies and solutions are available, a sample of which is presented at the end of the study.

INTRODUCTION
Although many studies have been done about the testing and evaluation of language students, few have dealt with the much broader issue of measuring the success of language programs. So, it is seen that most educational change initiatives implement a program and claim results on the basis of test scores alone. Therefore, despite the recognized and outstanding importance of junior high school's (officially known as "guidance school" in Iran) language program and spending so much thought, time, money and energy on teaching English in this program, no thorough, systematic, and in-depth investigation has been done on it to provide us with a clear picture of the program. As such, the major concern of this study is a SWOT (Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats) analysis of the junior high school program since this program is the starting point in English learning. Moreover, it is of paramount importance in creating and preserving students' motivation to learn English. Therefore, its strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats are well worth studying and investigating.

BACKGROUND
The junior high school language program is reputed as inefficient by most teachers and parents. High school teachers usually complain about students' inability to learn English and their lack of motivation. Students themselves are also not satisfied with the quality and quantity of their learning, most of them remaining uninterested in English and some even hating it even though it may seem that they had been quite interested at the outset (see, for example, Razmjoo & Riazi, 2006a & 2006b; Yarmohammadi,2000;Rashidi, 1995;Rahimi, 1996;Farhady, 2000).
The present study tries to be more in line with recent trends of language program evaluation, that is, to move from extrinsically motivated and strictly experimental approach to program evaluation. Rather than focusing on the extending the scope of the study through a quantitative approach, taping on a qualitative approach it is tried to engage in a in-depth analysis of the issues that lie in junior high school English program in Iran. Besides, based on the studies reviewed, this topic seems worth investigating.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

Using grounded theory, this study attempts to evaluate Iran's junior high school English program regarding the four variables, namely strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats, through investigating the ideas and viewpoints of English teachers who act as the members of educational groups in Fars Education Organization and the four educational districts (Shiraz, Iran). Based on the information obtained, the researchers are going to present a clear picture of the status quo of the program and also the potential opportunities and threats.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1. What are the strengths of the junior school English language program in Iran?
2. What are the weaknesses of the junior school English language program in Iran?
3. What are the opportunities of the junior school English language program in Iran?
4. What are the threats of the junior school English language program in Iran?

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The researcher benefits from Strauss and Corbin's (1998) model which indicates that the heart of data analysis in grounded theory is based on three types of coding procedures, namely, open, axial, and selective.

1. Open coding is the part of the analysis concerned with identifying, naming, categorizing and describing phenomena found in the interview or text. Open coding is achieved by examining the transcripts by line, by sentence, or by paragraph, and sometimes by scanning the entire document.
2. Axial coding is defined as "the process of relating categories to their subcategories . . . linking a category at the level of properties and dimensions" (p. 123).
3. Selective coding is the process of selecting the central or core category, systematically relating it to other categories, validating those relationships, and filling in categories that need further refinement.

METHODOLOGY

This section introduces the participants, instrument, and data collection and analysis procedures.

Participants

The participants of this study were 20 English teachers and members of the education group who had enough experience (at least 10 years) in teaching English in junior high school and had a comprehensive understanding of the program. Using a purposive sampling, 5 participants from each district were selected from the four educational districts of Shiraz city and two other cities. These teachers were believed to be representative of the population since they had enough experience and had compressive understanding of the program.

Instruments

The instrument utilized in this study was interview which was the primary method of data collection in the grounded theory (Ary *et al*., 2006). They were interviewed and their views about the junior high school English program were the core theme in the interviews. They talked about their experiences in teaching this program. They commented on different variables of the program such as the present conditions o f the program; that is, its strengths and weaknesses and the future of the program; that is, the opportunities and threats of the program.

Procedures

The interviews were designed in order to acquaint the participants (members of the English educational group) with the nature of the study, to establish rapport, to set a context for SWOT analysis, and then to obtain the depth and details of the participants' experiences. Their viewpoints on the four criteria were recorded for further analysis. The interviewees had been acquainted with the interview questions beforehand, in order for them to have enough time to reflect on the questions and organize their thoughts. They were encouraged to take notes as a guideline in the interview. The interview went on until the facts mentioned became repetitive and nothing was added to the already pointed factors. At this point, the researcher stopped interviewing and started the next phase that was data analysis. The participants were interviewed individually and their views on the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats of the junior high school English program in Iran were sought. Their views were voice recorded. The recorded data were transcribed for further analysis according to grounded theory approach.

Securing reliability and validity

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According to Ary, *et al*. (2006, p. 504), the standards of rigor in qualitative study are credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability. So a qualitative study has to follow these to be acceptable.

In order to secure credibility, two strategies suggested by Ary *et al*. (2006) were employed in this study. The first one was member check. At the end of the data collection phase, the data gathered, both the transcribed and video recorded data were given back to the participants for revision and correction if there was any misunderstood point. The second strategy was low-inference descriptions. This strategy means using verbatim or direct quotation in order to help the readers experience the participants' world.

The second rigor of qualitative study considered in this study was dependability The strategy used for this factor to be secured was "documentation" which means everything was meticulously documented for further reference and work.

Data Analysis

As stated before the researcher benefits from Strauss and Corbin's (1998) grounded theory which is based on three types of coding procedures, namely, open, axial, and selective.

The participants' comments were first transcribed. Then the transcribed data was codified according to the above mentioned coding strategy. At first, the data was codified as open coding in order to come to shared concepts and to form categories.

After that, the categories obtained were further worked on and the similar concepts were put together to form larger categories. At the end, the categories were attributed to more comprehensive categories known as 'themes'.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

According to Maykut and Morehouse (1994), the data analysis is the heart of qualitative research and something that most distinguishes qualitative from quantitative research.

Codification of the Data

After getting familiar with the data, the researcher coded the data based on the three steps in the grounded approach theory namely, *open coding, axial coding,* and *selective coding* (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Accordingly, these steps are referred to as *pieces of data, categories* and *themes* by Ary, *et al*. (2006). This section is arranged according to the steps mentioned in grounded approach theory.

Step 1: Open Coding: In this stage the data were read and reread several time and the units of meanings, events, points, ideas, behavior, etc, that appeared regularly and mentioned repeatedly by a majority of participants were marked or labeled. The researchers came to very wide range codes in this step that some were reduced later.

Step 2: Axial Coding: Strauss and Corbin (1998) described axial coding as "the process of relating categories to their subcategories . . . linking a category at the level of properties and dimensions" (p. 123). The open coding leads to development of some *categories* some of which changed later. The pieces of data on the same topic were brought together and a category was formed.

In this study, several categories came to surface. Here the researchers are going to present each category with some pieces of the participants' comments as verbatim to make the reader familiar with the participants' ideas and world.

The first category that appeared to be salient in the participants' statements was the *teachers*. Several points were repeatedly mentioned by the participants about the teachers' work, views, activities, and so on.

One of the participants stated that:
  "The teachers teaching at junior high school mostly make good relationship with the students. They usually get along with the students easily. And students most of the time love their English teacher."
  "Teachers usually have common characteristics like patience, sympathy, etc. that make teaching

The second category that appeared after marking the pieces of data was facts concerning *students* of junior high school as one of the most important elements in the educational system. Since students have to learn English as a foreign language, they do not have contact with people speaking English. In addition, most are monolingual.

IJLLALW

Therefore, they do not understand the use of learning a foreign language. One of the teachers teaching over 20 years said that:

"Almost there hasn't been a single day not hearing a student nagging: "why should I learn English? It's of no use at all. Why don't foreign learn Farsi at their school but I have to learn English?" and I am bored explaining that "English is an international language and we learn it to be able to communicate with the world and English is not any better than Farsi "and so on and so forth."

These pieces of evidence were part of the participants' ideas regarding the second category; that is, *students*, which emerged from the interview. The third category that emerged from linking the concepts and facts of the interview carried out about junior high school English program in Iran was teaching materials especially the books. In the interview done with the teachers and members of educational group of education ministry in Fars Education Organization as the participants, no strong evidence was found in support of the English textbook regarding their strong points. Inversely, a wide range of criticisms were mentioned.

The fourth category that showed up was *teaching methodology*; that is, facts regarding all aspects of teaching process activities in junior high school program. This category like others comprised criticism, applause, suggestion and other points. The participants' comments are as follows:

"Teachers of English in junior high schools do their job as a routine. So most of the teachers teach and act the same way no matter where they teach and what type their students are. They prefer to do the safe teaching rather risk trying different and new methods"

Another shared concept in the interview done with English teachers of junior high school program was *context*; that is, facts about the whole teaching condition, from physical school condition facilities, time available to human resources available like parents, school principals, etc.

So, *students*, *teachers*, *textbooks*, *teaching methodology* and *context* are the categories that emerged from the codification and searching the shared features.

Step 3: **Selective Coding**: The last phase in codification of data is selective coding; that is, assigning the categories defined so far to larger category or as Ary *et al.* (2006) put it "themes".
In this study, the larger categorization that is considered for this phase is presented in the form of four more comprehensive concepts or themes, namely, strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats.

So selective coding yielded strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats of junior high school English program or briefly SWOT analysis of this program as the core category.
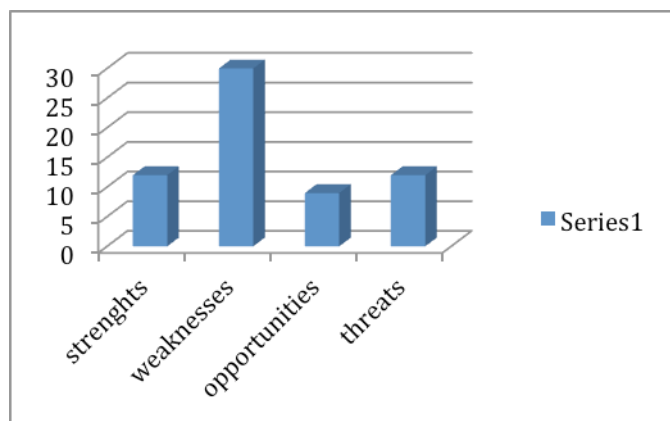
Figure 1:   *The Holistic View of the English Language Program in Iran Junior High Schools*

The steps taken – open, axial and selective coding- help to ensure the systematicity in the analysis. The objective is to come to a comprehensive picture of the status quo. The factors that were extracted can in each phase of analysis paved the way for the subsequent stage.

The categories identified in the last phase form the structure of the model. Inside them, there are the sub-components acting as the building blocks. Although each category stands by itself , however, they are intermingled and each affecting the other.

CONCLUSION

The results and the findings of the study enabled the researchers to answer the research questions of the study. The answers to the following questions are presented in separate Tables.

The study using Grounded theory came to the SWOT of the program; that is, strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats. Understanding the strengths, weaknesses, and opportunities of the program, especially of the category "teachers", "students" and "teaching methodology" can enrich teachers' understanding of the program and teach in a more efficient way and help the students to understand themselves better and become aware of their potential and weak points.

As indicated in the data analysis section, the textbooks of this program received no positive points as opportunities or strengths and were criticized heavily by the participants and several weak points and threats were mentioned by the teachers. Therefore, the category "textbooks" was the first category needing immediate care among other categories. This information can be a warning for the materials developers and syllabus designers.

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APPLYING COOPERATIVE LANGUAGE LEARNING TECHNIQUES IN IRANIAN ELT CONTEXT

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ABSTRACT
This study attempted to investigate the possible effects of applying cooperative learning techniques in Iranian context. Hence, 60 female and male English learners were selected as the study's participants and have been randomly put into two groups of experimental and control. Each class contained 30 English learners of both genders. Before applying the cooperative techniques of language learning, a pronunciation proficiency test along with a general English proficiency test was given to the participants of both groups. After gaining certitude about the homogeneity of the study's participants, the study's treatment was applied. The experimental group was taught through cooperative techniques of language learning (e.g., the three-step interview, round-table, think-pair-share, solve-pair-share and numbered heads) while the learners of the control group were taught through the Grammar Translation Method as the traditional approach of teaching English in Iran. An achievement final exam and the same pronunciation test were used as the post-tests at the end of the course and the mean scores of both groups on these tests were compared. The results showed that cooperative teaching of English as a foreign language had a significant effect on the overall achievement and their pronunciation proficiency of experimental Iranian English learners of both genders. As the pedagogical implication, it has been found that learning English as a foreign language in a student-centered cooperative context where the cooperative language learning techniques were employed and peer-correction was established, let to an improvement in acquisition of the course-book's contents in addition to the learners' pronunciation proficiency.

KEYWORDS: Cooperative language learning techniques, Iranian ELT context, Pronunciation, proficiency

INTRODUCTION

Kagan (1994) and Rodgers (2001) as the theoreticians of social studies introduced "cooperative language learning" as one of the most promising approaches of language teaching and learning which calls attention to the role of community and social interactions in the process of learning. This approach is deemed to promote a positive environment for learning which leads to greater academic achievements for all group members, as well as developing social skills (Kagan, 1994). According to Lightbown and Spada (1999), "cooperative language learning" provides learners with opportunities to produce authentic language in a functional manner. Unlike traditional classrooms in which discourse is commenced by the tutor in an artificial setting, cooperative classes create a real-life social setting in which language is authentically used.

In the field of language learning, "cooperative learning" values the interactive aspect of language, which is known as developed combination of structural and functional functions of language. It is as Hedge (2000, p. 34) declares, "an instructional strategy based on the human instinct of cooperation. He continues, "the concept of 'cooperative language learning' refers to a type of instruction in which students work in small groups based on the proposed techniques and are rewarded for their performance based on some evaluation criteria.

LITERATURE REVIEW
Theoretical background and techniques of cooperative language learning
According to Huitt and Hummel (2003), in order to understand the essential elements of cooperative learning, it is important to describe the concept of "social interdependence" which is an effective instance of how theory and practice can be combined to bring about a synergistic result more than each of the individual components. The premise behind "social interdependence" is that the interaction of students helps to create the desirable outcomes for any pedagogic program.

As another contribution for realizing "cooperative language learning", the clarification of "socio-culturalism" seems to be urgent. "Socio-culturalism" has usually been defined against "constructivism" (Cobb, 1994), yet each is a necessary component of "cooperative learning" which makes it more effective; "constructivism calls attention to the mental activities of the learner while "socio-culturalism" necessitates attention to cultural considerations in the learner's context of learning". The difference originates from opposing views of how a student learns best in a classroom; the constructivists focused on the conceptual and motor skill facets of language learning while the followers of "socioculturalism" insisted on the fact that it is the participation of the student in the classroom activities that provides learners with the most determining parameter of language learning.

According to Johnson and Stanne (2000), "cooperative language learning" is a cover term that covers numerous methods for organizing and conducting pedagogical activities in the way that any language teacher can find a way to employ its techniques in his or her instructional philosophies and practices. McCombs (2000) introduced the following techniques as the most common practices in cooperative classes in the field of English teaching and learning.

Table1: Common techniques in cooperative language learning classes

Three-step interview	This technique can be used as an icebreaker and performed as the initial class activity. In three-step interview, students interview each other in pairs and alternately switch their roles as interviewers and interviewees.
Inside-outside circle	It helps students review information while they try to get familiarize with their classmates. It is particularly helpful for reviewing the new vocabulary and sentence patterns. To form an inside-outside circle, students work in groups of four or six with the inside circle facing out and the outside circle facing in. Students are to respond to teacher's questions as they rotate to each new partner. It is a good strategy for checking understanding, reviewing, processing, and practicing dialogues in the textbooks.
Learning together	Learning together is founded on the social psychology of Deutsch (1949) and Johnson and Johnson (2005). The pivotal concept of this technique is "interdependence." Deutsch (1949) divided "interdependence" into two types of positive and negative, with a third possibility of no "interdependence" and concluded that positive "interdependence" led to superior performance of participants on objective and subjective measures.
Student-team achievement division	Slavin (1987) found that group contingencies are essential. By group contingencies, he meant that, "the behavior of one or more group members brings rewards to a group" (p. 30). First, the teacher proposes the rewards or punishments and then, the group members apply them to each other.
Individual accountability	This technique helps learners believe that it is important for them to learn the material thoroughly. Each team member feels in charge of his/her own and their teammates' learning and consequently makes an active contribution to the group.
Roundtable	There is one piece of paper and one pen for each team. One student makes a contribution and passes the paper and pen to the student of his or her left. Each student makes contributions in turn.
Think-pair-share	Teacher poses a question (usually a low-consensus question), students think of a response and discuss their responses with a partner. Students share their partner's response with the class.
	Teacher asks a question (usually high-consensus). Students put their heads

| Numbered heads | together and make sure everyone knows and can explain the answer. Teacher calls a number and students with that number raise their hands to be called on, as in traditional classroom. |

Limitations of cooperative language learning

Most of the restrictions of "cooperative language learning" come from the lack of care in implementing the cooperative techniques carefully in the classroom. Categorizing the students into some groups doesn't mean application of cooperative techniques of language learning. It is not odd to find out that students would learn more individually in a non-systematic, haphazard cooperative class. Teachers are to define the activities beforehand and keep balance in groups; they should be concerned of those "bossy" students who do not permit others to express themselves.

"Cooperative language learning" is also deemed a time-consuming approach of teaching materials. This might be true, especially in the beginning when cooperative learning was new to the teacher and to the students. Moreover, the educational rationale for cooperative learning techniques seems to have been developed mostly for socialization needs rather than for achievement needs (Turco & Elliott, 1990). Furthermore, there is always a danger for low-achievers to be belittled by high-achievers if they have nothing or little to contribute (Slavin et al, 1985). Some instructors might experience frustration from their students; better students complain about being held back by their slower team-mates; weaker students complain about being discounted or ignored in group sessions, and resentments build when some team members fail to pull their weight. This may lead to the teacher's discouragement and results in reverting to the traditional teacher-centered instructional paradigm (Kagan, 1991).

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The purpose of the study was to investigate the possible effects of practicing the "cooperative language learning" strategies in Iranian ELT context and to find reasonable answers to the following questions:

- Is there any significant difference between Iranian EFL learners who have experienced cooperative language learning techniques and those who have not on the course-leaving final examination?
- Does fostering cooperative language learning techniques have any significant effects on the pronunciation proficiency of Iranian EFL learners?

METHODOLOGY

Participants

The participants of the study were intermediate EFL learners of three private English institutes in Iran. They have been randomly categorized into four classes of 15 learners of both genders. Two classes were the control and the other two were the experimental groups of the study. Experimental participants experienced "cooperative language learning" techniques while the participants of the control group underwent Grammar Translation Method for their common course-book with the experimental participants during the enquiry. All the participants were native speakers of Persian and their ages ranged from 16 to 24.

Instruments

The same course-book was employed for participants of the two groups, i.e., *Touchstone 1* McCarthy, and Sandiford (2005). Experimental participants received instruction based on "cooperative language learning" techniques while pertinent audio instructional materials according to cooperative language learning were also utilized, but the control participants received these instructions according to Grammar Translation Method techniques which were common for instruction the material. Furthermore, the Touchstone 1 final exam was also used for both groups. Final exam, in the format of A, B, C, D, E , F, G items including spot the errors, multiple-choice, word-order, fill-in-the-blank and writing. Touchstone is a corpus-informed course book. To assess the participants' achievement, Touchstone 1 final exam hold at the end of the course as a post-test. A pronunciation test based on English Pronunciation in Use by Hancock (2003) as the study's pre- and post-test was employed to assess the effect of cooperative learning on the pronunciation of Iranian EFL learners.

Procedure

The first stage of the research was the selection of participants and their division into the two groups of experimental and control. In order to make sure about the homogeneity of participants in pronunciation ability, a pronunciation test as a pre-test was performed. The results of the pre-test scores revealed no statistically significant difference between

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the groups in the pre-test. Throughout the period of instruction which lasted 18 sessions over a period of approximately two months, control participants were asked to work mostly individually. They were supposed to pay attention to their own learning more than to that of others. If they faced any problems, they were required to ask the teacher. For some tasks, they were asked to work in pairs but simply practicing the same content without any changes. There was a sense of competition among the students and they were sitting in rows facing each other's backs. They were mostly asked to do the grammar and vocabulary parts on their own without their friends' help and later they checked their answers with their teacher. For the reading sections, they had warm-up before reading the text. Table 2 depicts the activities of each session for the control participants.

Table 2: Lesson plan for control participants

	Class activity	minutes
1	Deductive application of grammars: Students were presented with grammar rules and their exceptions, and then applied them to new examples.	30
2	Use words in sentences: Students created sentences to illustrate they knew the meaning and use of new word	25
3	Reading comprehension questions: Student found information in a passage, made inferences and related them to personal experience.	25
4	Memorization: Student memorized vocabulary lists, grammatical rules and paradigms.	20
5	Antonyms/synonym: students found antonyms and synonyms for words or sets of word.	20

Experimental participants, however, were informed about the cooperative language learning process used in their classroom and the teacher tried to be as motivating as possible in this briefing in order to lay a positive impression on the students. The classroom environment was supportive and very friendly. The seating arrangement was also changed in the classroom. Instead of sitting in rows facing each other's' backs, the students sat face-to-face with their group members. In the first three sessions of the course, adequate time was appropriated to helping students get used to the new method and this made them less stressful. Throughout the course, students were required to work in groups and the teacher was constantly monitoring the improvement of each group. Therefore, if a group was shown to have an inappropriate formation, the teacher made the necessary changes in the members of the group to ensure optimal functionality of each group. Furthermore, students were encouraged to work in groups and help one another. The teacher checked to see if the students had any misunderstanding in the learning process or learning materials presented. Table 3 depicts the performed activities of each session for the experimental participants.

Table 3: Lesson plan for experimental participants

	Class activity	minutes
1	The three-step interview: This technique was performed as the initial class activity. Students interviewed each other in pairs and alternately switch their roles as the interviewers and interviewees.	40
2	Think-pair-share: students were given a topic or a question (usually a thought-provoking one) by teacher. Later, they were given a short time to think about it (one minute or so depending on the question) and then they paired up and exchanged their ideas.	50
3	Roundtable: Students were put into groups of 2-4 and one appointed as the recorder. A question was posed with many answers and students were given a short time to think about it and referred to what they had learned before.	40
4	Solve-pair-share: Students were presented with a problem. Then, students worked out solutions individually. Finally, students explained how they solved the problem in Interview or Round Robin structures.	50

5	Numbered heads: Teacher posed a question first. Students put their heads together and make sure everyone knows and can explain the answer. Teacher calls one of the students to check his/her knowledge.	40

At the end, all the participants in the experimental group as well as the control group took the Touchstone 1 final exam and the pronunciation test as a post-test in order to determine whether there was a significant difference between the two groups as the result of the study's treatment.

DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION
Results
In the study's commencement, a pronunciation proficiency test as a pre-test was administered in order to evaluate the pronunciation proficiency of the participants. The test was found to be highly reliable (α = .86). Table 3 shows that there was not a statistically significant difference among the participants on the pre-test. (P = 0.28 > 0.05). So, the participants of two groups were homogeneous and ready to undergo the enquiry.

Table 4: Independent-samples t-test of pronunciation pre-test

	N	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig.
Pronunciation pre-test	30	12.22	1.61	1.08	58	.28
	30	12.65	1.48			

At the end of the semester and after the treatment accomplishment the means of two groups were compared on a final achievement post-test. Descriptive statistic revealed a significant difference in the mean scores and standard deviations for the control group (Mean=13.9, SD= 1.8) and the experimental participants performances (Mean=16.6, SD= 1.6) on the *Touchstone* final exam. The *Touchstone* final exam as the study's first post-test was found to be reliable (α = .78). Table 5 reveals the result of the independent-samples t-test used to compare the participants' means on the *Touchstone* final exam.

Table 5: Independent-samples t-test of Touchstone post-test

	N	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig.
Final exam post-test	30	13.98	1.88	5.78	58	.000
	30	16.60	1.60			

As it is discernible, there was statistically significant difference among the groups on the final post-test (P = .000 < 0.05). So, there was a meaningful difference between participants of two groups at the end of the course of the study as the results of cooperative language learning techniques which were employed for experimental participants. Cooperative language learning has been successful in bringing about a better achievement for the participants of the experimental group on the final exam.

The pronunciation proficiency test was administers again as the second post-test. Results of the descriptive statistical test on the as a post-test revealed a significant difference in the mean scores and standard deviations for the control group (mean=12.9, SD= 1.5) and the experimental participants (mean=16.1, SD= 1.1). In order to find the possible significant differences between the experimental and the control participants on the pronunciation test another independent-samples t-test was utilized which revealed a significant difference between the two groups. This showed that the experimental group was significantly higher than the control in terms of pronunciation proficiency at the end of the semester. Table 6 illustrates the report of an independent-samples t-test utilized to compare the participants' means on the administration of pronunciation proficiency test.

Table 6: Independent-samples t-test of pronunciation proficiency post-test

	N	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig.
Pronunciation post-test	30	12.91	12.52	9.37	58	.000
	30	16.14	16.14			

Furthermore, the performance of experimental participants on the pronunciation proficiency pre and post-test were compared. The mean of pronunciation pre-test was 12.6 (SD=1.4) and pronunciation post-test was 16.1(SD=1.1). It shows a significant difference between pronunciation pre and post-test for the experimental participants of the study. A paired-samples t-test was

employed to find whether or not the performance of experimental participants on the pronunciation pre and post-test were statistically different. The results supported that cooperative language learning techniques, as the study's treatment, significantly affect the pronunciation of experimental participants. Table 7 shows the report of the paired-samples t-test application.

Table 7: Paired-samples t-test of pronunciation proficiency pre and post-tests

	N	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig.
Pronunciation pre and post-test	30	16.14	1.10	20.45	29	.000
	30	12.65	1.48			

Discussion

The study examined the effect of applying "cooperative language learning" techniques in Iranian ELT context. The results suggested that "cooperative language learning" yielded significant and favorable results in comparison with Grammar Translation Method. It was also found that the use of "cooperative language learning" techniques in the classroom had a statistically significant effect on Iranian EFL learners of the study. The outcomes of the post-tests analyses clarified that fostering "cooperative language learning" had a significant effect on the learners' overall performance; that is to say, the use of cooperative activities during instruction significantly bettered learners' performance not only on their final achievement test but also on their pronunciation test. This study's results supported earlier research on cooperative language learning which found that "cooperative learning" strategies accelerate achievement as well as having positive effects on certain important factors such as motivation, and enjoying the class and working with others in cooperative language learning groups. "Cooperative language learning" approach take advantage of the heterogeneity by encouraging students to learn from one another and from both more and less knowledgeable peers.

"Cooperative language learning can create supportive environment that enables students to finish their course successfully, improve their oral communicative skills, advance their motivations toward English learning context and progress their interpersonal relationships. Based upon the results yielded in this study, "cooperative language learning" is a feasible and practical teaching method that puts communicative approach into action. Such a student-centered teaching method helps English learners' improve their overall performance of the target language. "Cooperative language learning" is a cost-effective teaching method with characteristics compatible with the current wave of educational reform in Iran. It does not only enhance the English learners' overall performance it also cultivates the English learners' overall ability as holistic human beings with the ability of caring, respecting and cooperating with others.

CONCLUSION

The study's results implied that a possible strategy to address to the problems of low English pronunciation proficiency and low motivation in EFL teaching would be the implementation of "cooperative language learning". This method holds a great promise for accelerating English learners' attainment of academic goals, motivations and necessary abilities for the modern interactive world. It seems that "cooperative language learning" can enable the English learners to receive positive feedback from the process of thinking, problem solving and group interaction (Tanner & Marr, 1997; Slavin, 1997). Students learn how to organize their orientations for the complex pedagogical tasks and are encouraged to offer logical explanations (Stevens & Slavin, 1995).

There are two possible explanations for increase of students' attainments when they work cooperatively; First, learning English through cooperative techniques enables students to work in groups, tolerate opposite views and discuss many tasks (Gillies, 2007). Second, weaker students learn from better students rather than their teacher which results in the reduction of affective filters (Johnson & Johnson, 2003). The results obtained were consistent with the results of many previous studies. For example, Liao (2005) examined the impact of cooperative learning techniques on motivation, learning strategy utilization and grammar achievement of English foreign language students. Based upon the results yielded in the study, these conclusions have been drawn:

- "Cooperative language learning" creates a more friendly and supportive learning environment within which English learners have more opportunities and enjoy more freedom to explore and practice the target language. "Cooperative learning" creates natural, interactive contexts in which English learners have valid reasons for listening to one another, asking questions, clarifying issues, and re-stating points of view.

- Academic and language learning require that learners express themselves in meaningfully in the classroom (McGroarty, 1993). Cooperative activities integrate the acquisition of needed skills and create learning opportunities needed for language acquisition. Such interactive experiences are particularly valuable for students who are learning English as a second or foreign language, who would encounter simultaneously the challenges of language acquisition, academic success, and social adaptation.

- Cooperative learning method can potentially address the various needs of the students with mixed levels of English proficiency even in a heterogeneous class. Many scholars asserted that "cooperative learning" is the best option for all students because it emphasizes active interaction between students of diverse backgrounds (Tsai, 1998; Wei, 1997; Yu, 1995).

- Learning is a self-regulatory process of struggling with the conflict between existing personal models of the world (Vygotskt, 1978). The process of "cooperative learning" provides copious opportunities for the learners to exchange information, activate background knowledge, and construct their own new knowledge. In this context, the over-achievers are encouraged and motivated to explore more English learning other than their textbooks and the under-achievers are able to enjoy the speaking and listening activities in such supportive learning climate.

Though cooperative language learning techniques were found to be influential, some limitations are worth mentioning at the end of article before the over-generalization of the results. Firstly, the samples of the participants were restricted to only four classes of 15. Future studies on more English learners are recommended in order to generate more evidence on the effects of cooperative language learning. Moreover, the data collected with the aid of two researcher-constructed tests, i.e., the Toadstone 1 final exam and pronunciation proficiency test as the study's instruments. However, every instrument has its strengths and weaknesses; hence, some other instruments like interviews, class observations, videotaped recordings and diary analyses can be employed to obtain more information.

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USING GAMES TO AFFECT LEARNERS' MOTIVATION IN LEARNING ENGLISH GRAMMAR

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ABSRACT
This present study investigated the use of games to affect learners' motivation in learning English grammar among young learners of English language in Iranian context. The design of this study was based on an experimental method. The study consisted of two groups, namely an experimental and a control group. The participants took a pre-test on grammar at the beginning of the course. Both experimental and control groups experienced 24 sessions of grammar treatment via game-based instruction controlled by the researchers and performed by the members of the group and the learners in the control group dealt with the traditional program of learning grammar through explanation. Finally, both groups sat for a post-test and data were collected and analyzed through Independent Samples t-test analysis. The results showed that the participants in the experimental group were significantly motivated to learn grammar than the control group. Implications of the study for teaching grammar are that learners' motivation in learning grammar could be enhanced through enjoyment and fun.

KEYWORDS: Motivation, Games, English grammar

INTRODUCTION
In order to learn a language, students require a stress free and relaxed atmosphere that is highly motivating and often this can be achieved\created through games. Using games in teaching not only helps learners to learn better but also increase learners' motivation, rapport, cooperation and social interaction. On the one hand, playing games will help the students to have good language ability and, on the other hand, this good language ability helps students to express themselves in their future life. Of course, having a good language ability does not mean just mastering four language skills, having a good grammatical competence is necessary, too. Ur (1988) states that a person who knows grammar is one who can express himself or herself in what would be considered as acceptable language forms. But not just in a traditional 'chalk and talk' method which is boring and frustrating.

Games are highly helpful to raise motivation among shy students who cannot express their feelings or talk in front of other people. By using games students can be more active, autonomous, and energetic, learn about environment, the world they are living in, and be engaged in the teaching-learning process. We can teach all skills and components through playing games, which is based on a learner-centered approach, meanwhile when we are teaching; we have to pay attention to the meaningfulness, appropriateness and the level of the learners (Widodo, 2006). The important point therefore is how to choose games, align them to the learners' abilities and making them useful language learning instruments. According to Tyson (2000, p.3) "educational games must have the following features:

- A game must be more than just fun.
- A game should involve "friendly" competition.
- A game should keep all of the students involved and interested.
- A game should encourage students to focus on the use of language rather than on the language itself.
- A game should give students a chance to learn, practice, or review specific language material."

Teaching grammar and its relationship with games also has been the home of choice for researchers in the ELT (Crookes & Chaudron, 2001; Estaire & Zanon, 1994, as cited in Littlewood, 2004). The question of whether or not grammar should be taught has been persistently debated in the field of second language acquisition. However, the inclusion of formal grammar teaching has been favored over the past decades. One of the reasons behind this is the lack of empirical studies that show the effectiveness and practicality of zero-grammar approaches in the ESL/EFL context, such as in Krashen's (1985) Natural Approach. However, there have been several

successful empirical studies on the effectiveness of formal grammar teaching, such as Long (1983), Pica (1987), and Ellis (1994, as cited in Ellis, 2008).

The main problem related to the Iranian course books is that they have been developed based on Iranian situation and also are totally reading based and not oriented towards using games, enjoyment and interactive communication. The grammar presented in the books also pertains to language usage rather than language use (Amiri & Maftoon, 2010). The present system of teaching English in Iranian schools enjoys traditional methods such as Grammar Translation, Audio-lingual or into some extent Direct Method, and the curriculum presented is a centralized one (Shahini, 1998). Of course the private sector's story is totally different and this sector has proved to be somehow successful in training the interested ones.

To sum up, using games has a great pedagogical value in raising learners' motivation and can be a springboard for group work. In a class which is based on teaching through playing games, there are different types of motivated interactions which make learning grammar enjoyable in teacher-learner, learner-teacher, and learner-learner interactions.

LITERATURE REVIE
When teachers are teaching based on traditional methods learners are not interested in developing the second language, nor are motivated to learn it for the purpose of communication. So the students will not play the role of active speaker. Therefore, in this system when students are asked to do some oral exercises, such as grammar exercises they prefer to keep silent because they are not used to speak English in front of others and are afraid of "losing face" due to their likely errors (Sauvé, Kaufman, & Renaud, 2007).

Resnick (1989) believes that students usually practice what may be termed the three S principles in achieving motivation: 1) keep silent in order to hide boredom or anxiety; 2) smile in order to hide embarrassment for not being able to answer any questions; 3) sleep because of lack of interest and motivation to learn. So the student passivity leads teachers to become easily discouraged. The solution to these problems is enabling the learners to apply the grammatical points they learn in their speaking and writing and encouraging them to continue this process (Ellis, 2008).

Woodward (1997) states, "teachers should know that explanations and examples can be enlivened by varieties of language games. Language games deliver and stimulate an added dimension to language learning" (p.21). So the focus of this study is on using games in grammar teaching-learning process. Although some teachers see language games as time filler or time consumer or just some classroom techniques for fun, in fact games have an effective role to facilitate foreign language teaching-learning process. They involve the mind and body of the students in learning the target language. In fact games involve the whole person.

The educational system along with the teachers dealing with teaching the second/foreign language is supposed to provide the learners' motivation with a relaxed and stress free atmosphere. Because "in a relax atmosphere which is intensified and energized by using games, creating cooperation among learners and presenting an atmosphere of fun, students remember things faster and better" (Wierus & Wierus, 1994, p. 218). Kasvi (2000, p.25) lists the seven requirements an effective learning environment:

1. Provide a high intensity of interaction and feedback.
2. Have specific goals and established procedures.
3. Be motivational.
4. Provide a continual feeling of challenge, not too difficult to be neither frustrating nor too easy to create boredom.
5. Provide a sense of direct engagement on the task involved.
6. Provide the appropriate tools that fit the task.
7. Avoid distractions and disruptions that destroy the subjective experience. (p.25)

Kasvi (2000), then presents that games can create a situation in which requirements of a good language learning environment could be partially met. Wright (1990) also accounts games as one of the most powerful language tools creating an atmosphere of success for young learners. By playing games students can discover what to learn, be motivated and learn better. Doing a research on the effect of games on teaching second language in general, and grammar of the second language in particular has not been well documented in the ELT literature. The present study, therefore, is an attempt to investigate the effect of using games on teaching grammar of English to young learners in an Iranian context and hopes to find an effective solution for the problems aforementioned. Language games are not just time fillers or ice-breakers. They can be motivating, and encourage students to discovery learning and solve problems. They give the opportunity to learners to learn and use language in a meaningful way and help teachers to understand the students' needs (Crandall, 1998).

The first and foremost purpose of this study is to investigate if games can be used as a useful tool for teaching English grammar to young learners. The second goal of the present research is to investigate the role games can play in encouraging and motivating young learners to learn the second/foreign language better. The importance of the present study is finding the effectiveness of using games on developing English grammar by Iranian young learners. Since learning grammar plays a significant role for having good language ability, boosting grammar repertoire would improve language ability and help the speaker to have a successful communication. Games also have proved well in creating a comfortable and stress free atmosphere for the second language learners (Dornyei, 2001). The present research aims at investigating the effect of using games in teaching grammar to the young kids /learners and its relationship with motivation. Therefore the study can put into practice the theories of motivation and suggestions made by educational game designers to see if they positively affect the second language grammar development of Iranian young learners in an EFL context. The outcomes and results of the study could be employed by English teachers, materials developers, and ELT practitioners.

Crystal (2004, p.123) defines grammar as" the structural foundation of our ability to express ourselves. The more we are aware of how it works, the more we can monitor the meaning and effectiveness of the way we and others use language". Grammar of each language as Purpura (2004) asserts, can help foster precision, detect ambiguity, and exploit the richness of expression available in that language. In the present study "grammar" refers to the application of grammatical rules of the English language focusing on its "use" rather than its "usage".

According to Haldfield (1999, cited in Doyle, 2008, p.45), "A game is an activity with rules, a goal and an element of fun… Games should be regarded as an integral part of the language syllabus, not as an amusing activity for Friday activity or for the end of the term."

According to Richards, Platt and Platt (1992, p.153), "a game is an organized activity that usually has the following properties of a particular task or objective:

     a.   a set of rules, b. competition between players, and c. communication between players by spoken or written language . "

In the present study the meaning of game taken into consideration is educational games, not computerized games. Motivation is defined as the process that initiates, guides and maintains goal-oriented behaviors (Dornyei, 2001). Motivation is what causes us to act, whether it is getting a glass of water to reduce thirst or reading a book to gain knowledge. Motivation involves the biological, emotional, social and cognitive forces that activate behavior. In everyday usage, the term motivation is frequently used to describe why a person does something. For example, you might say that a student is so motivated to get into a clinical psychology program that she spends every night studying (Skehan, 1998).

Most researchers (e.g., Gardner, 1985) agree that motivation plays a vital role in the learner's achievement; it is often attributed with the capacity to override other factors, such as language aptitude, to affect achievement in both negative and positive ways. Although its importance is widely recognized, its meaning is elusive. Gardner (1985) describes core second language learning motivation as a construct composed of three characteristics: the attitudes towards learning a language (affect), the desire to learn the language (want) and motivational intensity (effort). According to Gardner, a highly motivated individual will want to learn the language, enjoy learning the language, and strive to learn the language. The Gardnerian theory of L2 learning motivation is based on the definition of motivation as "the extent to which the individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity" (Gardner, 1985, p.21).

Personal Factors Affecting Learners

In the process of teaching a language, one vital factor which should be considered seriously is the learners themselves. Learners are different. They come to classes with different thoughts, with different motivations, with different preferences, and with different world views. Surely, these differences lead to different results in learning and teaching. As these variations have a great impact on the learning of the learners and on what they grasp in language classrooms, some of these determining factors will be under study.

Motivation is a well known factor affecting all human's doing and learning including second language learning. As Brown (2007) states, "Undoubtedly the most frequently used catch-call term for explaining the success or failure of virtually any complex task, motivation is a star player in the cast of characters assigned to second language learning scenarios around the world" (p. 168).

Lightbown and Spada (2006) define motivation in terms of two factors: "learner's communicative needs,[learner's] attitudes towards the second language community" (p. 63).

Lightbown and Spada (2006) explain these two factors like: If learners need to speak the second language in a wide range of social situations or to fulfill professional ambitions, they will perceive the communicative value of the second language and will therefore be motivated to acquire proficiency in it. Likewise, if learners have favorable attitudes towards the speakers of the language, they will desire more contact with them (p. 63).

As motivation is one of the key factors influencing the doses of learning, there are different perspectives seeing motivation through different schools of thoughts. From a behavioral point of view, motivation is simply the anticipation of reward. Receiving positive reinforcement motivates us to do the previous experience accordingly to achieve further reinforcement. In this regard, Brown (2007) comments, "In a behavioral view, performance in tasks – and motivation to do so-is likely to be at the mercy of external forces: parents, teachers, peers, educational requirements, job specifications and so forth" (p. 168).

In cognitive approach, there is a lot of emphasis on the person's decisions. According to Brown (2007), there are some underlying needs as controlling force behind our decisions. In this regard, Ausubel (1985, as cited in Brown, 2007) identified six needs underlying the construct of motivation.

> a. The need for exploration, for seeing "the other side of the mountain," for probing the unknown
> b. The need for manipulation, for operating -- to use Skinner's term -- on the environment and causing change.
> c. The need for activity, for movement and exercise, both physical and mental
> d. The need for stimulation, the need to be stimulated by the environment, by other people, or by ideas, thoughts, and feelings
> e. The need for knowledge, the need to process and internalize the results of exploration, manipulation, activity, and stimulation, to resolve contradictions, to quest for solutions to problems and for self-consistent systems of knowledge
> f. Finally, the need for ego enhancement, for the self to be known and to be accepted and approved of by others (p. 169).

To view the motivation from the constructivist perspective, there is a lot of emphasis on social context as well as individual decision makings. Each person is motivated differently, naturally the impact he has on his environment would be unique and special to him. These unique acts have different social and cultural consequences that cannot be ignored. In conclusion, we can say that "Motivation, in a constructivist view, is derived as much from our interactions with others as it is from one's self-determination" (Brown, 2007, p. 169).

The point here is that the concept of 'need' is shared in all three schools of thoughts: sometimes the fulfillment of needs is just rewarding, or it is seen as just picking up different choices, or in many cases it is viewed as a social context. The motivation influencing the students to learn a new language better and more efficiently is affected by different factors. In fact, the society we live in could affect heavily on our motivation to learn a new language. How much is important in our society to know a new language? What is the reaction of our society to a person knowing a language- English for example-rather than his own native language? Or in the context of school, how much is learning English important? Do the curriculum designers and educational system know learning a new language as important as other courses? These questions will affect the students' attitudes toward the language being studied.

In addition, the people around students have a great impact on the students' motivation in learning a new language. The attitudes of parents, siblings, and friends are vital. Their approval, thoughts, views about learning a new language can have positive and negative effects on learning a new language. One of the most important factors playing a great role in the motivation of the students is the teacher himself. Teacher can play an important role in influencing learners' motivation. Motivation can be in different levels; it can be "global, situational, and task oriented" (Brown, 2007, p. 170). In all levels the teacher can increase the motivation of his students by different strategies and techniques. According to Harmer (2001), his own attitude to the language and the tasks used in learning a new language is very important. In the mind of the teacher, the motivated student is the one who participates actively in class, shows his/her interest in the subject matter, and studies hard. Teachers can respond positively to the students' motivation if they make the atmosphere of classrooms joyful; if the content of the books is interesting and relevant to the age of the students and their level of ability, "the atmosphere is supportive" (Lightbown & Spada, 2006, p. 64).

The last but not the least factor is the method itself. It is very crucial that both students and the teacher believe in what they are learning and teaching. They should be confident about the content and method they are using. It is very important not to have reservations about what they cover in the class. Harmer (2001) states that, "When either [teacher or students] loses this confidence, motivation can be disastrously affected, but when both are comfortable with the method being used, success is much more likely" (p. 52). Motivation can be seen in terms of intrinsic and extrinsic. "Those who learn for their own self-perceived needs and goals are intrinsically motivated, and those who pursue a goal only to receive an external reward from someone else are extrinsically motivated" (Brown, 2007, p. 170). Also, in the second language acquisition context, motivation refers to the distinction between integrative and instrumental orientations of the learner.

Instrumental and Integrative Motivation

The instrumental motivation refers to acquiring a language as a means for attaining instrumental goals such as looking for jobs, reading technical materials, university admission, The integrative motivation is about learners who wish themselves to integrate themselves into the culture of the second language group; they learn a new language in order to be accepted in the social group. However, instrumentality and integrativeness are not considered as motivation types. Many scholars (Dornyei, 2001; Brown, 2007) see this dichotomy as different orientations of motivations. Thus, there is another dimension of motivation under study: intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.

Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation

There are some activities which have no apparent rewards; the activity itself is a great trigger. In fact, the learners are intrinsically motivated to do the job of learning appropriately. On the other hand, extrinsic motivation is "fueled by the anticipation of reward from outside and beyond the self. Typical extrinsic rewards are money, prizes, grades, and even certain types of positive feedback" (Brown, 2007, p. 172). In other words, there are some external factors enforcing learners to be motivated to learn and try more for achieving higher grades.

Games and Motivation

Games provide language teachers with many advantages when they are used in classrooms. One of these advantages is that learners are motivated to learn the language when they are in games. In fact, games are closely connected with motivation. For example, Khan (1991, p. 143) emphasizes usefulness of the game because of its motivating importance. "It is clear then that games-since children naturally want to play them- can be motivating." McCallum (1980, p. ix) emphasizes this point by suggesting that "games automatically stimulate student's interest, a properly introduced game can be one of the highest motivating techniques." Avedon (cited in Deesri, 2002, p. 2) further argues that "games spur motivation and students get very absorbed in the competitive aspects of the games; moreover, they try harder at games than in other courses". In other words, games stimulate students' interest in classroom activities and as a result, students become motivated and willing to learn. Philips (1993) supports this opinion by her statement that enjoyable activity is memorable then and the possible success that the children could reach in language learning will develop motivation for their further learning.

Movement Games

According to Lewis and Bedson (1999), it is a type of game that learners are physically active (e.g. Find your partner). All children can be involved and the teacher usually just monitors the game. Movement games have clearly given rules and they can be either competitive or cooperative; it depends on the concrete game or how the teacher designs it. It is the same with the materials, for example you do not need any material for movement game called "Direction game" (one child tells a blindfold child how to get to a specific place). Whereas the game "Find your partner" (Lewis & Bedson, 1999, p. 24) requires prepared cards, while playing movement games children practice all skills.

Board games
The games are played on the board in this case (e.g. Hangman). Teacher needs whatever kind of boards (black, white or interactive board). They can be played in all types of grouping and teacher needs to prepare some materials in most of board games. Learners can practice all language skills and they are expected to obey given rules. This type of the game can be either competitive or cooperative; it deals with the type of grouping. Teacher can operate as a controller, organizer, participant and facilitator.

Guessing Games
Guessing games are based on the principle when one holds the information and another tries to guess it (e.g. Back writing). There exists a wide variety of guessing games with teacher as a participant or facilitator. The teacher needs to prepare none or some materials and learners practice their speaking and listening skills while cooperating. The learners follow given instruction and rules which do not have to be strict.

RESEARCH QUESTION
The research problem attempted to discover whether using games in the classroom make the Iranian high school students motivated to learn grammar.

METHODOLOGY
Participants
The participants of the study were 40 female students studying at the second grade of junior high school in Adab Rahnemaei School in Khorramabad, Iran. They were selected based on the results of a standard version of Young Learners English Starter Test (YLE) developed by British Council in 2013, as a language proficiency test out of a total number of 60 students. 60 participants took an YLE test as their homogeneity-test, prior to the experiment. This ensured that the learners selected for the main study were almost at the same level of language proficiency prior to the treatment. Based on the results of the YLE test the learners whose scores had fallen one SD above and below the mean were selected for the main study and shaped the two control and experimental groups. Of course the researcher was not allowed to confine the classes to the learners passing the criteria, as the educational department was very conservative on the issue. Therefore, the instruction was presented to all the learners, meanwhile in the final analysis only the learners who had passed the criteria were considered in the study. Each group hence could be claimed to have included 20 learners. The control group was taught based on the suggested method of the course book (Right Path to English, 2nd grade), which, as the book claims, is mainly an audio lingual oriented type. The experimental group, on the other hand received treatment based on working with different games for teaching grammar, though they also received the materials mentioned in the course book.

Instrumentation
Pre and post-tests: A teacher-made grammar test was also used both as the pre and post-tests. After construction, the test was examined by three experts for its content validity. Subsequently, the test was modified and piloted via being administered to 20 students who were at the same level of the participants of the study. The reliability index estimated through KR- 21 formula was .74.

Motivation questionnaire: The questionnaire on motivation was hired form Yu (2005) who had conducted a research on German grammar and language development Australia. The questionnaire's validity and reliability had previously been surveyed; meanwhile a new modified English oriented version of the questionnaire was constructed (the original questionnaire was in English meanwhile addressed German language grammar issues) and put to the scrutiny of three experts who were university professors and familiar with the concept of second language learning and motivation. The questionnaire was then translated into Persian and piloted twice in a group of 20 students with the same level of the main participants of the study and was modified based on the results obtained. The reliability coefficient was calculated through test-retest reliability formula to determine the reliability of the questionnaire which was met as ($r= 0.914$). The final version of the questionnaire was used both before and after the treatment to

obtain the relevant data concerning learners change in motivation before they received the game-based training and after such a treatment.

Materials
The main text used for both experimental groups and the control group was the 2nd grade English, namely Right Path to English, developed by Iranian authors in the ministry of education and used nationwide. The book consists of 10 units (lessons), the second five units of which had to be covered in each semester. The package includes the main course book, embedded work book, and audio tapes. Lesson Units 6, 7, 8, 9and 10 of the book were taught in the very semester in which the research was being conducted.

Procedure
In the first step a language proficiency test (YET) released by the ESOL center of Cambridge university press consisting of 50 items: 20 listening comprehension, 25 items related to reading and writing skills, and 5 items pertained to speaking ability was administered for the purpose of validation. Sixty female EFL learners at junior high school level received the test and according to the results of the test 40 learners whose scores fell within one standard deviation below and above the mean were selected to shape the two control and experimental groups for the purpose of the study. Then a piloted teacher-made grammar test which comprised of 30 items was administered as the pre-test. Nevertheless, the two groups were statistically compared via the results of the grammar pre-test to make sure if they were eligible to take part in this study and enjoyed similar grammatical knowledge. The pretest checked the participants' knowledge of grammar in both groups with respect to the grammatical points which were going to be presented in 24 sessions of the classroom (three months, 12 weeks, and each week two 1.30 '–sessions). The significance of the difference between the obtained means of the two groups in the pretest was determined through an Independent Samples *t*-test.

The learners in both groups received the same materials and underwent the same time of the teaching for each session of the classroom except that the students in the experimental group who worked with games each and every session of the classroom. The experimental group received various games which fitted the grammatical issues of each lesson taught based on the course book. The experimental group went through the activities and games as follows: (a) the teacher provided the learners with instructions related to each game in Persian; (b) the learners were informed of the way(s) they were going to be involved in the games and purposes of each game; (c) the learners were trained how to take turns, correct each other, and continue the game(s); (d) the learners were trained to encourage cooperation among themselves and enjoy learning as they were developing their knowledge and ability in the classroom. The games presented were thematically related to the grammatical 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 and every 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 their own recorded voices when they were at home; they were encouraged to listen to the recorded materials and pay attention to the teacher's comments concerning each person's mis-productions. The teacher provided them with new comments, in turn. This gradually helped the learners 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 grammar issues 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 the 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 developments, 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 instruction consisted of 24 sessions spread out over twelve weeks. Each class session was 90 minutes held two times a week. The participants in both groups were taught by the same instructor. Following 24 sessions of treatment via employing games, the posttest was administered. The results of both pre and post tests were analyzed and compared through SPSS version 19. The questionnaire of motivation also was administered before and after the treatment to the game-oriented group. The assumption was that teaching learners through games might have affected their motivation towards learning the second language. The results were then put into the analysis via employing Chi-square and the results were reported.

To analyze the data, the following measurements were taken:

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1. An Independent Samples *t*-test was run to compare the mean scores of experimental and control groups on the proficiency test (YEL) to probe that they enjoyed the same level of general language proficiency prior to the main study.

2. An independent t-test was run on pretest of grammar to show that the two groups were homogenous in terms of their grammatical knowledge before the treatment. An independent t-test was run to compare the mean scores of the experimental and control groups on the posttest of grammar to probe the effect of the treatment on the improvement of the grammatical knowledge of the learners. This test was used to probe the effect of teaching grammar through games.

3. A Chi-square was employed to compare the experimental group's motivation before and after using games and being instructed through games.

4. K-R21 Reliability was computed for the pre-test and post-test of grammar.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
Proficiency Test

An independent t-test was run to compare the experimental and control groups' mean scores on the YLE test in order to prove that the two groups enjoyed the same level of general language proficiency prior to the main study. As displayed in Table 1 the mean scores for experimental and control groups on the YLE were 41.10 and 40.90 respectively.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics (Proficiency test)

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Experimental	20	41.10	2.751	.615
Control	20	40.90	2.936	.657

Table 2: Independent Samples t-test (Proficiency test)

Groups	N	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean difference	Std. Error Mean
Experimental vs. Control	20 20	.222	38	.222	.200	.900

The results of the Independent Samples *t*-test (t (38) = .222, P = .825> .05, r = .066 it represents a weak effect size) indicated that there was not any significant difference between experimental and control groups on proficiency test. Thus it can be concluded that the two groups enjoyed the same level of general language proficiency prior to the main study.

Pre-test of Grammar

An Independent Samples *t*-test was run to compare the experimental and control groups' mean scores on the Pre-test of Grammar in order to prove that the two groups enjoyed the same level of grammatical knowledge prior to the main study.

Table 3: Descriptive Statistics (Pre-test)

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Experimental	20	32.00	4.713	1.054
Control	20	33.50	4.007	.893

As displayed in Table 2 the mean scores for experimental and control groups on the Pretest of Grammar are 32 and 33.50 respectively.

253

Table 4: Independent Samples t-test (Pre-test)

Groups	N	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean difference	Std. Error Mean
Experimental vs. Control	20 20	1.084	38	.285	1.500	1.383

The results of the Independent Samples *t*-test (t (38) = 1.084, P = .285> .05, r = .17 it represents a weak effect size) indicate that there was not any significant difference between experimental and control groups on pretest of grammar test.

Post-test of Grammar

Table 5: Descriptive Statistics (Pre-test)

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Experimental	20	39.90	2.360	.528
Control	20	36.45	2.188	.489

Table 5 shows that the two groups are not at the same level of grammatical knowledge prior to the main study.

Table 6: Independent Samples t-test (Pre-test)

Groups	N	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean difference	Std. Error Mean
Experimental vs. Control	20 20	4.795	38	.000	3.450	.720

As displayed in Table 6 the mean scores for experimental and control groups on the Pre-test of Grammar are significantly different.

Motivation Questionnaire
An analysis of Chi-square was run to investigate the effect of using games on the motivation of the Iranian young learners to learn the second language better. Results are presented in Table 7.

Table 7: Frequencies and Percentages of the Pre-test and Post-test of Motivation Questionnaire

			CHOICES					Total
			Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree	
MOTIVATION	Pre-test	Count	101	126	33	88	72	420
		%	24.0%	30.0%	7.9%	21.0%	17.1%	100.0%
		Std. Residual	4.5	7.0	-.7	-.1	-7.0	
	Post-test	Count	29	10	41	90	250	420
		%	6.9%	2.4%	9.8%	21.4%	59.5%	100.0%
		Std. Residual	-4.5	-7.0	.7	.1	7.0	
Total		Count	130	136	74	178	322	840
		%	15.5%	16.2%	8.8%	21.2%	38.3%	100.0%

Table 7 displays the frequencies, percentages and standardized residuals for the 20 students' responses to 21 items of the motivation questionnaire. While the frequencies and percentages are parts of the descriptive statistics, the Std. Residual is a standardized index based on which statistical inferences can be made (Field 2009). Any Std. Residual values beyond the ranges of +/- 1.96 indicate significant differences. Thus it can be concluded that the students showed a more disagreement on the pretest questionnaire; i.e. they significantly selected the "strongly disagree" (Std. Residual = 4.5) and "disagree" (Std. Residual = 7). While a reverse pattern happened on the posttest. They significantly selected "strongly agree" (Std. Residual = 7).

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The results of the Chi-square (X (4) = 238.10, P = .000 < .05) indicate that the above-mentioned differences are statistically significant. Thus using games does have a significant effect on motivating Iranian young learners to learn grammar. Using games has therefore significantly motivated students to learn the second language better.

Table 8: Chi-Square of Pre-test and Post-test of Motivation

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	238.103[a]	4	.000
a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 37.00.			

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
■ Pretest	4.5	7	-0.7	-0.1	-7
⊠ Posttest	-4.5	-7	0.7	0.1	7
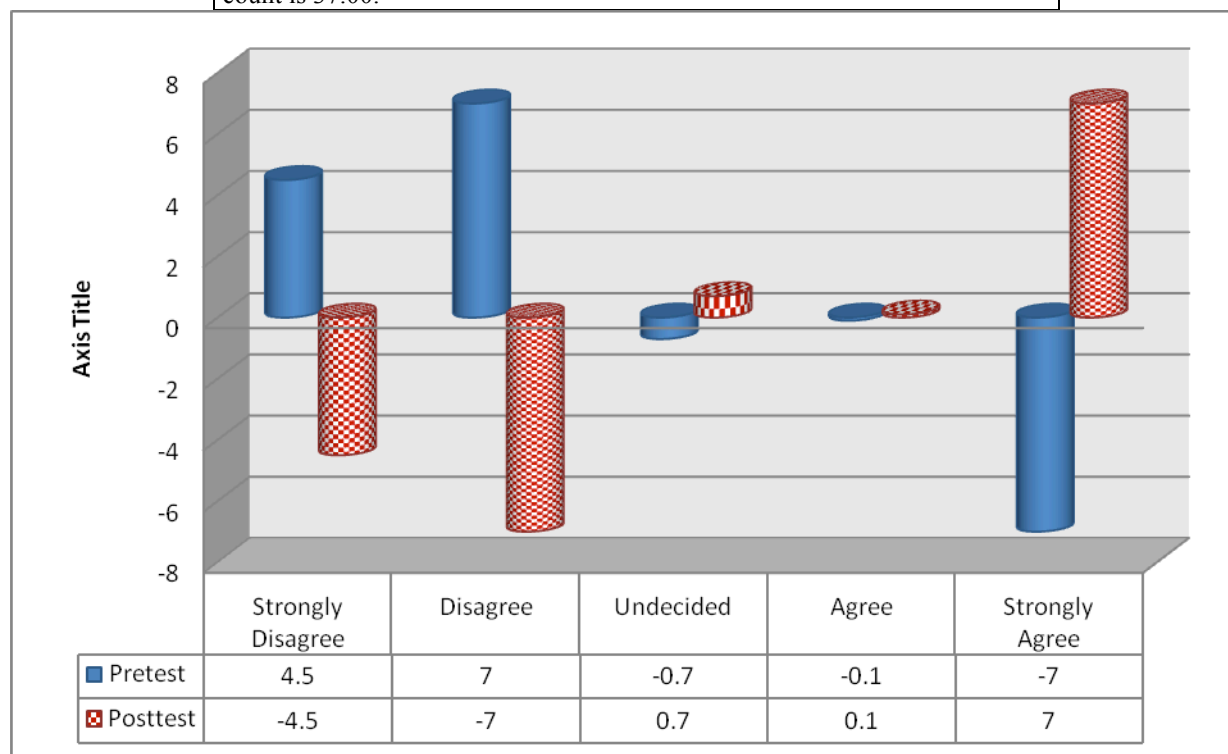
Graph 1: Pre-test and Post-test of Motivation

Discussion

Results of the study agrees with Hedge (2000, p.1) who comes to a conclusion that "learning through games could encourage the operation of certain psychological and intellectual factors which could facilitate communication heightened self-esteem, motivation and spontaneity, reinforcing learning, improving intonation and building confidence." Some experts have also figured out characteristics of games that make developing grammar learning more effectively: Lee (1995, p.35) lists several main advantages when games are used in the classroom, including "a welcome break from the usual routine of the language class", "motivating and challenging" "effort of learning", and "language practice in the various skills." Lindsay and Knight (2010) presented games as highly appreciated thanks to their amusement and interest. "Teachers can use games to help their students practice more their skills of communication" (Lindsay & Knight (2010, p.21). In addition, Uberman (1998) also affirmed the helpful role of games in teaching second language grammar: From her own teaching experiences, Uberman observed the enthusiasm of her students in learning through games. She considered games a way to help students not only enjoy and entertain with the language they learn, but also practice it incidentally.

The findings of the study are in line with the research conducted in various domains of ELT and SLA, specifically when combined with notable assumptions such as activating learners' awareness towards learning such as "focus on form" (Doughty, 2001), "focus on meaning" (Long & Robinson,1998), "consciousness-raising" (Ellis, 1991), and "explicit and implicit" (Schmidt,1990;1994) issues in teaching grammar. Theoretically speaking, games could be

employed as one of the means in the development of ZPD (Vygotsky, 1978). The effect of peer correction, teacher correction, and self correction could be well pursued in the implication of games in the general language awareness of the learners: As Clarke (2009) presented grammar consciousness-raising could be redeveloped via employing games and As Ur (1981, 1988) implied classroom games could be taken as a supportive factor in the development of second language among the learners as they energize the teacher's feedback in the classroom.

Concerning the practical measures in close connection with employing games in EFL/ESL classes in order to energize and motivate the learners, one could refer to the impact of presence of games in the development of language skills and components in a less stressful, more tangible, and more humanistic atmosphere. Mahdinejad *et al*,(2012) presented that a statistically significant and positive relationship existed between intrinsic motivation and students' English language learning in the Iranian context.

In summary, games were useful and effective tools that should be applied in language classes. The use of games as a way to make the lessons more interesting, enjoyable and effective has been vastly advised in ELT literature (Lewis & Bedson, 1999; Lightbown & Spada, 2006; MacWhinney, 2010; Mahdinejad, Hasanzadeh, Mirzaian, & Ebrahimi, 2012).

CONCLUSION
The findings of the research revealed that employing games in teaching grammar to the young learners not only can play a positive role in the development of grammar knowledge of the learners in the language classes but also it can pave the way for language development of the learners in ales stressed situation, motivating the learners to improve their own abilities in various aspects of second language development.

The statistical analysis (presented in chapter four) revealed that employing games surely had significant effects on the improvement of the grammatical knowledge of the young Iranian EFL learners. The results of the Chi-square indicated statistically significant differences between the performance of the learners on the questionnaire of motivation before and after the treatment. That is to say, employing games surely has motivated the young Iranian EFL learners to learn the second language better. The finding of the study emphasize that employing games in the English classes could be really helpful in the development of a reliable second language grammar among the learners.

Though the main focus of the present study was on the junior high school students at schools, it seems that the different levels of EFL learners, especially upper intermediate and advanced learners who have developed better language abilities and enjoy more advanced language skills could be better benefitted from using more complicated and instructional games in their classes. The findings of the present study could be used to improve the "grammar knowledge" of Iranian young learners via using "instructional games". The outcomes of the study could be helpful in designing materials for the EFL learners in the Iranian context. The results also could be employed in teaching meaningful grammar to the Iranian EFL learners. The findings of the study might be intriguing enough to pave the way for researchers to investigate the application of games in other areas and components of the English language pedagogy.

The present research focused on the effect of using games in the development of grammar among Intermediate EFL learners. Grammar knowledge of lower and/ or higher levels could be taken into consideration in new researches. The effect of game-based teaching of grammar and development of cultural issues could also be a new concept to work out. The present research was not conducted in the English language institutes. Another research of the same type could be an attempt to investigate the game -based teaching impacts on the development of grammatical knowledge in the English language institutes. The present study did not focus on the learners' individual differences other tan motivation. Another research could probably concentrate on the role of other individual differences like personality, age and gender on raising motivation in learning grammar.

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RECOGNIZING ATTITUDE AND POLARITY OF WORDS IN REVIEW TEXTS: AN ANALYSIS OF
ENGLISH SOFT AND HARD DISCIPLINES

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ABSTRACT

The present study aims to analyze book review as a written discourse in order to follow the move structure (Motta-Roth, 1995). It also distinguishes words that convey evaluation of an item, as well as the evaluation polarity (positive or negative) in English Soft (Literature and History) and Hard (Math and Computer engineering) disciplines. 120 book reviews (60 of each) were selected and scrutinized to classify move structure (Motta-Roth, 1995), the expressions of Attitude (Martin & White, 2005), as well as to reveal Polarity. Most of the data used in this study were downloaded from the well-known book review websites. The reviews were published within the years- from 2000 to 2013. It is necessary to mention that Persian reviews were lengthy. The chi- square results with 0.05 level of significance indicated that there were some similarities and differences in applying moves, steps, attitudinal expressions and polarity through two corpora. In a total comparison of soft and hard disciplines moves 2 (Outlining the Book) and 4 (Providing Closing Evaluation of the Book) showed significant differences. In terms of attitude, Chi-Square results indicated that only in total comparison of Hard and Soft group, affect and judgment had significant differences; affect and judgment expressions were used more by Soft group. In terms of polarity, both English Soft and Hard reviewers apply positive aspects of evaluation several times more than negative aspects.

KEYWORDS: Book review, Move structure, Appraisal theory, Attitude, Polarity

INTRODUCTION

Book reviews are primarily published by authors who have published several articles, notes, reviews, or letters and the authors publishing book reviews continue to publish articles, notes, reviews, or letters (Nicolaisen & Frandsen, 2007, p. 122). The writer and the reviewers are the main factors of book review. Book reviewer evaluates the work of a colleague researcher based on different criteria such as adequate treatment of the subject, usefulness for the expectant reader, and possible future anticipation (Gea Valor, 2000). The Appraisal theory is used to communicate evaluation, divided to Attitude (how writers communicate their point of view), Engagement (how writers align themselves with respect to the position of others) and Graduation (how writers amplify or diminish their opinions), the recognition of which may assist in performing other tasks in sentiment analysis (Hernandez, Lopez-Lopez & Medina, 2009). Each type of attitude involves positive or negative feeling (Martin, 2000).In recent years, there has been an increasing interest in the exploration of evaluation in academic genres. Hunston and Thompson (2000, p. 5) define evaluation as "the broad cover term for the expression of the speaker or writer's attitude or stance towards, viewpoint on, or feelings about the entities or propositions that he or she is talking about". So a vast amount of literature has been published on the role of evaluation in different genres such as book reviews; they may well contribute to the construction and development of disciplinary knowledge (Lorez-Sanz, 2012). The ways that writers and speakers express their opinions have long been recognized as an important feature of language, however, and research has attempted to account for these meanings in a number of ways (Hyland, 2005). Hunston and Thompson (2000) use the term 'evaluation' to refer to the writer's judgements, feelings, or viewpoint about something, and others have described these varied linguistic resources as *attitude* (Halliday, 1994), *epistemic modality* (Hyland, 1998), *appraisal* (Martin, 2000; White, 2003), *stance* (Biber & Finegan, 1989; Hyland, 1999), and *metadiscourse* (Crismore, 1989; Hyland & Tse, 2004). Whereas the book review is combined with critical claims, a negative and "face threatening speech act" (Gea Valor, 2000, p. 146), mitigation strategies are the best devices to maintain a social harmony and "interaction" (Roldan Reijos, 2004, p. 33) with the reviewer/ addressee.

Recently, Hyland (2000) has contrasted the ways in which reviewers in different disciplines handle praise and criticism in their assessments of the texts that they are reviewing. Hyland noted considerable disciplinary differences in the amounts of overall criticism and in the balance of praise and critique in 28 reviews taken from seven different disciplines. Thus, for example, praise and criticism were equally balanced in reviews in journals in the arts and social sciences, but reviews in the sciences contained appreciation than criticism. According to Hyland and Diani (2009),

259

appreciation is relatively common in review genres, particularly blurbs and book reviews and is generally used as an opening move to offer global praise for the volume, relying heavily on a restricted range of adjectives, most commonly *interesting, comprehensive*, *significant*, and *excellent* (p. 12). The present study aims to analyze book review as a written discourse in order to follow the move structure (based on Motta-Roth, 1995), and the use of attitudinal expressions through it; to explore how using appraisal words reduces the threat to the reviewers' negative face by making use of the attitudinal features. Thus, book reviews in the areas of English soft and hard disciplines will be analyzed to reach this goal. Thus, it examines the ways in which book reviews written in soft disciplines are different from those written in hard disciplines in terms of moves, steps, attitudinal expressions (Martin & White, 2005) and polarity of words (positive or negative).

RESEARCH QUESTIONS
Generally, the study seeks to answer the following questions:
1. Are there any significant differences between book reviews written in English Soft (history and literature) and Hard (mathematics and computer engineering) disciplines in terms of moves (Motta-Roth, 1995) and steps incorporated in each field?
2. Based on Martin and White's (2005) Appraisal Theory, Which attitudinal expression (*affect, judgment* and *appreciation*) is used more by reviewers of Soft and Hard disciplines?
3. Do reviewers apply more positive or negative words through the evaluation of the two datasets?

METHODOLOGY
Corpus
The corpus analyzed in the present study comprised 60 soft sciences (30 History and 30 Literature) and 60 hard sciences (30 Mathematics and 30 Computer) book reviews, which were extracted from available electronic sites and journals such as, Science Fiction and Fantasy, Walrus Journal, NYQ Foundation, Math DL, Asian EFL, Discourse Journals, Google, Yahoo, Amazon and Time Supplementary within the fields of English Soft and Hard book reviews (each book was found in a special site or journal). The selected texts, 60 from Soft and 60 from English Hard disciplines, were published recently, from 2005 to 2013- and they were approximately not more than 1000 words**.**

Instrumentation
Studying several book review analysis suggested by Cacchiani (2007), Motta-Roth (1998), Nicolaisen (2002), Paltridge (1995), Salager-Meyer, Alcaraz Ariza and Berbesi (2007), Suarez and Moreno (2005), Swales (1990), the present study exploited the move analysis suggested by Motta-Roth (1995). An important reason of selecting Motta-Roth's (1995) model in the present study is the lack of analyzing recurrent lexical elements or lexico-grammatical features in the texts chosen as typical instances of this genre. Furthermore, the present research aims to distinguish words that convey evaluation of an item based on Martin and White (2005) framework, as well as the evaluation Polarity (positive, negative) in English Soft and Hard book reviews. We propose a strategy to distinguish words that convey evaluation of an item from the rest, as well as to classify the evaluation Polarity (positive or negative). In addition, relying on Appraisal Theory, we intend to classify the evaluation words in *affect, judgment* and *appreciation*, so the other parts of Appraisal are not within our area of investigation. Based on Martin and White's (2005) Appraisal Theory strategy, 120 English Soft and Hard book reviews (30 of each four discipline) were selected and scrutinized to classify moves, steps and expressions of Attitude (*affect, judgment, appreciation*). Moreover, they were analyzed to reveal Polarity.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
The results of C*hi*-square tests for the constitutive moves of soft disciplines (History and Literature) indicated significant differences in the distribution of the moves 2 (*Outlining the Book)* and 4 (*Providing Closing Evaluation of the Book)*. In terms of hard disciplines (Mathematics and Computer), there were significant differences in moves 1 (*Introducing the Book*), 2 (*Outlining the Book)*, and 3 (*Highlighting Parts of the Book*). In a total comparison of soft and hard disciplines moves 2 (*Outlining the Book*) and 4 (*Providing Closing Evaluation of the Book*) showed significant differences.

The results revealed that there were some differences in the schematic structure of History-Literature (SOFT), Mathematics-Computer (HARD) and the overall schematic structure of both corpora. The observed differences were associated to the effects of context on text like disciplinary variability and the specific need requirements of each group. The term *intertextuality* (Toledo, 2005, p. 1062) (i.e., knowledge about other texts which influences the comprehension and writing of a given one) is also an effective factor. In addition to knowledge of and prior experience with other specific texts, intertextuality includes the effects of prior knowledge of and experience with texts in general, and with different text types or genres. Other effective elements such as gender and culture of

reviewers, specific needs of discourse community, knowledge of the reviewers, size of the audience and discourse community can be effective on the differences between the book reviews of the two corpora.

Table 1: The Constituent Moves and Steps in Soft and Hard Disciplines

SOFT				HARD				TOTAL			
	History(30)	Literature(30)	Computer	p-value	Math (30)	Computer(30)	Computer	p-value	Soft(60)	Hard(60)	Computer	p-value
	N %	N %	χ^2		N %	N %	χ^2		N %	N %	χ^2	
Move 1	98 28.16	90 35.29	6.8	0.339	85 29.10	79 36.57	10.77	0.029	188 53.40	164 46.59	9.28	0.158
M1s1	15 15.30	17 18.88	13.03	0.001	27 31.76	13 16.45	8.77	0.012	32 44.44	40 55.55	2.33	0.311
M1s2	10 10.20	26 28.88	10.55	0.005	18 21.17	27 34.17	5.2	0.074	36 44.44	45 55.55	1.54	0.461
M1s3	45 45.91	28 31.11	5.40	0.248	19 22.35	15 18.98	2.37	0.305	73 68.22	34 31.77	26.76	0.000
M1s4	25 25.51	19 21.11	2.5	0.475	15 17.64	18 22.78	4.55	0.102	44 57.14	33 42.85	3.04	0.386
M1s5	3 3.06	0 0	3.185	0.078	6 7.05	6 7.59	1.42	0.492	3 20	12 80	5.37	0.068
Move 2	165 47.41	90 35.29	30.33	0.000	89 30.47	59 27.31	12.83	0.046	255 63.27	148 36.72	34.49	0.000
M2s1	80 48.48	57 63.33	12.60	0.049	33 37.07	33 55.93	0.57	0.903	137 67.48	66 32.51	30.06	0.000
M2s2	15 9.09	30 33.33	8.47	0.037	38 42.69	18 30.50	12.18	0.007	45 44.55	56 55.44	4.21	0.239
M2s3	70 42.42	3 3.33	47.74	0/000	18 20.22	8 13.55	5.99	0.05	73 73.73	26 26.26	25.98	0.000
Move 3	65 18.67	45 17.64	7.18	0/207	66 22.60	27 12.50	20.52	0.000	110 54.18	93 45.81	8.64	0.124
M3s1	65 100	45 100	7.18	0/207	66 100	27 100	20.52	0.000	110 54.18	93 45.81	8.64	0.124
Move 4	20 5.74	30 11.76	6.37	0/041	52 17.80	51 23.61	3.85	0.277	50 32.67	103 67.32	34.68	0.000
M4s1	15 75	21 70	4.28	0/118	24 46.15	36 70.58	3.61	0.306	36 37.5	60 62.5	10.07	0.018
M4s2	5 25	6 20	0.111	0/739	27 51.92	15 29.41	7.38	0.025	11 20.75	42 79.24	24.02	0.000

Within move 1. *Introducing the book* subfunctions 1.1. *Defining the general topic of the book* and 1.2. *Informing about potential readership* indicate significant differences in the Soft corpus (history and literature). The higher frequency of these steps is presented by Literature field. In Hard corpus (mathematics and computer), move 1 itself and subfunctions 1.1 *Defining the general topic of the book* show significant *di*fferences. The higher frequency of these move and step is presented by Math field.

Move 2. *Outlining the book*, the other mainly descriptive move in the book review genre, also shows higher frequencies of occurrence in the Soft corpus. The difference of use of this move between the two corpora is highly significant statistically speaking, $\chi^2 = 34.49$, p=.000. Within this move, the subfunctions 2.1. *Providing general view of the organization of the book* and 2.3. *Citing extra-text material* shows statistically significant difference.

Move 3. *Highlighting parts of the book*, and the only subfunction by which it is realized, *Providing focused evaluation*, can be said to be preferred by Soft book review writers, but in total comparison Chi-square test shows no significant difference between soft and hard group $\chi^2 = 8.64$, p=.124. Chi-square test was run for move 3 and subfunction 3.1. *Providing focused evaluation* in Hard group $\chi^2 = 20.52$, p=.000 indicates significant difference between Math and Computer. This contrasts show higher frequencies of this move and step for Math discipline. English Math book review writers seem to be more likely to keep separate the description of the book's chapters and evaluative remarks on the book.

Especially, relevant to the present study were options 4.1. *Definitely recommending /disqualifying the book* and 4.2. *Recommending the book despite indicated shortcomings* within move 4. *Providing closing evaluation of the book*. Both of these options reflect the English Soft and Hard reviewers' lower tendency to criticize books in a straightforward way in the concluding part of the review, although this is done differently in the two writing disciplines. While Hard (Math and Computer) book reviewers show a much higher tendency to recommend books with low room for criticism through option 4.1. *Definitely recommending the book*, Hard science reviewers tend to moderate their positive verdicts mainly through option 4.1. *Recommending the book*.

Another point observed in the study was that authors do not strictly follow the same move and step sequences as has been suggested in Motta Roth's (1995) framework for book reviews. Authors seem to liberally reorder the sequence of steps in their book reviews to create their own styles. This was observed in almost all reviews and in all author groups. More interestingly, it was noticed that Moves 1 and 2 in many of the reviews seemed to be intertwined. This is perhaps because of authors' commitment to texture. A piece of writing requires cohesion and coherence to be considered a well-organized piece of discourse.

In this article we have reviewed Appraisal, a systemic functional linguistic theory of evaluation in text. The theory describes a typology of language, consisting of three subsystems that operate in parallel: Attitude describes the language used to communicate personal feelings in terms of emotional reactions, judgments of people and appreciation of objects.

The results showed that Appreciation words encompass high frequency among the Attitudinal expressions in both Soft and Hard group. Chi-Square results indicated that only in total comparison of Hard and Soft group, Affect and Judgment had significant differences. In Soft group Affect and Judgment was used more than Hard group: $\chi^2 = 26.20$, p=.050 (Affect). $\chi^2 = 32.51$, p=.009 (Judgment).

Table 2: The Attitudinal Expressions and Polarity in Soft and Hard Disciplines

SOFT					HARD					TOTAL			
	History(**30**)	Literature(**30**)	com	p-value	Math (**30**)	Computer(**30**)	com	p-value	Soft (**60**)	Hard(**60**)	com	p-value
	N %	N %	χ^2		N %	N %	χ^2		N %	N %	χ^2	

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AFF	95 12.66	252 29.57	23.73	0.7	57 8.75	132 19.73	17.16	0.103	347 64.73	189 35.26	26.2	0.050
APP	485 64.66	390 45.77	29.86	0.472	543 83.41	438 65.47	22.26	0.62	875 47.14	981 52.85	27.57	0.774
JUD	170 22.66	210 24.64	4.28	0.118	51 7.83	99 14.79	11.82	0.223	380 71.69	150 28.30	32.51	0.009
POS	550 73.23	663 77.81	31.2	0.456	543 83.41	525 78.12	31.46	0.393	1213 53.24	1065 46.75	45.37	0.333
NEG	201 26.76	189 22.18	14.40	0.703	108 16.58	147 21.87	11.1	0.52	390 60.46	255 39.53	24.67	0.214

According to Table 2, the findings indicate that both English Soft and Hard reviewers apply positive aspects of evaluation several times more than negative aspects. These positive aspects are politeness maxims, compliments, indirect conventional requests (can/could you), non-conventional indirect requests (questions, criticism patterns, even sometimes plain statements). Negative evaluation is conveyed either by means of the negation of the verb, followed by an adjective with a positive meaning or by means of a negative adjective (e.g., difficult, poor).

Discussion
The results reveal that Soft reviewers evaluate the writers' works more positively. It might be because of the fact that interpersonal relationship between the communicative participants-the writer and the reviewer- in the genre of book reviewing is a crucial factor which determines the construction of the discourse and developing the genre; therefore, the reviewers tend to be more positive than negative. They want to maintain the writers' face by applying positive aspects of evaluation besides criticisms.
The experienced, fair, and knowledgeable reviewers know that a completely negative critique offends the writers' personality. They know that a positive critique can be more effective; a critique which presents both weaknesses and strengths of the reviewed book and the writer. The writer will be more satisfied and content to see the evaluation more positive; to see that the evaluation is fair, not biased and malicious.

The Appraisal theory describes a hierarchy of the language used to communicate evaluation, and one type of Attitude expresses how writers communicate their point of view. Opinion is conveyed in text in a wide variety of domains and genres. Here in *discipline* review genre, the results revealed that the overall application of Attitude words in the two corpora was different, but the use of polarity was the same. This difference in the use of *appraisal-bearing* (Hernandez, Lopez-Lopez & Medina, 2009) expressions in English Hard and Soft reviews might be attributed to effective elements such as specific needs of the discourse community and knowledge of the reviewers on the nature of the book reviews in journals or strict review policies set by journal reviewers of two different cultures. As we have seen, book reviewing is a potentially face-threatening act since it basically involves the assessment of a colleague's work. Hard discipline reviewers showed less affection or emotional viewpoints in their works. They mostly focused on the nature of the reviewed text, the writer's materials and the way of reviewing the text.

CONCLUSION
In terms of polarity; though, soft discipline reviewers applied more negative statements in their reviews, but the difference was not so significant. They might believe to review the text directly without using compliment expressions. It might be an attempt to show the defects of the work completely to be removed in the future. English

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Soft reviewers; also, revealed more *affection* and used more positive expressions. Thus, the present study has partly focused on the use and function of Appraisal (attitude) words and Polarity in the Hard and Soft discipline reviews.

The main limitation of this study is that the data was obtained from scrutinizing only two disciplines and one culture; thus not allowing for a more comprehensive cross-cultural analysis of book reviews; e.g., increasing the size of sentences and extending their domain. Also, in this research, the reviews were analyzed based on Martin and White (2005) and Motta-Roth (1995) models. The sphere of such research can be extended to other genres using other frameworks.

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THE EFFECT OF CONCEPT SORT STRATEGY (CSS) ON IRANIAN PRE-INTERMEDIATE EFL LEARNERS' VOCABULARY RECALL AND RETENTION

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ABSTRACT
The purpose of this study was to explore the effects of concept sort strategy on Iranian English as foreign language (EFL) learners' vocabulary recall and retention. For the purpose of this study, 90 pre-intermediate level participants studying in National Iranian Southfield Oil Company (NISOC) Language Training Centre in Ahvaz, Iran were selected non-randomly. They took part in a proficiency test and 60 of them were randomly assigned into two homogeneous groups. Then, both groups were given a pre-test before treatment to determine how well the subjects know the meaning of the vocabularies learned throughout the course. During an eleven-session course, both groups covered eight passages were extracted from New Headway, Pre-Intermediate developed by Soars and Soars (2009), Cristiano Ronaldo written by Taylor (2011) and Recycling by Border (1996). They were the materials taught by the researcher. The experimental group under treatment received concept sort strategy instructions while the control group received traditional vocabulary instructions. After each session, the research 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. However, Independent Samples t-test showed that there was not a significant difference between the two groups concerning vocabulary recall and retention. It was also revealed that the interval between immediate and delayed post-tests decreases the vocabulary achievement significantly in both groups.

KEYWORDS: Concept sort strategy, recall, retention, close sort

INTRODUCTION
The outstanding developments in technology and communications have made learning foreign languages in general and English language in particular essential for every individual. English language has become an international language and a means of communication among people all over the world. In learning a language, there are four skills that we need to improve for complete communication. They are listening, speaking, reading and writing. Obviously vocabulary size influences the four skills. Indeed vocabularies are the building blocks of every language without which one is quite speechless. Ellis (1997) believes that vocabulary knowledge can assist grammar acquisition because knowing the words in a text or conversation aids learners to get the meaning of the discourse, which in turn help them to acquire the grammatical patterns.

Vocabulary learning is crucial to second language acquisition. However, learning vocabulary is often perceived as a tedious and laborious process. It takes most of the time of each learner (Rahimi & Sahragard, 2008). Wesche and Paribakht (1999) found that learners generally ignored unknown words, if there was not any prior training on strategies. Accordingly, there is a need to look for ways in which language learners learn how to overcome this problem.

Concept sort is a strategy used to introduce students to the vocabulary of a new topic or book. Teachers provide students with a list of terms or concepts from reading material. Students place words into different categories based on each word's meaning. Categories can be defined by the teacher or by the students.

Vocabulary learning strategies are a component of language learning strategies which in turn are a component of general learning strategies. Gu and Johnson (1996) conducted a study on good learners and found that most

265

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. Since a good knowledge of vocabulary has a great effect on the learners' improvement of language skills, more attention should be paid to choosing and implementing appropriate vocabulary learning strategies 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 concept sort strategy in vocabulary recall and retention in particular. Therefore, it would prove the pedagogical value of using 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.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The concept of a word is rather difficult to explain and there are several different views concerning what a word really is. Singleton (1999, p. 9) emphasizes that words have a rather privileged status in the popular understanding of what a language is since they are vital to linguistic communication. Indeed, without vocabulary there is no tool to communicate and everybody realizes it. However, different people see words and vocabulary differently and therefore defining a word has its problems.

A number of studies indicated support for the stand that deeper processing leads to better vocabulary retention. Oxford and Scarcella (1994) believed that contextualized learning helps learners grasp the full meaning of a word or phrase and become aware of the linguistic environment in which the word or phrase appears. They argued that vocabulary learning in a discourse context is preferable to the study of decontextualized words. They observed that decontextualized learning, such as word lists, do not help vocabulary retention, i.e. learners may forget the words learnt rapidly. Haastmp (1991) and Ellis (1994) further pointed out that guessing from context is more conducive for it engages learners in hypothesis formation and testing about word meaning. Assumptions on human memory (Hulstijn, 1992) suggested that "meaning inferred" yielded higher retention than "meaning given". The assumptions also gave rise to Krashen's (1989) "monitor theory" which disapproved the use of L1 in L2 learning. Within the 'depth' of processing framework, one could predict that words learnt from guessing from the L2 context would result in greater retention than words with L1 meanings provided, because the former enhances deeper processing.

Word Sorting

Using appropriate presentation methods enables learners to obtain a deeper impression of and richer information about the target words to make them enter the long-term memory (Zhang, 2008). Cognitive psychologists and language acquisition scholars working within the framework of cognitive psychology believe that retention and recall of information is determined by the way in which the information is processed (Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001).

According to Henderson (1990) as a complement to the three layers of orthography, five stages of orthographic development are described among learners of all ages and in several languages. According to Treiman (2006) the names of these five stages: emergent, letter name, within word, syllables and affixes, and derivational relations are drawn from the specific strategies students use at these times. For example, letter-name spellers often spell words phonetically using the names of letters to help them spell, while within- word spellers experiment with vowel patterns within words. Research in orthographic development shows those students of all ages including those with learning difficulties and even those with brain injuries progress through these same stages of development (Henderson & Beers, 1980). Knowing students' developmental spelling stage can help teachers know what to teach and when.

Concept Sort

According to Meier (2012), concept sort is a vocabulary and comprehension strategy used to familiarize students with the vocabulary of a new topic or book. Teachers provide students with a list of terms or concepts from reading materials. Students place words into different categories based on each word's meaning. Categories can be defined by the teacher or by the students. When used before reading, Concept sort provides an opportunity for a teacher to see what his or her students already know about the given content. When used after reading, teachers can assess their students' understanding of the concepts presented.

Types of Sorting

Vacca and vacca (1989) explained the types of sorting in the following paragraph: Two types of word sort-the 'open' sort and the 'closed' sort. Both are easily adapted to any content area. In the closed sort, students know in advance of sorting what the main categories are. In other words, the criterion that the words in a group must share is stated. The closed sort reinforces and extends the ability to classify words and fosters convergent and deductive thinking. Open sorts, on the other hand, prompt divergent and inductive reasoning. No category or criterion for

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grouping is known in advance of sorting. Students must search for meaning and discover relationships among technical terms without the benefit of any structure (pp. 305-306). The concept of open and closed sorts is manifested in the following example:

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

deciduous	leaves	water	bark
evergreen	forests	branches	mountains
sunlight	soil	roots	rainforest

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, indeed he is using **closed sort** in his classroom.

parts of a tree
types of trees
where trees grow
what trees need to grow

But 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.

A considerable number of studies have investigated the effects of different strategies on vocabulary learning. To this end, the most common research design has been to test the effectiveness of one strategy against other strategies used to learn vocabulary. For example, Carlson, Kincaid, Lance and Hodgson (1976) found significantly better recall when a group trained on the method of loci was compared to a control group. Cohen and Aphek (1980) trained students of Hebrew to recall new words through paired associations. Students were first given brief instructions on how to use associations to assist in vocabulary recall; they then selected new words from a reading text and made their own associations for them. Results have demonstrated that the use of paired associations to recall the new word led to better performance than using a different association or none at all. Another study conducted by Roediger (1980) looked at the method of loci along with three other well-known mnemonic methods. Results of the study revealed that all four mnemonic groups recalled the 20-word list better than the control group. However, the method of loci and the peg word system were found to be better methods to use when the order of words remembered was important. However, the literature review of the present study has shown that there were rare studies which had investigated the effect of using concept sort strategies on vocabulary recall and retention in Iran. Thus, the present study aimed to bridge this gap in the literature.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS
The main research questions to be pursued in this study are as follows;
RQ1: Does concept sort strategy improve pre-intermediate EFL learners' vocabulary recall?
RQ2: Does concept sort strategy improve pre-intermediate EFL learners' vocabulary retention?
RQ3: Does interval between immediate and delayed post-tests affect the EFL learners' vocabulary achievement?

METHODOLOGY
Participants
In the present study, the population was 90 females and males who studied English as a foreign language in National Iranian Southfield Oil Company (NISOC) Language Training Centre in Ahvaz. They were all NISOC'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 TOEFL Vocabulary Test (Farhady & Moradian, 2001) and sixty students whose scores were one standard deviation above and one standard deviation below the mean were chosen as the participants of the present study. They were randomly divided into two groups, experimental and control. Each group included thirty subjects. Concept sort group (22 males and 8 females) received concept sort vocabulary learning strategy while the traditional group (25 males and 5 females) received the placeboes. The participants were within the age range of 27 to 58.

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Instrumentation
In order to accomplish the objective of the present study, the following instruments were employed:

1. Proficiency test (homogeneity test): TOEFL Vocabulary Test, (Farhady & Moradian, 2001) was used to determine the homogeneity of subjects 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 a value of 0.96 was obtained which indicated that the test was satisfactorily reliable.

2. Pre-test: A pre-test containing the actual test items was administered i.e., based on the classroom materials to the subjects before treatment in order to determine how well the subjects knew the contents before treatment. The subjects were asked to answer 50 multiple-choice vocabulary questions selected from the course passages in 50 minutes. The reliability of the test was calculated through KR-21 formula. To ensure that students did not give more attention than they should to the words appearing in the pre-test, no mention was made of the subsequent learning lessons and the immediate post-test or delayed post-test. The reliability of the pre-test was 0.77.

3. Immediate post-test: To determine the effect of concept sort strategy on vocabulary recall, after each session of instruction where students had done the sorting in the experimental group (No sorting activity was done in the control group) and 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 the immediate post-test was 0.81.
4. Delayed post-test: Following the treatment, three weeks later after the end of the course, the instructor showed up in the class to administer the delayed post-test. The sudden, without notice presence of the instructor in the class was to test the retention of words in a longer period to see the real effect of the treatment. All characteristics of the delayed post-test were the same as those of the pre-test in terms of time and the number of items. The only difference of this test to the pre-test was that the order of questions and alternatives was changed to wipe out the probable recall of pre-test answers. Both the pre-test and the post-test were performed as part of the classroom evaluation activities under the supervision of the instructor. The reliability value of these tests was also calculated through KR-21 formula. It was 0.92.

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 Headway, Pre-Intermediate (Soars & Soars, 2009): It consists of twelve units. This book is used as a course book for level 6 (the first four units), level 7 (the second four unis), level 8 (the last four units) in NISOC Language Centre. There is a reading passage in each unit. Only two passages were chosen from this book.
2. Cristiano Ronaldo (Taylor, 2011): This book indeed is a biography of Cristiano Ronaldo dos Santos Aveiro who is a well-known Portuguese footballer. It consists of six chapters. Only one of the reading passages was selected from this book.
3. Recycling (Border, 1996): It has thirteen reading passages under interesting topics about recycling waste. Only one of the reading passages was used from this book.

Procedure
To accomplish the purpose of the study, first 90 male and female EFL learners were selected from Ahvaz NISOC Language Centre. Then, a TOEFL Vocabulary Test, (Farhady & Moradian, 2001) was administered to the subjects under study to determine their homogeneity and to divide the sample population into two groups. The two groups, 30 learners each, were selected randomly: One experimental and one control group. In order to avoid crowded classes each group was divided into two separate classes. They met for two and a half hours, once a week.

In the second session of the course, a pre-test containing the actual test items was administered to the subjects before treatment in order to determine how well the subjects know the contents before treatment. The actual vocabulary instruction began from the third session. In each session, the first hour was allotted to vocabulary instruction and the rest to teaching the course book. To avoid biasing participants, information concerning the purpose of the study was not provided, in other words, they were not informed that the results of their test would be used in a research study. Therefore, the whole research took place in a natural language school classroom circumstance. To motivate and encourage the subjects to pay enough attention and to play more active role in the research program, they were told

that the purpose of the extra instruction was to improve their vocabulary knowledge and to enable them to commit the vocabulary to their long-term memory.

The entire research project took place in eleven sessions. Eight reading passages were chosen and a variety of vocabulary that could challenge the students to think about how the words fit together was extracted from the passages. During eight sessions of instruction, 60 minutes each, the extracted words and their related passages were worked on. The experimental group received concept sort strategy instruction while the other one received the placebo. In order to teach concept sort strategy in the experimental classes, the following phases were carried out:

Phase 1: In the first session, concept sort strategy was presented and described explicitly. Then, it was explained to language learners why, when, how this strategy was used.

Phase 2: In each session, before reading the passage, the teacher presented the students with the challenging new words extracted from the reading passage printed on a piece of paper. Since the focus of the research was on using close-sorting to teach vocabulary, the predetermined categories were specified below the list of the challenging new words.

Phase 3: The students were gathered in groups of two or three around a table, and after explaining the meaning of difficult words, they were directed to classify or sort the words or concepts under closed sort determined by the teacher, based on the topic, their background knowledge and experience.

Phase 4: The students were given the reading passage to read from which the new words had been extracted.

Phase 5: After each session, there was a five-minute rest and right after that there was a ten-multiple-choice question quiz asking the meaning of the new vocabularies learnt in that session.

While the experimental group received concept sort strategy as treatment, the control group did not receive any particular strategies. The students were seated in groups of two or three around a table as in the experimental group and were simply given the reading passages and required to read them and asked the teacher in case of facing any problems. They were also free to use a dictionary. It is worth mentioning that four of the reading passages were chosen from New Headway, Intermediate (Soars & Soars, 1996). This is of course due to the fact that not all the reading passages in the New Headway, Pre-Intermediate (Soars & Soars, 2009) were suitable for the purpose of the research in terms of richness of vocabulary.

Similar to the experimental group, after each session, there was a five-minute rest for the control group and right after that there was a ten-multiple-choice immediate post-test asking the meaning of the new vocabularies learnt in that session. Of course, it was administered to both groups. Then, in the end, three weeks after the end of the course, in session eleven, 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.

In order to determine whether 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. The Paired Samples *t*-test was also utilized to compare the means of immediate and delayed post-tests of both groups to see if the three-week interval influences the vocabulary knowledge of the participants. Moreover, KR-21 approach was used to estimate the reliability of the test. The independent variable in this study was concept sort and the dependent variable was vocabulary learning.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Homogeneity Test

In order to determine the homogeneity of the groups regarding their level of vocabulary knowledge the students' overall scores on TOEFL Vocabulary Test (Farhady & Moradian, 2001) were collected from their records. The data, then, were analyzed. The mean and standard deviation of two groups for 'TOEFL vocabulary test' are presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Descriptive statistics (proficiency test)

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Experimental	30	24.67	6.583	1.202
Control	30	25.73	6.746	1.232
Total	60			

Table 1 shows that all the students in both experimental and control group had approximately similar performance on the proficiency vocabulary test and the obtained means and standard deviations of both groups were almost similar. In the experimental group the mean was 24.67 and the standard deviation was 6.583. The mean and the standard deviation of the control group were calculated 25.73 and 6.746 respectively.

Pre-test

In order to determine how well the subjects knew the contents before treatment, a pre-test containing the actual test items was administered to the subjects before treatment. The students' overall scores on the pre-test were collected from their records and are shown in Table 2.

Table 2: Descriptive statistics (pre- test)

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Experimental	30	13.1667	6.58673	1.20257
Control	30	14.7000	7.21182	1.31669
Total	60			

The mean is 13.1667 and the standard deviation is 6.58673 for the experimental group. In the case of control group, the mean and standard deviation are 14.7000 and 7.21182 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 3 shows the results.

Table 3: Independent Samples t-test (pre- test)

Group	*t*-test for equality of means				
Experimental vs. Control	*t*	df	P-value (sig)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Assumption1: Equal variances	.860	58	.393	1.53333	1.78321
Assumption2:Unequal variances					

Table 3 shows the result of the Independent Samples *t*-test for the pre-test of the two groups. As it can be seen the significance level is more than 0.05, hence; it can be inferred that both the experimental and the control group performed significantly similar on the pre-test, that is, the subjects' knowledge concerning the contents before treatment was considerably equal.

Immediate Post-tests

To accept or reject the first null hypothesis, that is, applying concept sort strategy does not affect the pre-intermediate EFL learners' vocabulary recall; the data obtained from the eight immediate post-tests were collected and analyzed. The mean and standard deviation of two groups on immediate post-tests are presented in Table 4.

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Table 4: Descriptive statistics (immediate post-tests)

Groups (recall)	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Experimental	30	42.7800	7.60018	1.38760
Control	30	40.8833	7.16243	1.30767
Total	60			

As it can be seen in the experimental group, the mean is 42.7800 and the standard deviation is 7.60018. The mean and standard deviation of the control group are 40.8833 and 7.16243 respectively. As it is noticed, the means and standard deviations of the two groups are almost similar on the immediate post-tests.

Table 5: Independent Samples t-test (immediate post-test)

Groups	*t*-test for equality of means				
Experimental vs. Control	*t*	df	P-value (sig)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Assumption1: Equal variances	.995	58	.324	1.89667	1.90668

Table 5 shows the result of the *t*-test of the immediate post-tests for the two groups. As it can be seen the significance level is .324 which is more than 0.05, so it can be inferred that both the experimental and the control group performed significantly similar on the immediate post-test, that is, the null hypothesis is not rejected.

Delayed Post-test
To accept or reject the second null hypothesis, that is, applying concept sort strategy does not affect the pre-intermediate EFL learners' vocabulary retention; the data obtained from the performance of the students on the delayed post-test were collected and analyzed. The mean and standard deviation of the two groups in the delayed post-test are presented in Table 6.

Table 6: Descriptive statistics (delayed post- test)

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Experimental	30	26.1667	11.54626	2.10805
Control	30	27.2000	9.36022	1.70894
Total	60			

As it can be seen in Table 6 in the experimental group the mean is 26.1667 and the standard deviation is 11.54626. The mean and standard deviation of the control group are 27.2000 and 9.36022 respectively.

Table 7: Independent Samples t-test (delayed post- test)

271

Groups	*t*-test for equality of means				
Experimental vs. Control	t	df	P-value (sig)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Assumption1: Equal variances	.381	58	.705	1.03333	2.71373

Table 7 shows the result of the *t*-test of the delayed post-test for the two groups. As it is noticed the significance level is .705 which is more than 0.05, so it can be inferred that both the experimental and the control group performed significantly similar on the delayed post-test.

Paired Samples t-test (pre-test vs. delayed post-test)

As it can be seen Table 7 does not reveal significant difference between the experimental group and the control group, so in order to fully answer the second research question the researcher performed Paired Samples *t*-test. The Paired Samples *t*-test was used to compare the means of two variables, that is, we compared the means of the test scores before and after the experiment to see if the vocabulary teaching course improved the participants' score on the delayed post-test.

Table 8: Paired Samples Statistics (pre-test vs. delayed post-test)

Groups	Tests	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Experimental	Pre-test	13.17	30	6.587	1.203
	Delayed Post-test	26.17	30	11.546	2.108
Control	Pre-test	14.70	30	7.212	1.317
	Delayed Post-test	27.20	30	9.360	1.709

Table 8 shows the means and standard deviations for both the experimental and control group concerning the pre-test and the delayed post-test. As it is seen the mean of the delayed post-test scores is higher than the mean of the pre-test in both groups.

Table 9: Paired Samples t- test (pre-test vs. delayed post-test)

Group	Test	Paired Differences				
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
Experimental	pretest vs. post-test	13.000	8.940	1.632	16.338	9.662
Control	pretest vs. post-test	12.500	8.050	1.470	15.506	9.494

Table 9 shows the results of the Paired Samples *t*-test. Under "Paired Differences" we can see the descriptive statistics for the difference between the two variables. The mean is 13.000 and the standard deviation is 8.940 for the experimental group; the mean and the standard deviation for the control group are 12.500 and 8.050 respectively.

Table 10: Paired Samples t-test (pre-test vs. delayed post-test)

Group	Tests	*t*	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Experimental	Pretest vs. Posttest	7.964	29	.000
Control	Pretest vs. Posttest	8.504	29	.000

Table 10 indicates that the *t* value for the experimental and control groups are 7.964 and -8.504 respectively, the degree of freedom is 29 and the significant level is .000, that is to say, there is a significant difference between the pre-test and the delayed post-test scores.

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Paired Samples t-test (immediate post-test vs. delayed post-test)

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-test and recall test of both groups were collected and analyzed.

Table 11: Paired Samples Statistics (immediate post-test vs. delayed post-test)

Groups	Post-tests	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Experimental	Immediate	42.7800	30	7.60018	1.38760
	Delayed	26.1667	30	11.54626	2.10805
Control	Immediate	40.8833	30	7.16243	1.30767
	Delayed	27.2000	30	9.36022	1.70894

Table 11 shows the means and the standard deviations of the immediate and delayed-post-test of both the experimental and control groups. Table 12 illustrates Paired Samples *t*-test analysis of immediate and delayed post-tests in both groups.

Table 12: Paired Samples t- test- A (immediate post-test vs. delayed post-test)

Group	Tests	Paired Differences				
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
Experimental	recall vs. retention	16.613	8.001	1.460	19.601	13.625
Control	recall vs. retention	13.683	11.449	2.090	9.408	17.958

Table 12 shows the results of the Paired Samples t-test. Under "Paired Differences" we can see the descriptive statistics for the difference between the two variables. The mean is -16.613 and the standard deviation is 8.001 for the experimental group; the mean and the standard deviation of the control group are 13.683 and 11.449 respectively.

Table 13: Paired Samples t-test-B (immediate post-test vs. delayed post-test)

Groups	Test	*t*	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Experimental	recall vs. retention	11.372	29	.000
Control	recall vs. retention	6.546	29	.000

Table 13 indicates that the observed *t* value for the experimental and control groups are 11.372 and 6.546 respectively, the degree of freedom is 29 and the significant level is .000. Since the observed *t* value in both groups is greater than critical *t*, 11.372 > 2.66 and 6.546 > 2.66, so there is a significant difference between the immediate and delayed post-test scores.

Discussion

The first question asked whether concept sort strategy improve pre-intermediate EFL learners' vocabulary recall. One of the major concerns of the present study was to explore the effectiveness of concept sort strategy on the EFL learners' vocabulary recall. To answer this question the results obtained from the immediate post-test of the experimental and the control groups were compared. Thus based on these findings, enough support was not provided for rejecting the first null hypothesis which indicates that applying concept sort strategy does not affect the pre-intermediate EFL learners' vocabulary recall. Thus it can be inferred that both the experimental and the control groups performed similarly on the immediate post-tests.

Considering the results obtained from the analysis of the related data, it can be argued that the methods used in teaching vocabulary in our setting were mainly traditional. Instructors teach vocabulary through translation, using monolingual and bilingual dictionaries, etc. Consequently, the language learners are not very familiar with innovative methods of teaching vocabulary such as concept sort strategy, so they need enough related background and should be trained before conducting concept sort vocabulary training. Another reason could be the language proficiency level of the language learners who took part in the study. Since concept sort is a strategy which needs elaboration in the target language, thus the language learners should be highly proficient. Last but not least, some of the language learners despised working in groups; in the researcher's opinion it can be one of reasons for the deficiency of concept sort strategy in improving the learner's vocabulary recall.

The findings of the first research question do not match with the ideas of many cognitive psychologists presented in chapter two who believe that activities requiring a deeper, more involved manipulation of information are more conducive to learning and retention of vocabulary meanings (Craik & Tulving, 1975; Brown & Perry, 1991; Hulstijn, 2001). These cognitive psychologists also reported that deeper encodings took longer time to accomplish and were associated with higher levels of performance on the subsequent recall test.

Since concept sort strategy involves some sort of guessing, so the findings of the second hypothesis are not in line with a number of studies indicated support for the stand that deeper processing leads to better vocabulary retention which was stated in chapter two of the present study. For instance, Haastmp (1991) and Ellis (1994) stated that activities such as guessing from context are more conducive for it engages learners in hypothesis formation and testing about word meaning. And that of Hulstijn's (1992) study in which he suggested that "meaning inferred" yielded higher retention than "meaning given".

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. There exists statistically significant difference between the immediate and the delayed post-tests scores in both groups, in other words, the mentioned statistics are enough to reject the third hypothesis, and that is, interval between immediate and delayed post-tests affects the EFL learners' vocabulary achievement. As the results of the third research question showed that the interval between the immediate and delayed post-tests may result in forgetting and thus decreases the vocabulary achievement. The participants in the study did not know that after three weeks they were supposed to take a delayed post-test, so possibly they did not review what they had learned and consequently did not do well in the delayed post-test. It seems that repetition is very effective in the retention of the learned vocabulary and possibly can attenuate forgetting.

CONCLUSION

This study was an attempt to investigate the effectiveness of concept sort strategy on Iranian pre-intermediate EFL learners' vocabulary recall and retention. As was mentioned earlier, vocabulary learning is crucial to second language acquisition. However, the findings of this study concerning concept sort strategy did not show a positive effect on vocabulary recall and retention, that is, the results of the study did not indicate the superiority of concept sort strategy over traditional ways in terms of improving Iranian EFL learners' vocabulary recall and retention. The findings of the study also revealed that interval between the immediate and the delayed post-test affects the EFL learners' vocabulary achievement. This interval may affect the loss of learning. However, it needs further research to study the length of interval and the loss of vocabulary achievement.

Concerning the inefficiency of concept sort strategy in improving Iranian EFL learners vocabulary recall and retention, the researcher also found that this strategy was considered odd by some of the participants in the study and they were not used to the new strategy. It should be stated that innovative strategies such as concept sort strategy, require strong foundations, that is, learners need to build a background concerning current ideas and strategies in teaching vocabulary before the main course of instructions.

In conclusion, it can be said that the findings of present study revealed that applying concept sort strategy does not improve 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.

Strategy training is a useful way to eliminate this problem. Language learning strategy training is the path through which learner autonomy can appropriately be achieved. As a result, learners are also recommended to get familiar with innovative vocabulary teaching strategies, especially concept sort and its underlying principles in order to

benefit from its advantages. Language learners are recommended to gain some knowledge concerning concepts such as mental map, schematic knowledge and conceptual mapping.

Teachers should try to familiarize their students with innovative vocabulary teaching strategies such as the one explored in this study, that is, concept sort strategy. However, before teaching students how to use strategies effectively, teachers should be trained in strategy instruction and assessment. They should be equipped with appropriate strategies to be able to propose the students with the appropriate ones that can deal with difficult academic tasks. If, for instance, one strategy does not work they should be able to suggest another alternative. What is more, teachers should design activities that will require them to make use of a variety of strategies and after the completion of the task they should hold a discussion session with students talking about the strategies they use, whether these strategies proved to be useful or not. In this way, while the teachers will have the opportunity to see to what extent each of the students is successful in the orchestration of the strategies, the students will be able to hear or see what strategies their peers use. Thus, they will be given the opportunity to make self-evaluation, decide which is better for them, or learn an alternative way of doing a particular task.

Curriculum developers and material producers should definitely work in cooperation with both teachers and students. Together with teachers, they should decide what learning strategies they need to identify. Indeed it is the curriculum developers' responsibility to allocate enough time in the curriculum for teachers to conduct strategy research in their classes. Material producers should produce materials that teachers will use throughout their class research. According to the findings of this study, it is suggested that material designers develop teaching materials based on the instruction strategies, especially on concept sort strategy.

The present study was undertaken in order to examine the effects of concept sort on vocabulary learning strategy at the pre-intermediate level. However, it suffers from a number of drawbacks. The number of participants was too small to allow anything but tentative conclusions regarding the effect of concept sort strategy on vocabulary recall and retention. In the course of this study many questions have risen some of which are included here with the hope that they will be pursued and investigated: (1) It is strongly suggested that a research with the same characteristics of this study including more participants to be conducted in an attempt to find the obtained results. (2) Similar studies can be done on other proficiency levels, namely intermediate, upper-intermediate and advanced. (3) Future studies can include concept sort strategy compared to other innovative teaching strategies such as semantic mapping and key word method. (4) A future study is essential in which the immediate and delayed post-tests are conducted at different time intervals to show the effectiveness of concept sort strategy in shorter and longer periods.

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THE EFFECT OF PAIR AND PEER CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK MODALITIES ON SECOND LANGUAGE WRITING SKILLS AMONG IRANIAN PRE-INTERMEDIATE EFL LEARNERS

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ABSTRACT
This study investigated the teachers and student's attitudes towards English teachers' feedback on learning English grammar rules and working on a list of grammatical points. Research population included 301 pre-university students (i.e., 170 girls and 131 boys) who were selected through random clustering sampling. Then three groups comprised of 16 participants were assigned to form two experimental groups (i.e. peer and pair) and a control group. Experimental group (A) received peer, experimental group (B) received pair and the control group received individual (i.e., teacher) grammar feedback. 22 English teachers were participated in the study. They were teaching English to the participants in the study in the schools where the students enrolled in English courses. This study utilized two researcher-made questionnaires which allowed the researcher to gather a relatively large amount of data. Pre and post questionnaire analysis were used to determine the effect of teacher, peer and pair feedback in grammar classes. Statistical analysis of Chi-square (X2), Independent t-test and Pearson correlation analyses were used to analyze data. T-test analysis showed that there was not a significant difference between girls and boys in attitudes towards teacher's skills in providing feedback. Chi-square analysis showed that the students only have positive attitudes towards pair feedback while they significantly have negative attitudes towards individual feedback. It was realized that there was a high and significant correlation coefficient between individual feedback and teachers' skills in providing feedback. Implications f the study revealed that teachers could be the main sources of feedback in teaching grammar and should detect the errors and correct them immediately.

KEYWORDS: Attitudes, corrective feedback, English teachers, writing skills

INTRODUCTION
Feedback defined as information communicated to the learner that is intended to modify the learner's thinking or behavior for the purpose of improving learning. According to researchers in the area, feedback should be multidimensional, non evaluative, supportive, timely, specific, credible, infrequent, and genuine. Feedback is usually presented as information to a learner in response to some action on the learner's part. It comes in a variety of types (e.g., verification of response accuracy, explanation of the correct answer, hints, worked examples) and can be administered at various times during the learning process (Ellis, 2010).

There are certainly numerous ways to address students' linguistic errors and it is not being suggested that teachers have to select one strategy and use this and only this method to correct all grammatical errors (Ellis, 2009). Indeed, teachers mix and match error correction strategies. For example, teachers may opt to use indirect error correction methods for more local issues such as morphological errors (Hyland & Hyland, 2006a). However, students may be less capable of self-correcting various lexical errors and more complex, global problems with sentence structure as there is no handbook or set of rules students can consult to avoid or fix those types of errors. These 'untreatable' errors may require more direct corrective feedback (Ferris, 2004).

While the correction of grammatical inaccuracies has received significant attention, teacher feedback is not only concerned with correcting linguistic errors (Ferris, 2003). Teacher response can also include more lengthy

277

commentary and this can address structure, organization, style, content and presentation, as well as grammatical or mechanical issues.

When the learners learn the second language specially the writing skill, the learners still have some difficulties, such as the pronunciation, grammar, limited of vocabulary, or their fluency. There will be some errors made by the learners when they do a conversation in the writing classroom. At this time, the role of lecturer is very important (Ellis, 2010). The lecturer has to give some correction to the learners about their error that they have made. Error is typically produced by learners who do not yet fully command some institutionalized language system. Shortly, error is usually made by the student who has been learning the target language. There are several strategies teachers can employ to correct their students' surface-level errors (Leki, 2006).

The main problem in this research is to determine the effects of the pair and peer feedbacks in writing as an essential skill in second language learning. The purpose of this study is to investigate teacher's attitudes toward the role of pair and peer feedback in writing learning and students ' preferences regarding written error correction.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Feedback used in educational contexts is generally regarded as crucial to improving knowledge and skill acquisition. In addition to its influence on achievement, feedback is also depicted as a significant factor in motivating learning. However, for learning, the story on feedback is not quite so rosy or simple (Hyland, 2003). According to Cohen and Cavalcanti (1990) feedback is one of the more instructionally powerful and least understood features in instructional design. In support of this claim, consider the hundreds of research studies published on the topic of feedback and its relation to learning and performance during the past 50 years. Within this large body of feedback research, there are many conflicting findings and no consistent pattern of results. Consider just one facet of feedback: elaboration (i.e., explanatory information within a feedback message). Some studies report that elaborative feedback produces significantly greater learning among students compared with feedback containing less information (Silva, 1993).

According to Ellis (2009), teachers can provide direct, indirect or meta linguistic corrective feedback. The first involves the teacher identifying linguistic errors and providing students with the correct form. Indirect feedback, on the other hand, simply entails indicating that an error exists. Students' attention can be drawn to such errors by indicating and locating the errors in the text using techniques such as underlining or circling, or by indicating in the margin that an error has been made in that line of the text. The latter strategy, meta linguistic feedback, involves the teacher providing the learner with some form of explicit comment on the nature of the errors they have made. Again there is more than one way to do this. Teachers may opt to number the linguistic errors in the text and provide brief grammatical descriptions for each error at the end of the text. However, this strategy is time-consuming and teachers have generally favored the faster option; the use of an error correction code. This involves placing an abbreviated label or symbol, which shows the nature of the error and the type of correction needed, next to the error or in the margin.

However, other studies show that increasing the amount of feedback information has no effect on learning or performance. The main aim of formative feedback is to increase student knowledge, skills, and understanding in some content area or general skill (e.g., problem solving), and there are multiple types of feedback that may be employed toward this end (e.g., response specific, goal directed, immediately delivered, and so on). In addition to various formats of feedback, there are also different functions. There are two main functions of feedback: directive and facilitative (Ferris, 1999). Directive feedback tells the student what needs to be fixed or revised. Such feedback tends to be more specific than facilitative feedback, which provides comments and suggestions to help guide students in their own revision and conceptualization (Ashwell, 2000). Despite the perceived importance of error correction and the amount of emphasis that both teachers and students place on it, nevertheless, doubts often arise on the effectiveness of error correction due to the pervasive phenomenon that students keep making the same mistakes even after being corrected many times.

A number of empirical studies (e.g., Ferris, Pezone, Tade, & Tinti, 1997)confirm such a phenomenon by producing evidence that indicates the failure of teacher feedback to improve student accuracy in writing. The futility of error correction caused some scholars, in particular, to claim that grammar correction is ineffective and harmful, and should be abandoned all together in the writing class. Secretly, the researcher hopes that she can agree with Truscott's (2004) argument because responding to students' written errors is indeed tedious and time-consuming. Would not it be a lot easier if writing instructors all agreed that grammar correction does not work, hence freeing themselves from the burden of marking and coding student errors? Before jumping to the conclusion, however, the researcher would like to ascertain the usefulness of grammar correction through an action research

project, as they simply cannot get rid of the responsibility of helping students write more correct English (Truscott, 1996). Error correction, whether oral or written, is the process of providing clear, comprehensive, and consistent corrective feedback on a student's grammatical errors for the purpose of improving the student's ability to write accurately (Ferris,2002). It can be argued that providing written error correction is indispensible because it plays an important role in guiding, motivating, and encouraging students to improve their accuracy in L2 writing (Brannon, & Knoblauch, 1982). Despite the process of providing corrective feedback being frustrating, difficult, and time- consuming, teachers still prefer to provide written error correction because it allows for individualized teacher-to-student communication that is rarely possible in the day- to-day operations of an L2 writing class (Ferris, Pezone, Tade, & Tinti, 1997). This begs the question: what is the function of providing written error correction? The following section will discuss the roles of error correction in L2 instruction. Many writing teachers now use peer response or peer editing in the ESL/EFL writing classrooms (Leki, 1992). The idea being that development takes place through interaction with others as peer review gives writers the opportunities to discuss their texts and discover other students' interpretations of them (Hyland & Hyland, 2006). The pedagogical practice of peer response originated in L1 writing classrooms and was subsequently adopted in L2 classrooms. It was assumed that its successes in L1 contexts would be emulated in L2 contexts. However, while there have been some positive findings (Paulus, 1999) overall the research has produced mixed results. A major problem with peer response is that students find it hard to identify problem areas and may even offer inaccurate or misleading advice (Horowitz, 1986). L2 students also find it difficult to judge the validity of their peers' comments (Leki, 1990). Aspects such as cultural and educational backgrounds as well as a lack of training are significant factors that can contribute to the success or failure of peer feedback (Nelson & Carson, 2006).

RESEARCH QUESTION
This study aimed to know if there were any differences between the students' feedback modalities towards pair and peer feedback on improving their writing performance.

METHODOLOGY
Participants
The present research on written error correction incorporated both teachers as and students as participants. In addition, this study utilized a survey design (Rating Scale Questions) along with true experimental design, so the exerted approach is a purely quantitative approach. The method of sampling is clustering, Cluster sampling is a sampling technique used when relatively homogeneous groupings are evident in a statistical population. From 15 female and 12 male high schools in Bushehr, Iran, 6 female high schools and 4 male high schools were randomly selected. In this study, the sample consisted of 170 male and 131 male pre-university students.

Questionnaires
In this study, to investigate students' and teachers' attitudes toward corrective feedback, two questionnaires were utilized; a 19-item teachers' questionnaire and a 21- item questionnaire for students. These questionnaires contained two subscales: subjects' attitudes towards teachers' skills' in providing feedback and their preferences of feedbacks. Test reliability of the students' questionnaires using Cranach's alpha coefficient was obtained about 0.70, on the other side; the test reliability of the teachers' questionnaires using Cranach's alpha coefficient was obtained about 0.72. In order to test the validity of the research, the correlation coefficient between the questions and the total score was calculated. The correlation coefficient ranged between 0.22 to 0.57.Also, all of them were significant.

Design
In order to conduct the experiment, there were three groups who are arranged according to the following diagram.

RE1	X_1	T2
RE2	X_2	T2
RC	C	T2

Figure 1: Experimental Design of this study

RE1: The group who received peer feedback
RE2: The group who received pair feedback
RC: The group who received individual feedback
X_1: Peer corrective feedback
X_2: Pair corrective feedback
C: Individual (i.e., traditional or teacher) feedback

Procedure
The study took place within the context of a 4-week intensive course held at Marefet language institution. The course consisted of only one session per week and included classes on learning of English grammar rules and working on a list of grammar points such as syntax of word(Q1) , knowing how to answer questions when we want to accept or refuse an invitation(Q2), writing questions to ask for permission or to take a request(Q3), writing questions with would you like or could you(Q4), writing sentences when words are disordered and come with adverbs of time such as before ,while ,when, after, and as soon as(Q5). Matching of verbs to their own parts(Q6), using future tense with will probably or probably won't while the part of sentences must be changed(Q7), matching each verb to its meaning (Q8),and diagnosing grammatically correct sentences(Q9). The researcher, teacher, were responsible for delivering the course; a series of English grammar rules and explanation about the rules. The course aimed to develop all skills, however there was a particular emphasis on the academically important writing skill.

There were a total of 12 classes among which three classes were made up of students planning to undertake this study because they were at the same level (pre-intermediate). All of 3 homogeneous classes followed set syllabi which specified week-by-week what should be covered. Every class consisted of 16 students. One of 16-student classes (class C) is considered as control group while another 16-student class (class B) is named experimental-1group; students of this class are worked and examined as pair (two persons) group. The last class (class A) was the peer (three persons) group. The teacher of the three classes was in charge of monitoring, assessing, correcting, and facilitating the learning of the students in the classroom. It is important to note that the name each group (C-Group, EL1, EL2) are randomly allocated to these three classes A, B, C. There was a set text book for all classes, interchange (Inside Track Series), which teacher was actively encouraged to use. However, the teacher was also expected to supplement with other materials.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
In order to test the research hypothesis, the three groups (EL1.EL2, and CG) were tested after training by the researcher. On the one side, the experimental-1 group (peer) worked on the assignments in three-handed way and the experimental-2 group (pair) worked on the assignments in twosome way and received group feedback. On the other side, the control group worked on their assignments individually and received individual feedback. In the other words, they received feedback from teacher. Then, the researcher compared their performance together. The performance results of them are presented in the below tables.

Table 1: Comparison of Group and Individual Performance

Groups	N	Mean	SD	df	T	P
Pair	8	17.94	0.98	11	1.18	0.91
Peer	5	18.6	0.96			

Table 1 shows that there was no significant difference between pair group and peer group in terms of class performance. For comparing students' performance in pair group and individual group, t-test was calculated. The performance results of them are presented in the below table.

Table 2: Comparison of Pair and Individual Groups

Groups	N	Mean	SD	df	T	P
Individual	16	17.5	1.46	22	0.77	0.41
Pair	8	17.94	0.98			

Table 2 shows that there was no significant difference between individual group and pair group in terms of class performance. To compare students' performance in individual group and peer group, t-test was calculated. The performance results of them are presented in the below table.

Table 3: Comparison of Individual and Peer Groups

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Groups	N	Mean	SD	df	T	P
Individual	16	17.5	2.13	19	1.57	0.09
Peer	5	18.6	0.96			

Table 3 shows that there were no significant difference between individual group and peer group in terms of class performance.

1. What is the students' attitude toward English language teachers' skills in providing feedback?

To answer this question, *Chi-square* or χ^2 is calculated.

Table 4: Teachers' Skills in Providing Feedback

Students' attitudes toward teachers' skill	N	Percent
Positive Attitude	147	48.8%
Negative Attitude	154	51.2%

$\chi^2=0.163$ df=1 P<0.687
Table 4 illustrates that Students evaluate teachers' skills in providing feedback at the intermediate level.

2. What is the teachers' attitude toward their own skills in providing corrective feedback?

To answer this question, C*hi-square* or χ^2 is calculated.

Table 5: Teachers' Skills in Providing Corrective Feedback

teachers' attitudes toward their own skills	N	Percent
Positive Attitude	10	45%
Negative Attitude	12	55%

$\chi^2=0.182$ df=1 p<0.67

Table 5. Shows that the teachers evaluate their own abilities at the intermediate level.

3. What is the student's attitude toward individual, peer and pair feedback in writing activities?

To answer this question, C*hi-square* or χ^2 is calculated.

Table 6: Students' Attitudes toward Pair Feedback

Attitudes	N	Percent	df	χ^2	P
Positive	167	55.47	1	3.618	0.057
Negative	134	44.51			

Table 7: Students' Attitudes toward Peer Feedback

Attitudes	N	Percent	df	χ^2	P
Positive	137	44.51	1	2.422	0.12
Negative	167	54.48			

Table 8: Students' Attitude toward Individual Feedback

Attitudes	N	Percent	df	χ^2	P
Positive	119	39.53	1	13.186	0.000
Negative	182	60.46			

The results show that students significantly have negative attitude towards individual feedback while they have positive attitudes towards pair group.

4. Are there any significant differences between the male and female students in terms of attitudes toward the individual, peer and pair feedback?

To answer this question, C*hi-square* or χ² is calculated.

Table 9: Comparison of Male and Female Students' Attitudes toward Peer Feedback

Group	N	Mean	Std.	df	t	P
Female students	170	12.88	3.8	299	-23	0.816
Male students	131	12.99	3.9			

Table 10: Comparison of Male and Female Students' Attitudes toward Pair Feedback

Group	N	Mean	df	t	P
Female students	170	10.58	299	-4.71	0.63
Male students	131	10.74			

Table 11: Comparison of Male and Female Students' Attitudes toward Individual Feedback

Group	N	Mean	df	t	P
Female students	170	6.37	299	3.43	0.001
Male students	131	5.67			

Above tables show that most female students prefer individual feedback. The curve of females' diagram is higher than boys' diagram. However, there is no significant difference between both female and male students toward pair and peer feedback.

5. Are there any significant relationships between teachers' skills and methods of giving feedback? To answer this question, the result is mentioned in the following table.

Table 12: Correlation Coefficients between Teachers' Skills and Methods of Feedback

variables	peer feedback	pair feedback	individual feedback	teachers' skills
Teachers' skills	.091	0.080	0.391**	1
Individual feedback	-0.125*	.021	1	
Pair feedback	0.557**	1		
Peer feedback	1			

Table 12 shows that there is a significant relationship between teachers' skills and individual feedback (p<0.001). In addition, there is a significant positive relation between peer and pair groups (p<0.001). Between individual and peer feedback there is a significant negative relation (p<0.01).

Discussion
The statistical result showed that there are no significant differences between these three learners' groups in terms of test scores. However, the mean score of peer group was higher than other groups, but this difference was not significant. Perhaps, the main reason of this result is that all of the learners were at the same level. Another reason that can be offered is the teachers' insufficiencies in giving feedback. this finding is not in harmony with the finding of Marzano, Pickering and Pollock (2001) state teacher's feedback had positive influence on learners, especially when the learners work in the peer group and received feedback from their teachers. Teacher's feedback enhances

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student achievement by highlighting progress rather than deficiency. With progress feedback a student is given opportunities for checking-in with the teacher and multiple opportunities to ask questions. With progress feedback a student will be able to successfully self-monitor, have higher aspirations for further achievement, greater self-satisfaction, and higher performance overall. By taking the time to sit down with a student and offer constructive criticism, give necessary help, offer suggestions, and provide positive feedback, teachers can positively impact student learning. Many researchers believe lack of expertise in teaching strategies is a bigger impediment to effective teaching than lack of content expertise. Consequently, students evaluate themselves weak, poor, and inefficient. On the contrary, if students work in small groups, they will have much better performance. Also, working in small group enhances student understanding. Students learn from each other and benefit from activities that require them to articulate and test their knowledge. Pair work provides an opportunity for students to clarify and refine their understanding of concepts through discussion and rehearsal with pairs.

Many, but not all, students recognize the value to their personal development of pair working and of being assessed as a member of a group. Working with a small group also motivates some students. Pair group assessment helps some students develop a sense of responsibility. Pair work can facilitate the development of skills, which include:

1) Teamwork skills (skills in working within team dynamics; leadership skills)
2) Analytical and cognitive skills (analyzing task requirements; questioning; critically interpreting material; evaluating the work of others)
3) Collaborative skills in pair group (conflict management and resolution; accepting intellectual criticism; flexibility; negotiation and compromise)
4) Organizational and time management skills

Slavin (1996) states there are many quite different forms of pair learning, but all of them involve having students work in small groups or teams to help one another learn academic material. Pair is a type of co-operating learning usually supplements the teacher's instruction by giving students an opportunity to discuss information or practice skills originally presented by the teacher. While there is a general consensus among researchers about the positive effects of co-operative learning on student achievement, there remains a controversy about why and how they affect achievement. Slavin, Hurley, and Chamberlain (2001) identified motivationalist, social cohesion, cognitive developmental and cognitive-elaboration as the four major theoretical perspectives held by different researchers on the achievement effects of co-operative learning.

The motivationalist perspective presumes that task motivation has the greatest impact on the learning process, and that the other processes (such as planning and helping) are driven by individuals' motivated self interest. Motivationalist scholars focus especially on the reward or goal structure under which students operate. By contrast, the social cohesion perspective (also called "social interdependence theory") suggests that the effects of co-operative learning are largely dependent on the cohesiveness of the group. In this perspective, students help each other to learn because they care about the group and its members and come to derive the benefits of self-identity from group membership (Johnson & Johnson, 1999). It assumes that motivation to learn and to encourage and help others to do so activates pair behaviors that will result in learning. This includes both task motivation and motivation to interact in the group. In this model, motivation to succeed leads directly to learning, and it also drives the behavior and attitudes that foster group cohesion, which in turn facilitates the types of group interactions - peer modeling, equilibration, and cognitive elaboration that yield enhanced learning and academic achievement.

To statistical analysis the student' questionnaire, the research question number (4) that examined, are there any significant differences between the male and female students in terms of attitudes towards the individual, peer and pair feedback, t-test for independent groups was calculated. The result showed that there are significant differences between male and female pre-university students in terms of attitudes toward individual feedback (p<0.000).it was observes female students significantly have positive attitudes toward individual feedback. The most female students prefer that the teachers correct their errors and provide feedback to them individually. Perhaps it can be said that the achievement motivations of students do have significant difference in genders and female students have higher achievement motivations than male students. Achievement motivation generally refers to that a person is willing to do things that he or she considers important or valuable and endeavors to achieve perfect results. A person with achievement motivation will lay high requirement on him or herself and endeavor for success. The level of

achievement motivations has significant meanings to individual development as well as to social progress. For an individual, achievement motivation is an important psychological system that inspires self-achievement and promotes individual development. At the same time, it is one of the key elements that will determine the success of an individual. For a society, the achievement motivations of its people, together with national economy growth, accumulation of social treasures and the improvement of technology, is considered as important index of social prosperity and progress. According to the views of psychologists, the main motivations for students studying are reflected on achievement motivation and researches show that achievement motivation is the key element that influences students' self-monitoring capacity and study efficiency. It can be claimed that it is not so important for the female students that their teachers correct their errors individually.

To statistical analysis the student' questionnaire, question number (5) that examined, Are there any significant relationships between teachers' skills and methods of giving feedback, Pearson correlation coefficient was calculated. The result showed that the teachers' skill in individual feedback had a high correlation coefficient ($p<0.001$, $r = 0.39$). This result proves this fact that whatever the teacher is more adept at giving feedback, he/she will be able to provide more individual feedback. So, the teachers detect the errors pretty well and correct them immediately. Another finding showed that there is a significant correlation between pair and peer groups ($p<0.001$, $r = 0.557$). This result proves this fact that the teachers' abilities in providing feedback to the groups are almost at the same level. Consequently, it can be concluded there is no difference between pair and peer groups. This finding is in harmony with the result of Gneezy (2003) claims there is no gap when participants are working in small or somewhat larger group.

CONCLUSION

The result showed that the most of students estimated their teachers at the average level in terms of providing feedback. The students did not evaluate their teachers with positive views. In other words, they were pessimistic about teaching strategies. To some extent, this result was in harmony with the research hypothesis. Almasi (2003) believe most of teachers ignore the strategic process while they must emphasize on process, not just on product. The focus in most classes is on the mastery of domain-specific knowledge and skills and the products students produce to demonstrate that mastery. The focus is rarely on the process by which these products are created. On the basis of these experiences, students are very focused on product, much less so on process. Consequently, it is critical when assigning group work to clearly emphasize the importance of domain-general "process" skills, such as clear communication and conflict management. In addition, most of teachers do not know how and where to use their information.

The result also showed that that the most of teachers estimated their own abilities at the average level in terms of providing feedback. The teachers did not evaluate their capacities with positive views. In other words, they were pessimistic about their teaching strategies. To some extent, this result was in harmony with the research hypothesis and first question. This matter proves that the teachers' teaching methods were incomplete and insufficient. So, reforming and modification were needed in this area. It can be said that this result is in harmony with the findings of Ellis (2009) stated strategic teaching, and, concomitantly, strategic learning are techniques in which significant student-teacher interaction and resultant learning and thinking are at the high end of the scale. Strategic teaching describes instructional processes that focus directly on fostering student thinking, but goes well beyond that. Strategic teaching and strategic learning are inexorably linked. A strategic teacher has an understanding of the variables of instruction and is aware of the cognitive requirements of learning. In such awareness, come a sense of timing and a style of management.

The result showed that that the students only have positive attitudes towards pair feedback while they significantly have negative attitudes towards individual feedback ($p< 0.001$). This result illustrates that students prefer to work and do their assignments in small groups while teachers give feedback to them. Perhaps, the main reason of students who had negative attitudes is that this type of feedback may break down their self-esteem, so they lose their self-efficacy senses since teachers may shift the responsibility of giving the corrective feedback frequently to their students and help them to achieve self-efficacy.

There were some limitations in the study procedures which involved the teachers who did not care much about giving appropriate and immediate corrective feedback during the teaching of grammar. The teachers merely taught the content and believe that only transferring of contents is sufficient for students' learning grammar.

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CRITICAL THEORY IN SOCIAL SCIENCES AND EVALUATION OF CONTENT-BASED APPROACHES TO LANGUAGE TEACHING

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ABSTRACT
Though language teaching methods have been widely transformed in the recent decades under the influence of post-method revolution as well as critical theory in education, some of the practices of communicative era are still the focus of curriculum development in many parts of the world. Task-based (TBLT) and content-based language teaching (CBLT) are among these approaches both of which root in communicative language teaching philosophy. Adopting a critical approach to the study of language teaching practice, the present paper tries to evaluate how content-based approach can meet the criteria of a critical pedagogy to meet the socio-ideological expectations as well as communicative needs of language learners in the educational environment at the present time. The outcome of our analysis based on the critical pedagogy framework shows that CBLT can potentially be adapted and adopted to meet the standards of critical educational paradigm if some of its practices are given more conscious heed. The implication of the present study is that we will be more moderate in totally rejecting all the previous techniques and practices in language teaching, and instead, will adopt a more pragmatic view for enhancing the quality of our pedagogy.

KEYWORDS: Critical pedagogy; Content-based language teaching; Ideology; LSP; Learners' needs

INTRODUCTION

Contrary to the more traditional definitions of methodology, the modern perspective in the field looks for more practical aspects of language teaching and learning, especially with respect to critical theory focusing on individual as well as social involvement of learners in the process of language acquisition. Among developments in language teaching following communicative era, content-based language instruction in education and language teaching has been prevalent in the past few decades as a response to the immediate needs of human societies in using and learning English as an international language. In fact, the integration of language and content instruction has been a growing phenomenon in the language field since the early 1980s. Programs, models, and approaches have proliferated at all levels of instruction, from elementary schools through postsecondary levels, bringing with them a foundation to identify instructional settings where language and content are integrated. For many second and foreign language educators, the various forms of language/content integration fall under the rubric of content-based instruction.

The term "content-basedinstruction" iscommonly used to describe approaches to integrating language and content instruction, but it is not always used in the same way. For example, Crandall and Tucker (1990) define it as "...an approach to language instruction that integrates the presentation of topics or tasks from subject matter classes (e.g., math, social studies) within the context of teaching a second or foreign language" (p. 187). Curtain and Pesola (1994) use the term in a more restricted way, limiting it to only those "...curriculum concepts being taught through the foreign language ... appropriate to the grade level of the students..." (p. 35). Krueger and Ryan (1993) distinguish between content-based and form-basedinstruction, and note that the term *discipline-based* instructionmore appropriately captures the integration of language learning with different academic disciplines and contents.

One manifestation of such programs is in courses of Language for Specific Purposes (ESP) as far as the learning outcome of the whole activity is concerned. The more traditional view looked at LSP as a product, while this view

was challenged later by shift of orientation which considered LSP not as any particular language product but as an approach to language teaching which is directed by specific and apparent reasons for learning (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). In the product approach, there was concentration on the features of the actual text as the end product as a purely mechanical task which involves no real thought about the purpose of the discourse. However, the process approach focused on the thinking and problem solving task as the more significant dimension of the whole task. (Dudley-Evans & Jo ST John, 1998).

Ken Hyland (2009) stated that an aspect of LSP is that it is based upon a solution-oriented approach focusing on the specific communicative competencies needed by learners. There is much stress on the fact that language teaching is not simply concerned with teaching words, structured or lexical phrases divorced from any real context of use.

Elsewhere, research in SLA shows that students do not learn in a step-by–step fashion according to some externally imposed sequence, but acquire features of the language as they need them (Hyland, 2009).

One important aspect of LSP which has some methodological implications for language teaching is the concept of learning through "content". According to Kasper (1997), in content-based approaches to instruction, students are presented with discipline-based materials, and the main focus of instruction is the acquisition of disciplinary information. Wesche (1993) defines content-based instruction as concurrent learning of specific content and related language use skilled in a content-driven curriculum with the selection and sequencing of language elements determined by content. Essential to all content-based instruction is a view of language acquisition which emphasizes the incidental internalization of new knowledge by the learner from rich target language data, while focusing on meaning to be communicated.
Elsewhere, Snow and Brinton (1997) argue that studies in depth-of- processing indicate that the presentation of coherent and meaningful information leads to deeper learning. In fact, content-based language learning promotes extended study of coherent content and relevant language learning activities via integration of language and content.Another aspect of language learning is that not all knowledge about language is explicit in origin (Basturkmen, 2006).

Ellis (1997) argues that implicit knowledge is the default mode of cognition and language learning would be an impossible task if each rule and pattern had to be learnt as explicit information in the first place. Implicit knowledge is acquired without awareness. A new implicit rule that is first accessed slowly and inconsistently is later used without effort (automatic processing).

Parkinson (2000) reports on the advantage of a content-based approach to teaching English, noting that in such an approach, learners are able to build on their previous knowledge via being exposed to the contextualized use of language and hence are prepared for the eventual uses to which language would be put.

CRITICAL THEORY
Critical theory is a school of thought that stresses the reflective assessment and critique of society and culture by applying knowledge from the social sciences and the humanities. This theory is a social theory oriented toward critiquing and changing societyas a whole, in contrast to traditional theory oriented only to understanding or explaining it. Horkheimer wanted to distinguish critical theory as a radical, emancipatory form of Marxism theory, critiquing both the model of science put forward by logical positivism and what he and his colleagues saw as the covert positivism and authoritarianism of orthodox Marxism and Communism.

Critical Theory has a narrow and a broad meaning in philosophy and in the history of the social sciences. "Critical Theory" in the narrow sense designates several generations of German philosophers and social theorists in the Western European Marxist tradition known as the Frankfurt School. According to these theorists, a "critical" theory may be distinguished from a "traditional" theory according to a specific practical purpose: a theory is critical to the extent that it seeks human emancipation, "to liberate human beings from the circumstances that enslave them" (Horkheimer 1982, 244). Because such theories aim to explain and transform *all* the circumstances that enslave human beings, many "critical theories" in the broader sense have been developed. They have emerged in connection with the many social movements that identify varied dimensions of the domination of human beings in modern societies. In both the broad and the narrow senses, however, a critical theory provides the descriptive and normative bases for social inquiry aimed at decreasing domination and increasing freedom in all their forms.

Critical Theorists have long sought to distinguish their aims, methods, theories, and forms of explanation from standard understandings in both the natural and the social sciences. Instead, they have claimed that social inquiry

ought to combine rather than separate the poles of philosophy and the social sciences: explanation and understanding, structure and agency, regularity and normativity. Such an approachpermits their enterprise to be *practical* in a distinctively moral (rather than instrumental) sense. They do not merely seek to provide the means to achieve some independent goal, but rather (as in Horkheimer's famous definition mentioned above) seek "human emancipation" in circumstances of domination and oppression. This normative task cannot be accomplished apart from the interplay between philosophy and social science through interdisciplinary empirical social research (Horkheimer 1993). While Critical Theory is often thought of narrowly as referring to the Frankfurt School that begins with Horkheimer and Adorno and stretches to Marcuse and Habermas, any philosophical approach with similar practical aims could be called a "critical theory," including feminism, critical race theory, and some forms of post-colonial criticism.

It follows from Horkheimer's definition that a critical theory is adequate only if it meets three criteria: it must be explanatory, practical, and normative, all at the same time. That is, it must explain what is wrong with current social reality, identify the actors to change it, and provide both clear norms for criticism and achievable practical goals for social transformation. Any truly critical theory of society, as Horkheimer further defined it in his writings as Director of the Frankfurt School's Institute for Social Research, "has as its object human beings as producers of their own historical form of life" (Horkeimer 1993, 21).

As its core concepts, critical social theory should be directed at the totality of society in its historical specificity (i.e. how it came to be configured at a specific point in time). Meanwhile, it should improve understanding of society by integrating all the major social sciences, including geography, economics, sociology, history, political sciences, anthropology and psychology.

As far as language is concerned, Frankfurt school of thought as the main branch of critical theory reiterated that culture is the base of social behavior and language is the source of how power is shared and distributed. In other words, language is at the service of ideology and the ruling power hides itself behind language.One of the distinguishing characteristics of critical theory, as Adorno and Horkheimer elaborated in their *Dialectic of Enlightenment*(1947), is a certain ambivalence concerning the ultimate source or foundation of social domination.

All versions of critical theory focus on the processes by which human communication, culture, and political consciousness are created. Furthermore, a critical theory in social sciences focus on aspects of feminist, poststructuralist and post-modernism in framing its research and instructional methodologies. We find here considerations of culture, gender, race, instruction, assessment, and communicative action.

A FRAMEWORK FOR CRITICAL EVALUATION OF CONTENT-BASED INSTRUCTION
In order to evaluate content-based approach to language teaching, there should be a framework based on which the features of the approach are examined. The KARDSmetaphor framework put forward by Kumaravadivelu (2012) areamong the most compatible paradigms for looking at the practice of language teaching critically.This framework attempts to do away with the ideas of a linear, discreet, additive, and compartmentalized character of language education. Instead, the framework "aims at providing a cyclical, integrated, interactive, multidirectional and multidimensional focus for it."(Kumaravadivelu, 2012, p. 17).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS
To checkmark the features of content-based language instruction with the critical criteria of our framework, the details of the approach as stated in the literature on methodology were investigated and the following results were found in the present study. The following is an outline of the features of content-based approach within the critical theory framework. In cases the literature on content-based approach remain silent with respect to any of the items of the framework, we have used the symbol "Ø" to show the status of the approach.

Knowing
Professional knowledge of Language: Language is text and discourse-based.
        Language draws on integrated skills.

Language is purposeful (pragmatism)

*Professional knowledge of Learning:*Language is a means of acquiring information.
Learning happens when the information is interesting and useful.

Procedural knowledge(managing learning): Autonomous and emergent based on needs

Personal knowledge(individual reflection): Active interpreter of input, and needs to be tolerant of ambiguity.

Analyzing
Learner needs: Richards and Rodgers (2001) noted that content-based instruction better reflect learners' needs for learning a second language. This view also holds strongly that language is text and discourse-based and also it is purposeful. Also, one of its principles is that learning happens best when it addresses students' needs.

Learner motivation: It is claimed that teaching a language through content when language is incidental to the learning of content can foster motivation in learning the language.

Learner autonomy: One goal of CBI is for learners to become autonomous as they come to understand their own learning processes and take charge of their own learning (Stryker and Leaver, 1993)

Rcogniing
Teacher identities: Although as a human individual, the teacher naturally has an identity of himself, the literature on content-based instruction does not mention any ideas on the type of role that the teacher's identity can play in the teaching practice.

*Teacher beliefs:*Ø
Teacher values (morality of teaching): Ø

Doing
Teaching: (maximizing learning opportunities &Mentoring personal transformation): By fostering autonomous learning as well as collaborative instruction, this criterion can bemet.

*Theorizing:*Traces of pragmatism can be detected as implied in the literature.
Dialogizing: Ø

Seeing
Learner perspective: Self-evaluation isindirectly done as learners try to see if they can   understand and learn the content by means of language they apply in the class

Teacher perspective: Although we still have asymmetry of power between the teacher and the students, the balance is compromised by a relative heavier weight put on learners' needs compared to those of other methods of language teaching.

*Observer perspective:*Although observation is an indispensible part of any teacher education and educational program, the literature does not state any discriminating feature for such activity in content-based instruction.

A characteristic of a content-based approach to language teaching is that it rejects synthetic approaches to course design where language and skills are believed to be atomized into discreet items to be presented and practiced once at a time. Content-based approaches make use of authentic texts to which learners are expected primarily to respond in relation to the content. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) noted that once we remove the text from its original context, it loses some of its authenticity. Another aspect of content-based approaches to language teaching is that they try to integrate the four language skills in the mode of presenting material into the learner.

However, a closer look at the findings of our critical analysis makes it clear that content-based language teaching has both points of strength and points of weakness with respect to critical perspective of modern education. The points of

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strength of this approach is that it tries to focus on the needs of learners and through this way, learners' ideology in indirectly recognized and respected both by the institution and the curriculum. Richards and Rodgers (2001) noted that content-based instruction better reflect learners' needs for learning a second language. This view also holds strongly that language is text and discourse-based and also it is purposeful.

However, content-based language teaching fails to meet some of the criteria set by the KARDS framework, namely the criteria of recognizing a role for dialogizing and cultural consciousness. That is while critical perspectives on language education stress the fact that language teaching and learning is a dialogic mediation. Such a perspective focuses our attention on the character and quality of classroom interaction and its mediating role in learners' overall conceptual development. This notion shifts attention to the norms that govern participation in an activity and the extent to which L2 learners are able to participate in that activity (Johnson, 2009).

When we focus on learners' participation in the whole learning activity, we automatically bring his/her identity into focus and naturally, his ideological construct shall play a definitive role in the whole learning process, for the teaching to bring about the most outcome and minimize pitfalls resulting from lack of attention to learners' identity and his ideological-being, the critical perspective calls upon us to adopt a globalizing view in language teaching which will call for principles of particularity, practicality and possibility (Kumaravadivelu, 2006). Although content-based approach tacitly adopts a relatively more globalized perspective through focusing on subject content instead of language content as medium of instruction, it needs some revisions to be able to meet the criteria set by critical framework with the detailed aspects of globalizing language teaching and learning.

Within a society, one comes across many forms of accommodationand assistance as well as domination and resistance. These formsare generally based on factors such as class, gender, race, ethnicity,nationality, religion, language, and sexual orientation. The same factorsplay a role in shaping classroom discourse as well (Kumaravadivelu, 1999). Even textbooks are not a neutral medium. They represent cultural values,beliefs, and attitudes. They reflect "a social construction that maybe imposed on teachers and students and that indirectly constructstheir view of a culture. This aspect often passes unrecognized" (Martin Cortazzi & Lixian Jin, 1999, p. 200). Critical recognition of thehidden cultural values embedded in centrally produced textbooks isa prerequisite for ensuring social relevance in the L2 classroom.

Similarly, based on post-structuralist views, language is not only a linguistic system of signs and symbols, but also a complex social practice through which relationships are defined, negotiated and resisted (Weedon, 1997). As Weedon the post-structuralist philosopher points out, language is the place where our sense of selves, our subjectivity, is constructed. A characteristic of subjectivity is the role the concept of power plays in such a notion. The post-structuralist notion of subjectivity means that the individual is considered to be diverse, contradictory, dynamic and changing over historical time and social space (Benwell & Stokoe, 2006).

An important aspect of language teaching and learning is that it is a process of identity formation which is not a function of what a person would like to be, but rather the function of negotiating identity positions in larger sociocultural, political and economic structures that he inhabits (Pavlenko & Blackledge, 2004). Elsewhere, Young (2008) stated that identity is constructed by the self and others, but we should not delude ourselves into believing that free individual agency is all that there is in identity construction. As a matter of fact, some identities are imposed by powerful others in the socio-political context. An important dimension of communication is that while one person may be exchanging information with another person, they are both sending messages about their cultural identity (Erfanian & Zarei, 2013). Also as far as teaching communication is concerned, According to Young (2008), the process of communicative action entails a special competence and ease of use of discourse that demonstrates membership of a particular group and the cultural territory to which a person stakes a claim.

As with the issue of identity formation, the acquisition of a second language is a challenging and threatening social experience in which the individual can be highly influenced both socially and psychologically. Any failure in the use of language and communication in the L2 environment can negatively influence the L2 acquirer even with respect to identity. The interesting point is that failure in second language learning and use not only disturbs the formation of L2 identity as a necessary stage of language socialization, but it can also threaten the L1 identity of an individual by damaging a person's self-esteem and sense of belonging to the immediate environment and society. In the process of sensitizing itself to the prevailing sociopolitical reality, a critical pedagogy is concerned with individual as well as

social identity. More than any other educational enterprise, L2 education that brings languages and cultures in contact provides its participants with challenges and opportunities for a continual quest for subjectivity and self-identity.

All these complexities force many scholars in education to talk about the death of fixed methods in teaching. According to Kumaravadivelu (2006), acontext-sensitive language education can emerge only from the practiceof a critical awareness of local conditions oflearning and teaching that policymakers and program administrators have to seriously consider in putting together an effective teaching agenda.More importantly, it involves practicing teachers, either individually or collectively,observing their teaching acts, evaluating their outcomes, identifyingproblems, finding solutions, and trying them out to see once again whatworks and what doesn't. In that sense.

CONCLUSION

The present study can have significant implications from two aspects. Firstly, it brings content-based material into focus not as a product, but as a process. Course designers and even the education institution in many countries face problems in motivating language learners for the task of language learning. Some part of such failure stems from the fact that some approaches to language teaching fail to take into account critical issues of the interaction in educational setting including matters of ideology and identity. The ignored values of the learners in the education process can lead to educational imperialism, a milieu of feeling inferior as passive in the process of learning which can cause to lack of optimal attainment in learning due to socio-psychological reasons. In the modern time, human-being is aware of his environment more than before and in all social encounters with him, he needs to be valued and his rights to be recognized both by the institution and by the individuals interacting with him.

The pains-taking nature of learning a foreign language, especially at its high level of communication and pragmatic proficiency calls for careful consideration of socio-cultural aspects of language learning. Addressing and attacking two fronts of needs and target situation simultaneously, if a content-based approach to course design and curriculum development considers critical issues in education, it can be effective to raise the quality of instruction by motivating language learners to pursuing the task of language practice and hence learning the language system. The reason for such an influence from a content-based approach to course design is that as learners feel that a course of language is concerned with their real needs, they feel the course to be more harmonious with their aims and hence, emotionally start to feel congenial with the course.

Limitations of the study

However, like most research activities, the present study has limitations of itself. The most important limitation of the present study is that we cannot guarantee that a teacher in a content-based instruction is always aware of the principles of critical approach to social issues including education. Perhaps a useful suggestion is to insert some training for language teachers with respect to socio-cultural issues to boost their awareness of the significance of the role such concepts play in the practice of language teaching and learning.

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CRITICAL THINKING ABILITY OF IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS AND THEIR ACADEMIC SELF-REGULATION

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ABSTRACT
This study was an attempt to investigate the relationship between Iranian English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners' academic self-regulation and their critical thinking ability. To achieve the purpose of the study, 90 EFL learners majoring in English Translation and TEFL were selected from Islamic Azad University, Dezful branch in Iran. They were requested to complete the "Honey's Critical Thinking Questionnaire" and the "Self-Regulation Trait Questionnaire". The data were analyzed using Pearson correlation coefficients. The results revealed a statistically significant and positive relationship between self-regulation and critical thinking ability. The findings may encourage educators to find effective ways for developing EFL learners' self-regulation and critical thinking ability.

KEYWORDS: Critical thinking ability, Self-regulation

INTRODUCTION
Focusing on individual differences in the realm of language teaching and learning is not a new phenomenon. In recent years, there has been a gradual shift from teacher-centered education to learner-centered one. This led researchers to focus on learners and learning processes rather than teaching processes. Thus, a concern arose with regard to how learners engage in their learning tasks in a second or a foreign language. By this shift, a further concern for the differences among learners came to the attention of EFL researchers (Yarahmadi, 2011)**.**

Critical thinking ability is one of the traits that lead to individual differences in student learning. Critical thinking helps individuals to think and analyze critically about their own learning, and to strive and develop expertise in their areas of professionalism.(Phan, 2010). A substantial theoretical and empirical base now exists in the literature to demonstrate the association of CT with students' academic success (Lee & Loughran, 2000). Evidence from previous studies indicates that critical thinking affects students' learning and performance outcome. Phan (2010) indicated that engaging in critical thinking helps improve students' academic performance. Ennis (1985) defines critical thinking as"reasonable and reflective thinking that is focused on deciding what to believe or do". According to Ghanizadeh (2011), it is apparent that these beliefs are not confined to external world. They can refer to one's internal world as an individual, i.e., people's internal systems and values such as self acceptance, self-actualization, self efficacy, self-regulation, etc. The focus of this study is one of these factors, i.e., self- regulation.

Self-regulation refers to self-generated thoughts, feelings, and actions that are planned and cyclically adapted to the attainment of personal goals (Zimmerman, 2000). In the realm of education, self-regulatory skills have been found to be associated with the students' achievement and motivation (Zimmerman & Schunk, 2001). According to Zimmerman (1989), self-regulated learners are those who are "metacognitively, motivationally, and behaviourally active participants in their own learning process" (p. 4). In a more simplistic form, a self-regulated learner is more inclined to set task-related, reasonable goals, take responsibility for his or her learning, and maintain motivation (Heikkila & Lonka, 2006). It is also assumed that students who are regulated in their learning are able to use and change a variety of cognitive (e.g., rehearsing, memorizing, organizing) and metacognitive (e.g., goal setting, planning, monitoring, self-evaluation) strategies to accomplish academic tasks. The relevance of self-regulation theory to second language acquisition and individual differences is clear: learning another language poses a complex challenge that demands cognitive as well as affective self-regulation, and individuals differ in their capacity to self-regulate (Ortega, 2009)

Many studies have so far investigated different aspects of critical thinking and its relation to many factors affecting EFL learning. Yet, the relationship between critical thinking and self-regulation as an influential factor in EFL

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learning has rarely been investigated. Accordingly, the major aim of the present study is to empirically examine the relationship between self-regulation and critical thinking ability among Iranian EFL learners.

LITERATURE REVIEW
Critical Thinking
A commonly perceived definition is needed for critical thinking. Many definitions of critical thinking have been proposed up to now. When examined closely, however, they all point to some common principles and criteria. For instance, Paul, Elder and Bartell's (1997) consider critical thinking as "the intellectually disciplined process of actively and skillfully conceptualizing, applying, analyzing, synthesizing, and/or evaluating information gathered from, or generated by, observation, experience, reflection, reasoning, or communication, as a guide to belief and action."(p.4)

In Feriere's words (1973), language is a thinking process that allows students to learn and grow. Critical thinking, a rapidly growing concept in education has stimulated a flood of recent research and publications. Nowadays, critical thinking is one of the major concepts under consideration in education. Cotton (1988) describes creative thinking as a novel way of seen or doing things. It has been mostly used for first language education in the United States, but today, its role in second and foreign language learning and teaching is of great importance. critical thinking and its relationship to the educational process has become a central issue and it is time to explore the term .She adds since critical thinking is a process which is involved in any research activity; it can be considered as a principal concept to education, especially at higher levels. In fact, it is a fundamental goal of learning.

In a comprehensive attempt to define critical thinking, Pascarella and Terezini (1991) suggested the following: "… critical thinking has been defined and measured in a number of ways but typically involves the individual's ability to do some or all of the following: identify central issues and assumptions in an argument, recognize important relationships, make correct inferences from data, deduce conclusions from information or data provided, interpret whether conclusions are warranted on the basis of the data given, and evaluate evidence or authority,"(p. 118). Burden and Byrd (1994) categorize critical thinking as a higher order thinking activity that requires a set of cognitive skills. Halpern (1996) defined critical thinking as the use of cognitive skills or strategies that increase the probability of a desirable outcome.

Other definitions include: the formation of logical inferences, developing careful and logical reasoning, deciding what action to take or what to believe through reasonable reflective thinking, and purposeful determination of whether to accept, reject or suspend judgment (Fahim & Teimurtash, 2012). Many writers such as Atkinson (1997) and Fox (1994) argue that CT is embedded in western culture and is incompatible for Asian learners. Other scholars such as Paton (2011) have rejected this idea and speak for the universality of CT. Critical thinking is but one kind of good thinking. It has been equaled by some scholars such as Crombie (1994) to scientific thinking.

Despite debate over the definition of critical thinking, it has been acknowledged as a desirable trait that must be embedded in the education system. There is consensus among scholars that education must not only provide learners with the "what" of knowledge, but also with the "how". Pennycook (1994) points to the shift which has occurred in the conceptualization of learning as an ever- evolving process of discovering, questioning, and reformulating hypotheses rather than rote learning. As a result, teaching critical thinking skills have gained attention in educational research. For instance, Glaser's (1941, cited in Fahim & Nasrollahi, 2013) seminal work reports that training programs can have beneficial effect on different aspect of CT variable.

Self-regulation
In recent years, extensive body of research in the field of educational psychology has been related to the ways in which motivational and cognitive elements of academic learning work jointly. One major research element within this domain consists of the investigation of academic self-regulation (Ghanizadeh & Mirzaee, 2012). According to Facione (2011), the most remarkable cognitive skill of all is self-regulation. He says this one is remarkable because it allows good critical thinkers to improve their own thinking. Some people want to call this "metacognition", meaning it raises thinking to another level. This is critical thinking applied to itself. Self-regulation is like a recursive function in mathematical term, which means it can apply to everything including itself. You can monitor and correct an

interpretation you offered. Self-regulation means "self-consciously to monitor one's cognitive activities, the elements used in those activities, and the results educed, particularly by applying skills in analysis, and evaluation to one's own inferential judgments with a view toward questioning, confirming, validation, or correcting either one's reasoning or one's results." The two sub-skills here are self-examination and self-correction.

Although self-regulation is defined differently from study to study, all of the definitions of self-regulation refer to learners' experiences of monitor and controlling their learning through cognitive, metacognitive and motivational strategies (McManus, 1998). Self- regulated learning, according to Zimmerman and Risemberg (1997), is a self-initiated action that involves goal setting and regulating one's efforts to reach the goal, self-monitoring (metacognition), time management, and physical and social environment regulation. So what is self-regulation and how does it lead to individual differences in student learning? According to Zimmerman (1989), self-regulated learners are those who are "metacognitively, motivationally, and behaviourally active participants in their own learning process" (p. 4). Schraw, Crippen, and Hartley (2006) argued that each of these three components is necessary, but not sufficient, for self-regulation. Successful self-regulation requires all of the three components. In a more simplistic form, a self-regulated learner is more inclined to set task-related, reasonable goals, take responsibility for his or her learning, and maintain motivation (Heikkila & Lonka, 2006). It is also assumed that students who are regulated in their learning are able to use and change a variety of cognitive (e.g., rehearsing, memorising, organising) and metacognitive (e.g., goal setting, planning, monitoring, selfevaluation) strategies to accomplish academic tasks.

Although there are various theoretical models of self-regulation, most frameworks assume
that self-regulated learners engage in the use of both cognitive and metacognitive strategies for learning (Wolters & Pintrich, 1998). Furthermore, most theoretical models of self-regulation assume learners also endorse adaptive motivational beliefs in learning (Zimmerman, 1989).A possibly important view is that self-regulation is a proactive process (Zimmerman, 2008), where this enables learners to acquire academic skill, such as setting goals, selecting and deploying strategies, and self-monitoring one's own effectiveness. It is not, in contrast, a reactive process that happens as a result of impersonal forces.

Statement of the Problem and Purpose of the Study
The significance of self-regulation to individual critical thinking is demonstrated in several ways. First, self-regulation initiates an individual's effort to improve his or her critical thinking process. According to Dewey (1933), the learning cycle includes several iterated phases. Before any inquiry, a learner must perceive a need to solve a problem. He or she then searches for relevant information, constructs personal meaningful solutions and finally puts the ideas into action. Dewey (1933) proposed that the learners' awareness of these phases of inquiry helps them understand and select strategies and learning activities. Most importantly, self-regulation helps one to take actions to constantly modify the directions of his or her own critical thinking. Secondly, self-regulation provides learners with better management of their cognitive strategies and coordination of learning resources; when teachers make students aware of all the critical thinking skills, students will be more mindful about exercising their critical thinking skills. When students form the habit of monitoring and constantly adjusting their critical thinking skills, self-regulation and critical thinking could form a self-enclosed support loop. The more self-regulated a student becomes, the better a critical thinker he or she will become and vice versa.

As far as the researcher knows, the relationship between critical thinking ability and self-regulation has been rarely investigated in an Iranian EFL context. Accordingly, the purpose of the present study was to empirically examine the relationship between self-regulation and critical thinking ability among Iranian EFL learners.

RESEARCH QUESTION AND HYPOTHESIS
In order to investigate the relationship between critical thinking ability and self-regulation of the Iranian EFL learners, the following research question was raised:

Q: Is there any significant relationship between self-regulation and critical thinking ability among Iranian EFL learners?
Given the above research question, the following null hypothesis was proposed:

H0: There is not any statistically significant relationship between self-regulation and critical thinking ability among Iranian EFL learners

METHODOLOGY

Participants
90 male and female Iranian EFL university students participated in this study. They were junior students ranging in age from 19 to 31 years old and majoring in English Translation and TEFL at Islamic Azad University, Dezful branch in Iran.

Instruments
To achieve the purpose of the study, the following two instruments were utilized:

Honey's Critical Thinking Questionnaire
The Likert-type critical thinking questionnaire, developed by Honey (2000), is a reliable (0.86 on Cronbach's Alpha), valid and practical measure of critical thinking ability. It is a 30- item Questionnaire aiming at exploring the critical thinking ability of the participants by evaluating the three main skills of comprehension, analysis, and evaluation. In this study the Persian version of this questionnaire, translated and validated by Naeini (2005), was employed. The reliability of the questionnaire was estimated to be 0.79 using the Cronbach's alpha by Nosratinia and Abbasi (2013). Regarding validity, the Honey's critical thinking questionnaire enjoys all areas of face, content, criterion and construct validity.

Self-Regulation Trait (SRT) Questionnaire
To measure self-regulation, the *self-regulation trait* (SRT) questionnaire designed by O'Neil and Herl (1998) was employed. It is a reliable test (0.86 on Cronbach Alpha) consisting of 32 Likert-scale questions ranging from *almost never,* to *sometimes, often,* and *almost always.* The scale seeks to measure metacognition and motivation dimensions. Each dimension comprises two sub-scales. Meta-cognition covers the constructs of planning and self-monitoring, and motivation contains effort and self-efficacy. The four scales are measured by 8 Likert-type items each. The following table shows the subscales of the SRT:

Table 1: The subscales of SRT along with the corresponding descriptions

Factor		Definition
Metacognition	*Planning*	The extent to which one has an assigned or self-directed goal and a plan to achieve the goal.
	Self-monitoring	The extent to which one needs a self-checking mechanism to monitor goal achievement.
Motivation	*Effort*	The extent to which one works hard on a task.
	Self-efficacy	The extent to which one has confidence in being able to accomplish a particular task.

Data Collection Procedure
The study was conducted at Islamic Azad university, Dezful branch in Iran. In order to test the hypothesis, the participants were asked to complete the *Self-Regulation Trait questionnaire* and the *Honey's critical thinking questionnaire*. The questionnaires were coded numerically and the participants were asked not to write their names.

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Having scored the administrated questionnaires, the researcher analyzed the data through statistical procedures being elaborated in the subsequent section.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In order to make sure of the reliability of the instruments of the study, the researcher piloted the two instruments, namely, critical thinking and self-regulation questionnaires, with a number of 35 participants similar in characteristics to that of the target sample. The reliability of critical thinking questionnaire was equal to 0.80 and the reliability of self-regulation questionnaire was equal to 0.79 as shown in table 2 and 3.

Table 2: reliability of critical thinking

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0.80	30

Table 3: reliability of self-regulation

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0.79	32

To check the normality of the distributions, the descriptive statistics of the data were obtained. Table 4 summarizes the descriptive results of the two instruments- the *Self-Regulation Trait* questionnaire (SRT) and the *Honey's Critical Thinking* questionnaire (CTQ) - utilized in this study.

Table 4: descriptive statistics of the scores

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
SRT	90	72	131	98.34	13.89
CTQ	90	59	144	99.71	16.453

To investigate the relationship between learners' critical thinking and their self-regulation, a Pearson product-moment correlation was conducted to the data. The results of correlation demonstrated that there is a significant correlation between CT and self-regulation ($r = 0.65$, $p < 0.05$). The following table shows the results.

Table 5: The results of correlation between EFL learners' CT and their self-regulation

	Total Self-regulation
Total CT	0.653*

It was also found that there is a significant relationship between EFL learners' critical thinking and the four subscales of self-regulation as follow: CT and planning (r = 0.472*, p< .05), self-monitoring (r = 0.641*, p< .05), effort (r = 0.437*, p< .05), and self-efficacy (r = 0.661*, p<.05). The following table shows the results.

Table 6: The results of correlation between subscales of self-regulation and CT.

	CT
Planning	0.472*
Self-monitoring	0.641*
Effort	0.437*
Self-efficacy	0.669*

Discussion

Based on previous literature that suggested close relationships among self-regulation, and critical thinking (Dewey, 1933; Schraw, Crippen, & Hartley, 2006; Zimmerman, 2008), the present study examined the relationship between Iranian EFL learners' self-regulation and their critical thinking ability. As the results indicated there is a positive relationship between the two variables in question. In other words, learners who possess higher levels of critical thinking ability tend to be more self- regulated in their learning. The statistical significance of these findings supports the key theoretical assumptions of the association between critical thinking and self-regulation proposed by Phan (2010). Based on previous research evidence and theoretical contentions, Phan (2010) integrated these two lines of theorizing and research by suggesting that: (i) critical thinking acts as another cognitive strategy of self-regulation that learners use in their learning, and (ii) critical thinking may be a product of various antecedents such as different self-regulatory strategies.

The finding of the present study is in line with previous empirical studies, too. Kupier (2002), for instance, suggested that the enhancement of self-regulatory strategies leads to the development of critical thinking abilities. Leung and Kember (2003) also found positive relationships between critical thinking and motivational variables such as self-regulation, goal orientations, and self-efficacy beliefs. In an EFL context, Ghanizadeh (2011) indicated that critical thinking ability has a facilitative role in enhancing EFL teachers' self-regulation over time. The study revealed that among the CT components, *interpretation* and *evaluation of arguments* have the highest correlations with teachers' self-regulation. Furthermore, Ghanizadeh & Mirzaee (2012) demonstrated a significant relationship between critical thinking, self-regulation, and language achievement.

 In the advancement of this discussion, based on Phan (2010), it can be contended that both critical thinking and self-regulation, as distinct disciplinary practices, interact intricately to contribute to students' growth and development. Critical thinking may help influence students' self-regulatory processes, but at the same time its growth may be fostered by various self-regulatory strategies. The classroom environment is a salient issue and its structure may in fact promote growth in the developmental process of both critical thinking and self-regulation (Zimmerman, 2008). It is important that future research studies explore the micro-analytical structure and mechanism that define the cyclic interaction between critical thinking and self-regulation. Various methodological approaches and strategies, such as the use of classrooms observations, portfolios, and interviews may illustrate and capture the intimate intricate relationship that connects the two frameworks.

CONCLUSION

The major aim of the present study was to explore the relationship between critical thinking ability of Iranian EFL learners and their self-regulation. As the findings of this study indicated, there was significant and positive correlation between EFL learners' critical thinking ability and their self-regulation. With regard to the relationship between self-regulation and critical thinking, Previous literature showed that self-regulation included both the willingness and the action to regulate one's cognition when necessary (McManus, 1998; Schraw, Crippen, & Hartley, 2006). According to McMahon and Oliver's (2002) model of self-regulation, self-regulation is composed of the cognition domain that controls metacognition and forms self-monitoring strategies, and the affective domain that develops self concepts and initiates motivation and volition control strategies. Their model implies that a learner with higher self-regulation could also have higher motivation to exert volitional control strategies. In this study, students with higher self-regulation may have had better control over their affective domain and, therefore, had the ability to motivate themselves to use critical thinking skills.

The findings of this study provide practical implications and suggestions for EFL teachers, educators and administrators to find effective ways for developing critical thinking and self-regulation among EFL students. As Ghanizadeh & Mirzaee (2012) suggest, EFL teachers are recommended to develop and integrate the abilities associated with critical thinking in the classroom context via procedures such as assigning controversial topics for discussion and witting, encouraging divergence and reflectivity, reinforcing inference-making, and making them familiar with procedures that promote critical thinking such as portfolio, concept mapping and journal writing. Furthermore, self-regulation can be structured through participation in environments that provide students with opportunities to be in control of their own learning (Zimmerman, 2000).

This study had certain limitations. The participants of this study were all adult EFL learners; further studies can be done with participants of other age groups, for instance young children or teenagers, to investigate the relationship between critical thinking and self-regulation in different age range. Moreover, the researcher used Self-regulatory Trait questionnaire and Honey's critical thinking questionnaire as research instruments. It is, however, seems feasible that applying different instruments would lead to different results. Further, the study was limited to a certain number of students who were available for conducting this research. Finally, it should be noted that both self-regulation and critical thinking are multifaceted processes affected by different factors and some intervening factors may affect the results. Eliminating these factors would lead to more reliable results.

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EVALUATION OF POLARITY IN ENGLISH AND PERSIAN EPIC REVIEWS: A CROSS-CULTURAL LITERARY ANALYSIS

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ABSTRACT
This study evaluated words that convey an item, as well as the evaluation polarity (i.e., positive, negative or no-polarity) in English and Persian epic reviews. Attitude (Martin & White, 2005) is concerned with our feelings, including emotional reactions, judgments of behavior and evaluation of things. These attitudinal evaluations are of interest not only because they reveal the speaker's/writer's feelings and values but also because their expression can be related to the speaker's/writer's status or authority as construed by the text, and because they operate rhetorically to construct relations of alignment and rapport between the writer/speaker and actual or potential respondents. Based on Martin and White's (2005) Appraisal Theory strategy, 40 English and Persian epic reviews (20 reviews of each) were selected and scrutinized to classify the expressions of attitudes (affect, judgment, appreciation). Moreover, they were analyzed to reveal Polarity. The results revealed that the difference of attitude expressions through two corpora was significant, but in terms of Polarity, only negative evaluations had significant differences.

KEYWORDS: Epic review, Appraisal theory, Attitude, Polarity

INTRDUCTION
Today, countless international academic journals in all fields either contain a section that belongs exclusively to book reviews or publish interesting reviews to those in the field from time to time. Some journals even operate exclusively as book reviewing journals (Nicolaisen & Frandsen, 2007). Book review as an effective and valuable academic tool introduces new books in a particular scientific and academic discipline and assesses their value and validity in relation to the development of the discipline (Suarez & Moreno, 2005, p. 191).

Book reviews are primarily published by authors who have published several articles, notes, reviews, or letters and the authors publishing book reviews continue to publish articles, notes, reviews, or letters (Nicolaisen & Frandsen, 2007, p. 122). The writer and the reviewer are the main factors of book review. Book reviewer evaluates the work of a colleague researcher based on different criteria such as adequate treatment of the subject, usefulness for the expectant reader, and possible future anticipation (Gea Valor, 2000-2001). One kind of book review is *epic* review. An epic in its most specific sense is a genre of classical poetry originating in Greece (Wheeler, 2012).The term applies most directly to classical Greek texts like *The Iliad* and *The Odyssey* but it is clear that Roman authors like Virgil intentionally imitate the genre in works like the *Aeneid*. However, some critics have applied the term more loosely. The Anglo-Saxon poem *Beowulf* has also been called an epic of Anglo-Saxon culture, Milton's *Paradise Lost* is called an epic of Christian culture, *El Cid* is an epic of Spanish culture, *Gilgamesh* is an epic of Babylonian culture, Longfellow's *Hiawatha* is an epic of American culture, and Shakespeare's various history plays have been collectively called an epic of Renaissance Britain.

Sentiment Classification (Hernandez, Lopez-Lopez and Medina, 2009, p. 525) is an opinion mining and sentiment analysis task; these are novel research areas strongly related sentiment analysis is conceived as *Sentiment Classification*, referring to the task of categorizing texts, or pieces of text, based on their subjectivity and orientation (Whitelaw, Navendu & Argamon, 2005) . Others extend it to identify or classify appraisal targets, determining the source of an opinion in a text, and developing interactive and visual opinion mining methods (Bloom, Garg & Argamon, 2007).

The Appraisal theory describes a hierarchy of the language used to communicate evaluation, detailing types of Attitude (how writers communicate their point of view), Engagement (how writers align themselves with respect to the position of others) and Graduation (how writers amplify or diminish their opinions), the recognition of which

302

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may assist in performing other tasks in sentiment analysis. Martin (2000) suggests that each type of attitude involves positive or negative feeling.

The subsystem of Attitude is a framework for three areas of personal feelings including emotion, ethics and aesthetics (Read & Carroll, 2012, p. 424). Descriptions of personal emotion are referred to as Affect. The Appraisal system considers four subclasses of affect: *Inclination* (Martin & White, 2005, p. 51) is concerned with items that express some degree of personal desire towards or against phenomena (e.g. miss, long for, yearn versus wary, fearful, terrorised); terms of *Happiness* (Martin & White, 2005, p. 51) deal with internal mood (e.g. cheerful, like, jubilant versus sad, dejected, joyless); one's environmental and social well-being is covered by *Security* (Martin & White, 2005, p. 51) (e.g. confident, assured, trusting versus uneasy, anxious, startled); and one can also express *Satisfaction* (Martin & White, 2005, p. 51) with one's goals (e.g. pleased, thrilled, involved versus jaded, angry, bored).

Evaluations of people (Judgment) are divided into two types*: Esteem* and *Sanction* (Martin & White, 2005, p. 53)*.* Judgments of esteem consist of evaluations of Normality (a person's behavior compared with what a culture considers normal (e.g. lucky, normal, fashionable versus unlucky, odd, dated), Capacity (the capability of a person, e.g. powerful, witty, successful versus mild, dull, unsuccessful) and Tenacity (the dependability of a person (e.g. plucky, reliable, faithful versus timid, unreliable, unfaithful). Judgments of *Sanction* are to do with Veracity (the honesty of a person, e.g. truthful, frank, and discrete versus dishonest, deceptive, blunt) or Propriety, e.g. good, fair, polite versus bad, unfair, rude (how well a person's ethics match those of the culture).

Communication of aesthetic evaluations are instances of Appreciation, which is concerned with the different ways we evaluate all things, including man-made objects, performances and natural phenomena (Read & Carroll, 2012). Appreciations are classified as either *Reactions*, assessments of *Composition*, or *Valuation* of the thing in question (Martin & White, 2005, p. 56). Reactions are with respect to the thing's Impact (e.g. engaging, exciting, lively versus tedious, ascetic, dull) or Quality (e.g. good, lovely, welcome versus nasty, plain, off-putting), whereas assessment of Composition is concerned with *Balance* (e.g. unified, shapely, consistent versus discordant, flawed, uneven) or *Complexity* (e.g. simple, precise versus simplistic, wooly). Valuation describes the worth of something (e.g. profound, creative, priceless versus shallow, everyday, pricey), but Martin and White (2005) point out that the instances of this class are often dependent on the field of discourse (affected by aspects such as its participants, process and circumstance) because the supposed value of a thing is variable from register to register.

The contribution of this paper; however, is to present a strategy for recognizing the Polarity (positive, negative or no-polarity) and Attitude of words according to the Appraisal Theory. It aims to recognize the Attitude kind; i.e., *affect, judgment* and *appreciation.* Thereby, we intend to capture the Polarity of a word by other words that tend to occur in the same sentences. In a similar way, we try to capture the Attitude classes of a given word, but considering the item evaluated in the sentences. On the other hand, we report our initial results toward the *Sentiment Classification* on Persian and English epic texts.

LITERATURE REVIEW
Some papers focus on determining whether a given word conveys the evaluation of an item, and recognizing the evaluation kind. There have been previous works trying to make a distinction of evaluation kind in text finer than single semantic orientation or polarity (e.g. positive, negative or neutral). Some authors (e.g., Genereux & Santini, 2007) attempt to discern kinds of emotions. Whereas others (e.g., Taboada & Grieve, 2004), relying on Appraisal Theory, seek out expressions of Attitude (*affect, judgment,* and *appreciation*). Our work is one in this latter line. Besides, we classify the Polarity of word in positive, negative or no-polarity.

Evaluative words can be found in different kinds of documents. One of the most analyzed types is the online reviews about products, such as movies, computers, phones and others (Hernandez, Lopez-Lopez and Medina, 2009). These are documents carrying out a free style of writing, where a great variety of evaluative expressions can be observed, as well as the three attitude kinds of the Appraisal Theory. But, we should mention that these documents are not heavily loaded of judgment expressions. However, we can find other document kinds; e.g. editorials, in which a kind of more elaborated discourse can be appreciated. In this state of research, some (Hernandez, Lopez-Lopez and

Medina, 2009) manually prepared a corpus, from movie reviews in Spanish taken from the website. Appraisal is a functional linguistic theory of evaluation in English (Read, 2009).

By reviewing the past literature and valuable works of different investigators on book reviews, some important points are clarified: how pervious researchers analyzed book reviews; how they followed and fostered this genre; and based on which models they continued their analysis. Some have conducted a macrostructure (move) and linguistic analysis to book reviews (Babaii, 2005; Hartley, 2006; Nicolaisen, 2002a & b; Salager-Meyer, Alcaraz Ariza, & Berbesi, 2007); others have scrutinized book reviews for systematic non-linguistic purposes (Motta-Roth, 1995; Toledo, 2005; Tejerina, 2005). The works done on macrostructure of book reviews are scientific endeavors to raise consciousness about text-structure of book reviews (Toledo, 2005).

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Specifically, the study seeks to answer the following research questions based on Martin and White's (2005) Appraisal Theory: (1) Do Persian and English epic reviewers exploit Attitude expressions; i.e., *affect, judgment* and *appreciation*? (2) Do reviewers apply more positive, negative or no-polarity expressions through the evaluation of the two datasets? Answering these two questions will allow us to make statements about the willingness of epic reviewers across the two cultures to express appraisal words.

METHODOLOGY

Data

Forty epic reviews were extracted from the available academic journals such as Science Fiction and Fantasy, Walrus Journal, Asian EFL, Asian ESP, TESL, Magiran, and Discourse Analysis within the fields of Persian and English language. They were analyzed carefully. This restriction helped to control certain contextual variables such as participants, setting, the medium of publication, and the purpose of communication which might affect the linguistic and rhetorical configuration of the texts (Moreno, 2008). The selected texts, 20 in Persian and 20 in English, were published within the last two decades, to control the temporal factor which might affect the text's rhetorical configuration. English epics were approximately not more than 1000 words on average, but some Persians were lengthier, up to 1500 words. The principal reasons for the selection of the extent and types of these book reviews were to increase the validity of the research by a representative sample of published reviews and richness of sources in these two datasets.

Procedure

The present research aims to distinguish words that convey evaluation of an item based on Martin and White (2005) framework, as well as the evaluation Polarity (positive, negative or no-polarity) in English and Persian epic reviews. According to Martin and White (2005) remarks, these attitudinal evaluations are of interest not only because they reveal the speaker's/writer's feelings and values but also because their expression can be related to the speaker's/writer's status or authority as construed by the text, and because they operate rhetorically to construct relations of alignment and rapport between the writer/speaker and actual or potential respondents. We propose a strategy to distinguish words that convey evaluation of an item from the rest, as well as to classify the evaluation Polarity (positive or negative). In addition, relying on Appraisal Theory, we intend to classify the evaluation words in *affect, judgment* and *appreciation*, so the other parts of Appraisal are not within our area of investigation. Based on Martin and White's (2005) Appraisal Theory strategy, 40 English and Persian epic reviews (20 of each) were selected and scrutinized to classify the expressions of Attitude (*affect, judgment, appreciation*). Moreover, they were analyzed to reveal Polarity.

The mentioned 40 texts written by different professional epic reviewers were analyzed deeply for the purpose of identifying rhetorical, non-linguistic, and discoursal features. The rhetorical division was carried out following on Martin and White's (2005) Appraisal Theory model of genre analysis, which postulates that there is an unavoidable connection between the communicative purpose of a genre and its cognitive structure. Furthermore, the Polarity of analyzed words was explored in the evaluation of Persian and English epic reviews. Table 1 illustrates Martin and White's (2005) Appraisal Theory framework.

Table 1: Appraisal Theory and Example Words of Attitude (Martin & White, 2005)

		Affect Judgment Attitude	
	Attitude		

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	Graduation	Force	Raise Lower
		Force	Sharpen Soften
	Engagement	Monoglos Heteroglos	

Appraisal theory proposes splitting these into three groups, labeled *Affect, Judgment* and *Appreciation* (Martin, 2003). Affect construes emotion, canonically in the grammatical frame " *I feel (very) 'x' . . .* (Martin, 2003, p. 173).

(1) I feel very *happy/sad* . . .
Judgment construes attitudes about character, designed to sanction or proscribe behavior, canonically in the grammatical frame *It was 'x' of/for her/him to do that* (Martin, 2003, p. 173).
(2) It was *kind/cruel* of him to do that.
Appreciation construes attitudes about texts, performances and natural phenomena, and fits into frames such as *I consider it 'x'*: (Martin, 2003, p. 173).
(3) I consider it *innovative/unimaginative*.
Martin (2000) suggests that each type of Attitude involves positive or negative feeling presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Types of Attitudes

ATTITUDE	AFFECT	INCLINATION [*desire, fear*] HAPPINESS [*happy, sad*] SECURITY [*confident, anxious*] SATISFACTION [*pleased, angry*]	
	JUDGMENT	ESTEEM	NORMALITY [*fortunate, hapless*] CAPACITY [*powerful, weak*]
		SANCTION	TENACITY [*resolute, reckless*] VERACITY [*truthful, dishonest*]
			VERACITY [*truthful, dishonest*]
		REACTION	PROPRIETY [*ethical, immoral*] IMPACT [*exciting, tedious*]s
	APPRECIATION		QUALITY [*good, nasty*]
		COMPOSITION	BALANCE [*unified, discordant*] COMPLEXITY [*simple, simplistic*] VALUATION (*profound, shallow*)

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
The frequency of the different Attitude types across the English and Persian epic reviews is presented. Then, the frequency of positive, negative and no-polarity aspects of evaluation through two corpora is reported. Finally, the results of different *t-* tests for the parallel Attitude as well as Polarity (positive, negative and no-polarity aspects of evaluation are presented in Table 3.

305

Table 3: Frequency of Different Attitude Types

	English	Persian	Total
	Freq.	Freq.	Freq.
Appreciation	268	506	774
Judgment	103	263	366
Affect	68	18	86
Positive	355	326	681
Negative	57	404	461
No-polarity	22	62	84

Analysis of the Attitude Expressions

For the purpose of evaluating two natural languages and to answer the first research question, Persian and English epic reviews were meticulously analyzed based on the Martin and White's (2005) Appraisal Theory framework proposed by the researcher. Then the frequency of each expression (*affect, judgment,* and *appreciation*) was determined and recorded. Also, in order to determine whether the frequency differences of the parallel expressions in the two corpora were significant, a *t*- test was employed, assuming at the level of significance (p<0.05). When *t* (df=38) is more than *Tc* limit (-2/02 and +2/02) and *sig* is smaller than 0.05 level of significance (sig < 0.05), the difference is significant but the relationship is not. But when t (df=38) is smaller than *Tc* limit (-2/02 and +2/02) and *sig* is more than the level of significance (p<0.05), the difference is not significant. However, the results of *t*-tests for the constitutive attitudinal words indicated significant differences in the distribution of the three types of expressions (*affect, judgment,* and *appreciation*) across Persian and English epic book reviews. Results are presented in Table 4.

Table 4: Results of the Attitude Expressions in Persian and English Epic Reviews

Attitude Sig	Mean		SD		N		*t*	df
	Persian	English	Persian	English	Persian	English		
Appreciation 0.010	25.3	13.4	18.3	7.192	20	20	2.706	38
Judgment	13.15	5.15	12.05	5.77	20	20	2.676	38

The meticulous analysis of *appraisal-bearing* (Hernandez, Lopez-Lopez and Medina, 2009, p. 526) words in epic reviews demonstrated marked variations in three types of Attitude expressions*: Appreciation, Judgment,* and *Affect.* As the *t* is higher than 2.02 (df==38) and *sig* is smaller than 0.05 level of significance, the difference between three types of attitudinal words is significant. Persian reviewers used *appreciation* and *judgment* words more than *affect* ones. It seems that they are not so inclined to show their emotions and feelings towards appraising things, objects, events or behaviors. They criticize the work with few words of emotions and affect, and they like to speak more logically and formally than a friendly manner. Thus, Persian reviewers judge things, events of the text and behavior of the writer more strictly without showing close relationship than English ones. In other words, they use more *appreciation* and *judgment* words than *affect* ones in their reviews.

The examples (Appendix A) show some Persian and English epic review examples that were analyzed by the researcher to find appraisal-bearing words (*Appreciation, Judgment, and Affect*).

 # 5 This organization gives the book a nice structure, and I found myself looking forward to discovering what he'd have to say about each book. Although I was initially skeptical about the What to Skip section—I'm a 'read every word' reader and don't believe in skimming—I quickly came to appreciate the value in Murnighan's honest approach and his great sense of humor.

 # 6 Dr. Desikan has presented this clear and pristine translation to read and enjoy the beauty of Silappadikaaram to all those who cannot read and understand Tamil, particularly the classical Tamil of the 5th century AD. He has not diluted the content with extraneous ideas in his English idiom.

 # 7 This is due to R. Scot's ability to describe a scene, telling enough for you to form an image but not so much as to not let your imagination flow. I was personally amazed at the information this book presented. Turning a poem into a full blown novel is not easy and more than a little did R. Scot do when researching the tale of Beowulf. Any parts that he did change were very sensible, making it easier to read and overall added to the story well.

Analysis of the Parallel Polarity
After determining the constitutive Attitude expressions of the Persian and English book reviews, attempts were made to answer the second research question. The Polarity of words was identified and listed. Next the frequency of each polarity type was determined and tabulated through Persian and English book reviews. Moreover, a *t-* test for the parallel polarity kinds was conducted, assuming at the level of significance (p<0.05). The *t-* test displayed significant differences in the *negative* type of polarity through two cultures. However, the *positive* and *no-polarity* types did not show significant differences. Results are presented in Table 5.

Table 5: Results for Different Types of Polarity across the Two Corpora

Polarity	Mean		SD		N		t	df	Sig
	Persian	English	Persian	English	Persian	English			
Positive	18.80	17.75	16.76	13.21	20	20	0.220	38	0.827
Negative	18.85	2.85	18.39	4.67	20	20	3.771	38	0.001
No-polarity	3.10	1.10	4.61	1.71	20	20	1.819	38	0.077

The findings indicate that positive aspects of evaluation outrun negative aspects in English reviews. These positive aspects are positive characteristics and adjectives about feelings, behaviors of others, events and things. Three types of attitudinal words can bear positive, negative or no-polarity. Negative evaluation is conveyed either by means of the negation of the verb, followed by an adjective with a positive meaning or by means of a negative adjective (e.g., difficult, poor).

Discussion
The results of t-test reveal that only the difference between negative evaluation in Persian and English epics is significant. Persian reviewers use more negative judgment, appreciation, and affect in their reviews. They like to state directly the flaws of the writer and his/her work. Although they declare positive statements and mitigate their critiques, they apply more negative aspects in the review than English ones. It might be a natural style of reviewing between Persian critics, and the writers are not so threatened by this kind of critique. All writers may accept this kind of criticizing each other's works. They may know these direct critics as a way of improving their future works. Take the following example to see negative reviews of Persian and English epic reviews (Appendix A).

  # 9 Tempering the good with the bad I must say that a <u>lack</u> of a <u>professional</u> <u>editor</u> has <u>hurt</u> this book. From <u>spelling mistakes</u>, to <u>misplaced</u> names, to <u>insufficient</u> map detail has caused some <u>annoyance</u> while reading. A good editor should have solved these <u>problems</u>.

 The followings are positive Persian and English reviews (Appendix A).

  # 11 Stephen Mitchell's <u>uneven</u> and rather <u>excitable</u> introduction to his fluent if rather flat Gilgamesh (a new English version) gives a fairly <u>thorough</u> and very <u>useful</u> overview of this <u>astonishing</u> epic.

In terms of no-polarity and positive evaluations, the difference is not significant in epic reviews of two cultures. No-polarity means applying words or adjectives which convey no positive or negative meaning, a neutral one. They use some kind of suggestion words which writer should (not *Must*) apply them to improve his/her work.
Take this example (Appendix A).

The experienced, fair, and knowledgeable reviewers know that a completely negative critique offends the writer's personality. They know that a positive critique can be more effective: a critique which presents both weaknesses and strengths of the reviewed book and the writer. The writer will be more satisfied and content to see the evaluation more positive, and that the evaluation is fair, not biased and malicious. Being aware of these important points of book reviewing helps the reviewer to employ a rightful and effective review by considering the positive aspects of the writer's work. This way, he/she maintains the writer's face and encourages him/her to continue writing more valuable works.

CONCLUSION

The Appraisal theory describes a hierarchy of the language used to communicate evaluation, and one type of Attitude expresses how writers communicate their point of view. Opinion is conveyed in text in a wide variety of domains and genres. Here in *epic* review genre, the results revealed that the overall application of Attitude words and Polarity in the two corpora was different.

This difference in the use of *appraisal-bearing* expressions in Persian and English epic reviews might be attributed to effective elements such as specific needs of the discourse community and knowledge of the reviewers on the nature of the book reviews in journals or strict review policies set by journal reviewers of two different cultures. As we have seen, book reviewing is a potentially face-threatening act since it basically involves the assessment of a colleague's work. Persian reviewers showed less affection or emotional viewpoints in their works. They mostly focused on the nature of the reviewed text, the writer's materials and the way of reviewing the text. In terms of polarity, again Persian reviewers applied more negative statements in their reviews than English ones. They may believe reviewing the text directly without using compliment expressions. They want to show the defects of the work completely to be removed in the future attempts. But English reviewers revealed more *affection* and used more positive expressions. It might be related to their culture which they use more mitigation words and devices not to threaten their colleague's face. Thus, the present study has partly focused on the use and function of Appraisal (attitude) words and Polarity in the epic review.

The main limitation of this study is that the data was obtained from scrutinizing only two cultures thus not allowing for a more comprehensive cross-cultural analysis of book reviews; e.g., increasing the size of sentences and extending their domain. Also, in this research, epic reviews were analyzed based on Martin and White (2005) model. The sphere of such research can be extended to other genres using other frameworks.

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A CORRELATIONAL STUDY OF IRANIAN PRE-UNIVERSITY STUDENTS' LEARNING STYLES AND THEIR LANGUAGE ACHIEVEMENT

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ABSTRACT
The purpose of this study was to identify the dominant learning styles of the EFL (English as a foreign language) learners and to determine what kinds of relationships existed between students' learning style preferences and their level of achievement. Participants of this study were 115 Iranian EFL learners, all of whom pre-university students of Kerman, Iran, majoring in Mathematics, Literature, and Natural Sciences. In order to obtain the required data, a questionnaire and an achievement test were utilized: Reid's (1987) Perceptual Learning Style Preference Questionnaire and the students' learning scores on the final exam. The findings after collecting and interpreting the data, revealed that there is a meaningful relationship between the students' learning style preferences and their level of achievement. It also implies that the students' achievement is influenced by their learning style preferences. The dominant learning style preferences for the sample were mostly visual learners and preferred the information be present in the form of pictures, diagrams, charts and readings. As far as gender was concerned, there weren't any differences between two groups of males and females in using learning styles. Also, there were not any significant relationships between the study variables of age and field of the participants' study. The results indicated that; The most preferred learning style category was the visual category and it is able to predict the achievement variable with 99 percent confidence. The kinesthetic variable was the preferred learning style after visual, so it can play a role as a secondary predictor in regression equation. The auditory, tactile, and group learning styles can play a role as secondary predictor in regression equation with achievement after kinesthetic, respectively. There is not any significant relationship between achievement and individual variable; so, individual variable can't lonely play a role as secondary predictor in regression equation.

KEYWORDS: learning, learning style, method, learner, visual, auditory, tactile, kinesthetic, group, individual

INTRODUCTION
The study of learning styles is quite complex. The ways that people go about gathering and interpreting information can be surprisingly different. Research shows that people have different preferences and strengths in how they take in and process information. These preferences are sometimes referred to as learning styles and are used to describe and help us understand the different ways in which different people learn. While there is a general agreement that we all learn in a unique way, there are many different theories as to defining and categorizing the various ways that people think and learn. For this purpose, and diagnosing students approach to learning, we will focus on the more common or general theories. The most basic inventories group learners into three categories: Auditory (learn by hearing), Tactile (learn by doing), and Visual (learn by seeing or writing).

As such, this research attempts to investigate the possible correlation between learning styles of students in high schools especially pre-university students and their language achievement. Information pertaining to learning styles will be obtained from students through a close-ended form questionnaire and their educational performance in their final exam will be analyzed.

Statement of the Problem
It is important to remember that every individual learns differently and thus has a unique learning style. Approximately 20 to 30 percent of the school-aged population remembers what is heard; 40 percent recalls well visually the things that are seen or read; many must write or use their fingers in some manipulative way to help them remember basic facts; other people cannot internalize information or skills unless they use them in real-life activities such as actually writing a letter to learn the correct format. For some, auditory input is most valuable; others rely upon a visual style. Still others learn through kinesthetic means, or a combination of the three. Every person has one primary learning mode. Once you identify that mode, you can learn to maximize it and enhance your students' education.

So, we can say that, students preferentially take in and process information in different ways: by seeing and hearing, reflecting and acting, reasoning logically and intuitively, analyzing and visualizing, steadily and in fits and starts.

Teaching methods also vary. Some instructors lecture, others demonstrate or lead students to self-discovery; some focus on principles and others on applications; some emphasize memory and others understanding.

Educators who investigated the teaching styles of the lecturers affirmed that teachers could influence student's achievement by using different ways of presenting the information. Since very little attention has been paid to how learners learn and how teachers teach in language learning classrooms, the main problem this research attempts to answer is the importance of determining the learning styles of the students, and differences in learning styles of the students regarding their age, gender, level and their field of study .

LITERATURE REVIEW
The area of learning style is very complex and fragmented matter for the researchers have written on this topic and investigated different aspects of learning styles. Some elements of learning styles appear in the research literature as early as 1900s. The investigation into the LS is rooted in the theories of learning styles such as behavioral, cognitive and constructivist.
Based on the above theories, early theoretical and experimental studies on learning styles were most probably extended and expanded by Thelen as cited in James (2001) who related learning styles to the dynamics of group at work. Then, being influenced by earlier theories of learning of the 70s, many researchers began extending and developing new theories on the learning styles such as, for instance, Myers (1962), Gardner (1983), Reid (1987), Messick (1984), Riding and Rayner (1998).

Because learning styles have a wide range of dimensions and since a lot of variables affect them, there are several problems proposed by Tyacke (1998) encountered while identifying learning styles. The first one is that learning styles are complex in nature and it might be difficult to analyze the overall learning profile of a learner. Another problem is that learners might tend to use different learning styles in various learning contexts. The third problem proposed is that the methodology used in the transfer of information can be biased. That is, it might be in favor of one kind of learner (analytic) over another (global). Yet, the researchers have worked on and identified the learning styles of learners in relation to some variables such as age, sex, length of time in the target culture, field of study, level of education, and culture.
Reid (1987) conducted a research with respect to the learning style preferences of ESL learners.

The overall results of the research indicated that ESL learners strongly preferred kinesthetic and tactile learning styles when compared to audio and visual. In addition, most groups showed a negative preference for group learning.

Stebbins (1995) replicated Reid's (1987) study in order to obtain more information about the similarities and differences in learning styles between ESL learners and Native English Speakers (NESs). Ellis (1989) conducted a research with respect to the studial and experiential learning styles of two learners of German. Data with respect to these two learning styles were collected through a questionnaire, a cognitive style test, language attitude test, attendance, participation, word order acquisition, speech rate, proficiency tests, and diary studies.

The data obtained from all these sources revealed that both learners were highly motivated learners of German and both of them had positive attitudes to the language. However, they significantly differed in their abilities and cognitive styles to the learning tasks. One of the learners was field dependent; she showed higher levels of aptitude in sound discrimination and she also rated her oral abilities to the other foreign languages she knew. This indicated that she was equipped to learn experimentally through the spoken medium. Her diary, on the other hand, revealed that she tried to learn studially, concentrating on linguistic accuracy and avoiding free expression. This further uncovers the fact that there might have been a conflict between the learning style she is pleased with and that she actually adopts. That is, she abandoned her own preferred learning style so as to cope with the type of instruction provided. As a result it can be stated that there was a mismatch between her preferred learning style and the instruction.

The other learner, on the other hand, was field independent and he was good at analyzing grammar and memorizing vocabulary. He had the skills necessary to carry on a studial approach to learning and his diary yielded enough

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evidence to support this claim. He was also a flexible learner, who enjoyed participating in class and engaging in real communication in the target language, i.e., German.

Cheng and Banya (1998) conducted a research in which 140 male learners at the Chinese Military academy completed seven questionnaires including PLSPQ (see Appendix A). The questionnaire was also completed by Taiwanese teachers teaching at Taiwanese universities. The results obtained from the self-reported surveys revealed that the Taiwanese military students did not have significantly different preferences for   any single learning style. The teachers, on the other hand, reported being significantly less visual and more auditory than the learners.

Based on the data obtained from the perceptual learning style self-reports it was uncovered that both the teachers and the learners preferred the perceptual learning styles of auditory, and individual learning. A significant finding of this study was the difference between teachers' and learners' auditory preferences. The teachers were markedly more auditory than the learners. The learners, on the other hand, showed significantly greater visual preference by reporting that they learned more by reading textbooks than by listening to lectures.

Willing (1988) conducted a research with respect to the learning styles in adult migrant education. To serve the purposes of the survey a new questionnaire was developed because the already existing ones had some deficiencies such as having a too narrow focus or being complex in their format and wording. The questionnaire consisted of thirty items on the first page, the second page included fifteen learning strategies, and the third page included items regarding individual biographical results. 517 learners, from over thirty ethnic groups participated in the study, but only five of the ethnic groups (Vietnamese, Chinese, Arabic speakers, South Americans, and Polish / Czech speakers) were large enough for statistical analysis.

Regarding the analysis of the results Willing (1988) stated that it was impossible to make "statistically valid cross-comparisons relating a question to more than one biographical variable at a time" (p.122). For this reason, the individual characteristics of the participants were considered separately. The results indicated that there are cultural differences with respect to the learning style preferences of the learners. Though the mean of the item "I like to study grammar" was lower than expected, all learners from the distinct cultures reflected that they liked studying grammar. However, the Arabic learners were the ones who preferred grammar the most because 65% of them ranked this item as the "best".

The item related to the use of cassettes at home revealed that the Vietnamese were the only learners who preferred this method. Chinese, in contrast, seemed to "have little confidence in it" (Willing, 1988, p.130). When the same question was considered with respect to the length of residence in Australia it was revealed that the variation was not big enough to be statistically meaningful. The results with regard to sex indicated that males tend to write everything in their notebooks more than females. In addition, though moderately both visual and kinesthetic modalities were female preferences.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS
This study seeks answers to the following research questions:

1- What learning styles are used by pre-university students in English classes?
2- What kind of significant relationships are there between the type of learning styles used by the students and their language achievement?

METHODOLOGY
Participants
The participants in the present study consist of 115 EFL students at two high schools of Kerman. The students in five classes were selected in this investigation to state their views as to their learning styles. The population of this study included pre-university students of two high schools. The age range for the whole sample was 17 to18.The selection of the participants was based on willingness to take part in the study. Of all the 115 participants, 78 were male and 37 were female. Participants' fields of study were Mathematics, Literature and Natural sciences. The participants were chosen from this level of study (pre-university) because of 2 main reasons. First, pre-university students were at a higher level of proficiency than other high school students. The second reason was that participants had a little different educational background. The first language of all the participants was Persian and none of them had ever lived or visited a foreign country.

Data Collection Instruments
In order to gather the required data on the variables of this study the following instruments were used:

Perceptual Learning Style Preference Questionnaire (PLSPQ)
This instrument developed by Reid (1987). It is a self-reporting questionnaire developed on the basis of existing learning style instruments, which was designed and validated for non-native speakers. It was chosen for this study because it was the most widely used learning style instrument for non-native speakers of English (DeCapua and Wintergerst, 2004). Additionally, the PLSPQ has been reviewed by non-native speaker informants and United States consultants in the fields of linguistics, as well as education, and cross-cultural studies (Reid, 1987). The PLSPQ commenced with a brief description of six learning style modalities, particularly for learners of foreign languages. The questionnaire assesses preferred learning styles of students based on how students learn best using their perceptions: visual, auditory, kinesthetic, and tactile preferences, and two social aspects of learning: group and individual preferences. Reid (1995) classified styles as *Major, Minor,* or *Negative.* Reid (1987) stated that the validation of the questionnaire (73%) was done by the split-half method.

Language Achievement Test
At the end of term, the students' achievement was evaluated through a summative assessment exam. All the students participated in the achievement exam on the same day. Subjects took an achievement-based exam at the end of term to investigate how learning was impacted owing to the learning styles. The comprehensive exam consisted of 21 questions with few sub-questions. They had a two-hour time limit. At first, answer sheets and then questions were distributed among students. They were asked to write their answers on the answer sheets. Then, the answer sheets were collected after being filled by students. In both groups of participants, boys and girls, their teachers scored students' papers and after one week they reported marks to the researcher.

Data Collection Procedures
This phase of the data collection involved the learning style preference questionnaire. The data collection instrument was given to the students during the class time. Since the participants of this study were pre-university students and none of them had ever been taught about learning styles, they were not familiar with the notion of learning style. Because of this reason, the researcher translated the questionnaire into Persian before coming to the class. So, the students received Persian questionnaires. The researcher spent about five minutes at the beginning of the class time to explain learning styles for the students. She also spoke to them about the aim of this study and in order to increase the credibility of the responses, reminded them that they should be sincere in their answers to the statements of the questionnaire and should not spend too much time on any of the items. The students were also asked to give an immediate response and that they should not hesitate and change their answers.

The questionnaire was given to the students and the researcher did not want them to put their names on them. She believes that this would put the reliability of their answers at risk. When students are not asked to put their names on the instrument, they are likely more relaxed and sincere. The students had 30 minutes to answer the 30 statements of this questionnaire. All of them took the test at the same time within a 20 minute period. All the subjects answered the questionnaire completely.

Data Analysis Procedures
This section is the analysis of the data results that are based on the learning style questionnaire and the students' final achievement exam. The instrument has two versions; version 1 is designed to investigate the learning styles of the students, and version 2 to investigate the achievement of students in English. In order to answer the two research questions, at first; information is collected through a questionnaire. This is achieved by using a proved questionnaire followed by a statistical analysis method. Descriptive statistics were calculated for the questionnaire data, and second, through the participants' final achievement exam. Analysis of variance was used to compare the students' learning styles and their language achievement. This study aimed at identifying students' learning styles and their language achievement in order to identify the possible relationship between them. Data with respect to students' learning styles were collected through the Perceptual Learning Style Preference Questionnaire. Another data, the students' final exam, was administered with the purpose of identifying the students' language achievement. The statistical analyses were conducted by using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS).

Regarding the analysis of the results obtained from the PLSPQ, descriptive statistics was used to group the students according to their major, minor, and negligible learning style preference categories. Pearson correlation was conducted to identify whether there was a significant relationship between the learning style preferences of the participants and their level of achievement.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS
Data Analysis
In order to analyze the recent study data, the sample group responses in PLSPQ were extracted. They were analyzed by using SPSS 18 software. the statistical methods include *tables* and descriptive *diagrams* and measures of central tendency such as Mean (x) and Standard Deviation (SD) and also calculations related to correlation coefficients are among Criteria and Predictor variables. The analyses related to variance analysis and dependent variable regression are separately performed with each of visual, tactile, audio, kinesthetic, group and individual scales. In this chapter, R values (multivariate correlation coefficient) and its square (R^2) are performed separately and combined in order to describe the dependent variable and variance in each of Predictor variables.The calculations related to estimate standard deviation, the correlation coefficients including slope of regression line and B and Beta values or regression standardized coefficient and T values related to each of variables and determining its meaningful levels are other parts of statistical analyses of this chapter. In addition to total value of criterion variables, the multi-variant regression analysis were differentially analyzed for each scale of learning styles including visual, audio, tactile, kinesthetic, group and individual styles.

The Relationship between the Students' Perceptual Learning Style Preferences and Their Level of Achievement
Pearson Correlation was conducted in order to examine the existence of a statistically meaningful relationship between the students' learning style preferences and their level of achievement. The results will be discussed in this part, while testing the six hypotheses concerning this relationship.

Hypothesis1. No relationship exists between the visual learning style preference of Iranian EFL learners and their level of achievement.
The results of the computed Pearson Correlation for the relationship between the student learning style preferences and their level of achievement revealed that the visual learning style can correlate with the students' level of achievement at $p<0/05$ (p=0/002). So, we can say that visual style can influence on the students' achievement.

Table 1: Analysis of variance and regression (Y) on Visual (X1) and Coefficient of determination (n=1)

R2	R	P	F	MS	d.f	SS	Model
.081	.284	.002	9.949	68.046	1	68.046	Regression
				6.839	113	772.827	Residual
					114	840.873	Total

Table 1 indicates the variance analysis of progress regression on visual variable. With regard to obtained F ratio, the relationship between these two variables is meaningful in the level of α= 0/01. In other words, *visual variable is able to predict the achievement variable with 99 percent confidence and about 52 percent of variance of progress variable can be explained only by visual.*

Table 2: Constant (a) and regression in visual variable (X1)

Sig.	T	Standardized Coefficients	Unstandardized Coefficients		Model	
		Beta	Std. Error	B		
.000	7.695		1.525	11.733	(Constant)	1
.002	3.154	.284	.079	.250	visual	

a. Dependent Variable: average

Table 2 indicates a constant value in equation of regression line. Regression coefficient that is represented by symbol "B" indicates the level of variation for one unit variation in X. Beta or regression standardized coefficient is a scale

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that indicates the level of effect of visual predictor variable on criterion variable. The larger is Beta value, the higher is the effect of predictor variable. *"T" value in the table represents the meaningful effect of visual variable on progress and indicates that in regression equation, this variable can play a role as a predictor.*So, in this way the null hypothesis was rejected on the findings.

Hypothesis 2. No relationship exists between the tactile learning style preference of Iranian EFL learners and their level of achievement.

Table 3: Analysis of variance and regression (Y) on Tactile (X2) and Coefficient of determination (n=115)

R2	R	P	F	MS	d.f	SS	Model
.134	.367[a]	.000	17.547	113.024	1	113.024	Regression
				6.441	113	727.848	Residual
					114	840.873	Total

Table 3 indicates the only regression analysis of progress on tactile variable. Regarding the calculated F ratio, it may be said that tactile variable is able to predict the progress variable, with 99 percent confidence and progress variable can be explained only by tactile.

Table 4: Constant (a) and regression in tactile variable (X2)

Coefficients[a]						
Sig.	T	Standardized Coefficients	Unstandardized Coefficients		Model	
		Beta	Std. Error	B		
.000	9.267		1.232	11.416	(Constant)	1
.000	4.189	.367	.066	.278	Tactile	
a. Dependent Variable: average						

Table 4 indicates progress regression coefficients on tactile variable. "B" regression coefficient is equal to 0/367 that indicates the positive relationship between achievement and tactile variable. Beta value or standardized regression coefficient and "T" values represent the relationship of predictor variable (tactile) and progress. We can say that tactile can play the role as *secondary* predictor in regression equation. So, the null hypothesis was rejected at the level of significance as a result of the findings.

Hypothesis 3. No relationship exists between the auditory learning style preference of Iranian EFL learners and their level of achievement.

Table 5: Analysis of variance and regression (Y) on Auditory (X3) and Coefficient of determination (n=115)

R2	R	P	F	MS	d.f	SS	Sources
		.002	10.330	70.432	1	70.432	Regression
				6.818	113	770.441	Residual
					114	840.873	Total

Table 5 indicates the progress regression analysis on audio variable. With regard to calculated F ratio, it may be said that audio variable is able to predict the progress variable, with 99% confidence and this achievement or progress variable can be explained only by audio.

Table 6: Constant (a) and regression in auditory variable (X3)

Coefficients[a]						
Sig.	T	Standardized Coefficients	Unstandardized Coefficients		Model	
		Beta	Std. Error	B		
.000	14.149		.955	13.513	(Constant)	1
.002	3.214	.289	.054	.174	Auditory	
a. Dependent Variable: average						

Table 6 indicates the progress regression coefficients on audio variable. "B" regression coefficient is equal to 0/289 that shows the positive relationship between achievement and audio variable. Beta value or standardized regression coefficient and "T" values indicate the relationship between predictor variable (audio) and achievement. We can say that audio is able to lonely play a role as a *secondary* predictor in regression equation.So, the null hypothesis was rejected based on the findings.

Hypothesis 4. No relationship exists between the group learning style preference of Iranian EFL learners and their level of achievement.

Table 7: Analysis of variance and regression (Y) on Group (X4) and Coefficient of determination (n=115)

R2	R	P	F	MS	d.f	SS	Model
.029	.172	.057	3.432	24.786	1	24.786	Regression
				7.222	113	816.087	Residual
					114	840.873	Total

Table 7 indicates the achievement regression analysis on group variable. With regard to calculated F ratio, it may be said that group variable is able to predict the achievement variable, with 99% confidence and achievement variable can be explained by group.

Table 8: Constant (a) and regression in group variable (X4)

Coefficients[a]						
Sig.	T	Standardized Coefficients	Unstandardized Coefficients		Model	
		Beta	Std. Error	B		
.000	19.255		.784	15.104	(Constant)	1
.057	1.853	.172	.047	.086	group	
a. Dependent Variable: average						

Table 8 indicates the achievement regression coefficient on group variable. "B" regression coefficient is equal to 0/172 that indicates *the reverse relationship between achievement and group*. Beta value or standardized regression coefficient and "T" values indicates the relation of achievement and predictor variable (group). It may be said that group can lonely play a role as *secondary* predictor in regression equation. So, the null hypothesis was rejected based on the findings.

Hypothesis 5. No relationship exists between the kinesthetic learning style preference of Iranian EFL learners and their level of achievement.

Table 9: Analysis of variance and regression (Y) on Kinesthetic (X5) and Coefficient of determination (n=115)

R2	R	P	F	MS	d.f	SS	Model
.197	.444	.000	27.754	165.802	1	165.802	Regression
				5.974	113	675.071	Residual
					114	840.873	Total

Table 9 indicates the achievement regression analysis on kinesthetic variable. With regard to calculated F ratio, it may be said that kinesthetic variable can predict the achievement variable, with 99% confidence and achievement variable can be explained only by kinesthetic.

Table 10: Constant (a) and regression in kinesthetic variable (X5)

Coefficients[a]						
Sig.	T	Standardized Coefficients	Unstandardized Coefficients		Model	
		Beta	Std. Error	B		
.000	8.949	------------	1.168	10.448	(Constant)	1
.000	5.268	.444	.064	.337	Kinesthetic	
a. Dependent Variable: average						

Table 10 indicates the achievement regression coefficient on kinesthetic variable. "B" regression coefficient is equal to 0/444, indicating the positive relation of kinesthetic and achievement. Beta value or standardized regression coefficient and "T" value indicate the relation of predictor variable (kinesthetic) and achievement. It may be said that kinesthetic variable can lonely play a role as *secondary* predictor in regression equation.So, the null hypothesis was rejected at the level of significance as a result of the findings.

Hypothesis 6. No relationship exists between the individual learning style preference of Iranian EFL learners and their level of achievement.

Table 11: Analysis of variance and regression (Y) on Individual (X6) and Coefficient of determination (n=115)

R2	R	P	F	MS	d.f	SS	Model
.006	.077	.411	.680	5.030	1	5.030	Regression
				7.397	113	835.843	Residual
					114	840.873	Total

Table 11 indicates the achievement regression analysis on individual variable. With regard to calculated F ratio, it may be said that individual variable *can't* predict the achievement variable, with 99% confidence and achievement variable can't be explained only by individual.

Table 12: Constant (a) and regression in individual variable (X6)

Coefficients[a]

Sig.	T	Standardized Coefficients		Unstandardized Coefficients		Model	
		Beta		Std. Error	B		
.000	16.099	----		.975	15.704	(Constant)	1
.411	.825	.077		.054	.045	Individual	

a. Dependent Variable: average

Table 12 indicates the achievement regression coefficients on individual variable. "B" regression coefficient is equal to 0/077, indicating the lack of relationship between achievement and individual variable. Beta value or standardized regression coefficient and "T" values indicate the lack of relationship between achievement and predictor variable (individual), and it may be said that individual variable can't lonely play a role as secondary predictor in regression equation. So, the null hypothesis was retained based on the findings.

CONCLUSION

The result of the descriptive statistics conducted to identify the general tendency of learning style preferences of the participants in this study, indicated that the most preferred learning style category was the visual category.

Based on the results obtained from the statistical analysis of the style collected data, it was found that the mean scores of one of the learning style preferences categories, visual learning, being Sig. = 0/035 (p<0/05) falls into the major learning style category. The remaining four categories fitted the minor learning style preferences category. And the individual learning style was the negligible one and did not have any significant relationship with achievement.

Pearson Correlation was conducted to determine whether there was a statistically meaningful relationship between the students' level of achievement and their learning style preferences of the participants. The results indicated that:
- There were statistically relationships between the students' learning style preferences and their level of achievement.
- The most preferred learning style category was the visual category and it is able to predict the achievement variable with 99 percent confidence.
- The kinesthetic variable was the preferred learning style after visual, so it can play a role as a secondary predictor in regression equation.
- The auditory, tactile, and group learning styles can play a role as secondary predictor in regression equation with achievement after kinesthetic, respectively,
- There is not any significant relationship between achievement and individual variable; so, individual variable can't lonely play a role as secondary predictor in regression equation.

Limitations of the Study
Three limitations of the study are generalized as follows. First, the sample size of this study is not very big. The subjects in this study were 115 students from five classes in two high schools in Kerman, Iran. The sample for this study was restricted to the urban area. Consequently, it is hard to generalize the study findings to all the EFL students in Iran. Second, it is unpredictable whether the subjects respond to the questionnaires honestly or not. The subjects' responses to the questionnaires may be out of researcher's control. Third, owing to the limited time for answering the questionnaires, the format of the questionnaires consists of only 30 questions. Therefore, the study may be not able to comprise all the questions in terms of the students' attitudes toward a foreign language and the means they improve their English learning.In this study, the individual-difference variables of students, except learning styles were not taken into account. It's necessary to be said that, the results of a great number of students (e.g. Ehrman, 1990; Oxford, 1992; Oxford and Ehrman, 1993; Scarcella and Oxford, 1992; Skehan, 1989) have revealed that students' individual differences including learning styles, learning strategies, learning aptitude, age, gender, field of study, culture, and the affective domain (i.e. motivation, anxiety, self- efficacy, tolerance of ambiguity, etc.) play an

important role in foreign or second language learning. Due to time limitation, the researcher did not take all individual-difference variables into consideration.

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ADVICE STRATEGIES IN ENGLISH BY MALAY UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT

The present study is an attempt to examine speech act of advice realized by Malay university students. To this end, the data were collected by an open-ended questionnaire in the form of Discourse Completion Test (DCT) and a Multiple Choice Questionnaire (MCQ) from thirty Malay university students at Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM), Malaysia. The data were then analyzed based on Hinkel's (1997) taxonomy of speech act of advice. The findings show that DCT and MCQ yielded quite different responses with regard to the use of direct and indirect advice acts among Malay university students. Finally, based on students' performance using different instruments in the present study they might require some pedagogical intervention to become pragmatically competent. Therefore, the study recommends teaching the cultural aspects of language which is a vital part of teachers' to aid students in becoming successful second language speakers.

KEYWORDS: speech act, advice, strategies, Discourse Completion Test (DCT), Multiple Choice Questionnaire (MCQ)

INTRODUCTION

Advice is an important act in people's daily life. More and more people view advice as a panel from where they can improve their performance or how to do things better. Getting feedback from others would give anyone an opportunity to learn more about themselves or the people they are working for. Based on the definition provided by Cambridge advanced learner's dictionary, advice refers to the act of offering an opinion by someone about what you should do or how you should act in a particular situation. Giving an advice can be difficult since no one would like to be told what to do and how to act. Advice can serve as an illuminating source of information on the socio-cultural values of a speech community and provide important insights into the social norms that are embedded in cultures.

For this study, the speech act of advice is selected as a unit of analysis. It aims to look at some examples of advice pragmatic production and evaluate them according to their appropriateness within the Malay context. Accordingly, it provides a valuable insight into the Malay culture.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Advice acts are considered directives in Searle's (1976) classification of illocutionary acts. Moreover, focusing on Haverkate's (1984, cited in Martínez-Flor, 2003) distinction between impositive and non- impositive exhortative speech acts, advice belongs to the latter group, since the speaker's imposition is not as strong as in requests. Another characteristic underlying all directive speech acts refers to their face-threatening nature. Brown and Levinson (1987) describe giving advice as an intrinsically face threatening act, even where the speaker indicates that he or she does not intend to avoid impending the addressee's freedom of action.

According to Hinkel (1997), the giving of advice in English is a complex speech act that should be performed with caution when the speaker is reasonably certain that the hearer is likely to do what is being advised, that all advice must be hedged and never given explicitly to avoid offending the hearer, and that the speaker is presupposed to have the right or the authority to give advice (Wardaugh, 1985; Tsui, 1994, cited in Hinkel, 1997). Empirical studies indicated that the giving of advice as a speech act of solidarity and as a means of providing assistance often creates misunderstanding between native speakers and non- native speakers. Cultural differences make it difficult to have effective communication without touching on some pragmatic attributes. Therefore, appropriate advice realizations are significant to the establishment and maintenance of relationships in a speech community.

In a cross-cultural study of speech act of advice, Hinkel (1997) investigated the perception and production of speech act of advice among Chinese and English native speakers through discourse completion test and multiple-choice questionnaire. For this purpose, the data were collected from 40 Chinese and 40 American native speakers. Based on Brown and Levinson's (1987) theoretical framework, Hinkel classified advice into three major categories: direct, hedged and indirect. Results indicated that English native speakers used direct or hedged advice more significantly than non-native speakers. Moreover, English speakers chose to give more forms of advice than the Chinese speakers on discourse completion test questionnaire, whereas the findings from multiple-choice questionnaire were quite opposite. According to Hinkel (1997), advice acts in Chinese are regarded as acts of solidarity.

In a quantitative analysis of speech act of advice, Matsumura (2001, cited in Martínez-Flor, 2003) examined how pragmatic performance of advice giving developed among Japanese students. For this purpose, the data were collected from two groups of Japanese students one of whom was studying in Japan and the other one was studying a year abroad. A multiple choice questionnaire was administrated four times during one academic year. Results indicated that living and studying in a target speech community was effective in the development of pragmatic competence. Moreover, the Japanese students' perception of social status in giving advice improved considerably as opposed to those who study inside Japan. Therefore, Matsumura (2001) suggests that learners in an EFL context may require some pedagogical intervention to become pragmatically competent.

Martínez-Flor (2003) investigated non-native speakers' production of advice acts from two different proficiency levels, determined by the educational setting they belong to. The data were collected from 232 students who were non-native speakers of English and were from a foreign language learning context. The subjects were divided into high and low levels of language proficiency. The high level group comprised of 117 students whose ages were 18 to 26 and the low level group consisted of 115 with the age range of 15 to 18. The instrument was a written production test which elicited learners' production of request, suggestion and advice. The findings indicated that there was a relation between the production of speech act advice and the proficiency level of the respondents. This was obviously true as the higher level group (university students) produced not only a greater amount of appropriate advice acts, but also they produced more modification devices than the lower level group. Moreover, most of the strategies used by the subjects were not identified in the taxonomy developed by Martínez-Flor which might be evidence of pragmatic transfer.

Al-Shboul and Zarei (2013) investigated the perception of appropriateness in speech act of advice with the effect of gender among Iranian English as a foreign language learner. For this purpose, data were collected through a multiple choice questionnaire with variation in social status. Their findings show that Iranian male respondents preferred more indirect advice while their female counterpart tended to use hedge device more than other strategies. The authors concluded that instruction is required to teach the Iranian EFL learners the appropriate strategies in English conversation.

The effect of instruction on teaching advice to EFL learners has been investigated by Fujioka (2004). According to Fujioka (2004), explicit instruction of the expressions of advice had significantly improved Japanese EFL learners' production.

These studies demonstrate that the speech act of request is governed by a systematic set of community specific rules. Violation or ignorance of these rules is bound to create serious communication problems. In addition, most of these studies confirm the influence of the cultural background of the respondents (e.g. Hinkel's, 1997). Other studies (e.g. Matsumura, 2003; Martínez-Flor, 2003) captured the development of pragmatic competence in giving advice. Length of stay in a target speech community and proficiency level of the respondents were mainly considered in relation to pragmatic development. However, results indicated that the amount of exposure was potentially of great importance in learners' pragmatic development in contrast to the level of proficiency.

OBJECTIVES AND SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY
Speech act of advice has received little attention compared to the speech act of request, apology, etc. which have been extensively investigated (Borderia-Garcia, 2006; Chun, 2009, cited in Al-Shaboul and Zarei, 2013) as there are

no studies on Malaysian ESL learner's production and perception of speech act of advice. Previous studies (e.g. Maros, 2006; Marzuki, Damio & Hie, 2009) confirmed the influence of the cultural background on the production of speech acts.

By looking at the research that has been conducted in the area of speech act of advice, it is found that there has been little research done when it comes to the performance of non-native speakers of English. In other words, when comparing the extensive research conducted on other speech acts such as requests by speakers of other languages, it is clear that research on non-native speakers of English failed to fill the gap in pragmatic research within the area of giving advice. More research is needed on unexplored speech community as it can be extensively beneficial to the understanding of the culture of its speech community. The lack of knowledge of speech act realization patterns and strategies across cultures can lead to breakdowns in intercultural and inter-ethnic communication.

Moreover, there is no single empirical study that has looked at the specific speech act of giving advice by Malays in English without considering proficiency effect on the linguistic realizations of advice. Hence, the present study steps further by advancing the research conducted on non-native speakers of English through its investigation of unstudied speech community, e.g. Malaysians. Hence, this study fills an existing gap in pragmatic research by looking at Malay university students' pragmatic ability when producing advice acts.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The present study is an investigation of Malay university students and how they perform the speech act of advice in English. The study aims to answer two questions:

1. How do Malay university students realize the speech act of advice in terms of strategies when giving advice to an instructor and a friend (student)?
2. What are the differences in employing two different methods of data collection in relation to advice strategies?

METHODOLOGY

This section presents the methodology employed for data collection and analysis in the current study. It provides a detailed description of the study sample, instrumentation, data collection procedures and data analysis.

Subjects

The subjects were 30 Malay university students. The whole group consisted of 18 females and 22 males, aged between 22 and 25. The participants were English major students at the school of Humanities, Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM), Penang, Malaysia, for the year 2011\2012. In spite of the common belief that language proficiency enhances pragmatic knowledge, studies have not yet reached an agreement showing contradictory results with respect to the extent to which proficiency relates to pragmatic competence (Kasper and Rose, 2002; Barron, 2003; Félix-Brasdefer, 2007; Dalmau and Gotor, 2007, cited in Linde, 2009). Therefore, the effect of proficiency on the linguistic realizations of advice was not considered in the present study.

Instruments and Procedure

The data were collected through an adopted version of a Discourse Completion Task (hence DCT) and a Multiple Choice Questionnaire (hence MCQ) from Hinkle's (1997) study of speech act of advice. The DCT was composed of four prompts. The participants were presented with the written situations and were asked to read each situation, imagine themselves in that situation, and then write down what they would say in a real situation. Table 1 provided a detailed description of the four situations.

Table 1: Description of the four situations

Instructor Situation 1: Library [+P, -D] Situation 2: Bookstore [+P, -D]	S1: Student- Instructor, *The instructor works in the library late at night and visibly tired*
	S2: Student- Instructor, *The instructor is thinking of buying an expensive book*
Peer acquaintances Situation 3:Academic course [=P, -D] Situation 4: Repair shop [=P, -D]	S3: Student- Student(friend), *A student considers taking a difficult academic course*
	S4: Student- Student(friend), *A student plans to take a car to repair shop far from the campus*

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Volume 5 (3), March 2014   **EISSN: 2289-2737**
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The MCQ consisted of four situations. Each situation was accompanied by four MC selections in random order: direct advice, hedged advice, indirect advice. The fourth selection was an explicit choice for opting out that remained constant for all selections. The participants were asked to choose an appropriate option from a set of multiple choices that represents what they would say under each situation.

The participants were thirty Malay university students. Each subject was met individually by the researchers at USM. Researchers provided the participants with detailed instructions about the tasks. Each participant was given 30 minutes to complete the provided task. The participants were first provided with written DCT and then, subjects were asked to choose an appropriate option from a set of multiple choices that represents what they would say under each situation. Each situation was based on two social variables: "relative power" and "social distance" between the interlocutors. This study investigated advice to equal status (=P) and high status (+P) and familiar (-D) interlocutors. In other words, this study investigated advice to instructor (social dominance) and advice between peer acquaintances (status equal).

Data Analysis
The data were then analyzed based Hinkel's (1997) taxonomy of advice. The taxonomy was divided into three classifications:

1- Direct Advice: responses where the speaker attempts to cause the addressee to do something i.e. including imperatives and the modal verb should as in "You should…"without hedging.
2- Hedge advice: responses where the speakers uses hedging devices to reduce his commitment to the truth and relevance of the proposition, such as "I think…", "It seemed that..", "It appeared", "I believe.." and many more.. (Hinkel, 1997, p.11).
3- Indirect Advice: responses which could have more than one illocutionary force and in which no explicit or hedge advice was identified were coded as indirect advice.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
An analysis of each instrument is presented below.

DCT results
As for DCT, the participants showed a preference for the use of both *hedge* and *indirect* strategies when giving an advice in English. However, *direct* strategies were employed by the participants in the form of imperative "You should..". Participants also show a tendency of not giving an advice. A description of the DCT analysis is provided in Table 2.

Table 2: Advice strategies in DCT

	Situations	Direct	Hedge	Indirect	Nothing
DCT	S1	6.7%	20.0%	50.0%	23.3%
	S2	.0%	66.7%	30.0%	3.3%
	S3	10.0%	26.7%	56.7%	6.7%
	S4	3.3%	43.0%	46.7%	6.7%

In Situation One (S1), a student gives *an advice to a familiar instructor who works in the library late at night and visibly tired. The social relationship between the participants is that of hearer dominance and high familiarity.* It was found that 50.0% (N=15) of the participants employed indirect strategies.

Some elicitations of the responses in S1 are as follows:

You have lots of work to do? Do you need my help?
Hey Mr. you look very busy. What are you doing at this hour?
You look very tired. Is there anything I could do to help you?
Hello, why you are still working in this time? You look very tired. Do you want me to help you?
Why you are looking so tired, didn't you have enough sleep?

The findings show that 20.0% (N=6) of the participants preferred the use of hedge advice. The examples below are advice given with hedging forms such as "why don't you.."and "I think..". Examples:

Why you not go back home yet? Its already late. *I think* you need to rest.
Sir, you look so tired. *Why don't you* just continue it tomorrow?
Hi, you look so tired and it's very late. *Why don't you* go home and get some rest?
You seem to be very tired. *Why don't you* take a break?
Why don't you go home and rest for a while.

According to the examples above, the participants used some greeting formulas such as 'Hi' and 'Hello' when giving their advice in S1. The participants used an element in the form of ''greeting or social formulae'' whose function is to alert the hearer's attention to the ensuing speech act (Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper, 1989).The use of greeting formulas in this situation helps to reduce the power difference between the interlocutors and emphasize familiarity. The use of these greeting formulas was also evident in other situations. Other participants began their advice responses by defining the relationship between their interlocutors and themselves with regard to social status. This was accomplished by referring to the rank of the hearer using address terms (e.g. Mr. and Sir).

Only 3.3% (N=2) of the participants used direct advice. The analysis shows that the direct advice acts included the use of an imperative form and the modal verb 'should' as in: "*You should go home and rest. You look very tired*" and *"You should have a good rest at home", w*hile 23.3% (N=7) of the participants preferred to say noting in such a situation.

In Situation Two (S2), a *student gives an advice to a familiar instructor who is thinking of buying an expensive book. The social relationship between the participants is that of hearer dominance and high familiarity similar to S1.* The distribution of advice for situation two is concentrated on both hedge 66.7% (N=20) and indirect advice 30.0% (N=9). The findings show that 3.3% (N=1) of the responses preferred to say nothing. Most of these hedge advice acts are realized though the use of hedging forms such as *"I think", "why don't", "Maybe"* and *How about":* Examples:

I think you should not buy this book because there is another store that may sell the book at a lower price.
I think maybe we should survey the price first.
I think we should go to another store and compare the price before you purchase the book.
Why don't we look at another bookstore?
How about going to another book shop? *I think* this shop is too expensive.
Maybe we can have a look at another bookstore first to compare the price.
Maybe you get this book with a cheaper price at another store.

Situation Three (S3) is one in which a student advises another student who *considers taking a difficult academic course. The social relationship between the participants is that of equal power and high familiarity. Indirect advice 56.7% (N=17) is the most frequently used strategy. In this situation, some participants start their utterance by posing a question then describe the course as difficult. By doing this, the speaker is giving an indirect advice the hearer indirectly. Examples:*

Do you really want to take this course? I heard that the course is really difficult.
I have heard that the course is quite difficult. You will need to work hard to succeed in that course.

The findings show that 26.7% (N=8) of the subjects used a hedge advice. Similarly, subjects' hedge advice acts are realized though the use of hedging forms such as *"I think", "why don't"* and *"Maybe"as in the following examples:*

I think the course you want to take is difficult.
Why don't you go and meet the academic adviser before you enrol in that difficult course.
Maybe you should try to do a pro and cons before you take the course.
Why don't you try asking a person who has taken this course?

Direct strategies using the imperative and the modal verb 'should' were employed by only 10.0% (N=3) of the subjects as in "*You must think carefully before you take your decision on this course*", while 6.7% (N=2) of the subjects preferred to opt out if they encounter such a situation.

The International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World (IJLLALW)
Volume 5 (3), March 2014   **EISSN: 2289-2737**
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Situation Four (S4) is one in which a student advises another student who *plans to take a car to repair shop far from the campus. The social relationship between the participants is that of equal power and high familiarity. Hedge and Indirect advice are the most frequently used advice. Findings indicated that 46.7% (N=14) of the participants choose to perform their advice using indirect strategies. Some examples of indirect advice acts are as follows:*

I know another place that is nearer.
I know a shop on the corner where you can take your car.
I know a place that offers a good price and services. Do you want to try?
I always take my car at the shop on the corner. Why not you just send your car there?
Hey, there is another shop just near the corner.

Similarly 43.0% (N=13) of the participants realized their advice with hedging devices such as "*I think*" and "*why don't*" as a way to reduce the directness of giving advice. Examples of hedge advice acts:

I think you can take your car to the shop on the corner. They are very good.
Why don't you try the shop on the corner? I have used to go there before.
Why don't we try the other shop? I have brought my car over there. The service is good.
Why don't you go to the shop that is located nearby? You don't really have to travel that far.

The findings show that direct strategies were employed by 3.3% (N=1) of the participants, while 6.7% (N=2) of the participants preferred to opt out if they encounter such a situation. It should be noted that most of the participants' justification in all DCT situations for opting out is that they would rather not to interfere in the hearer's freedom of action. For them, giving an advice can be difficult as indicated before since no one would like to be told what to do and how to act.

MCQ results

An analysis of MCQ is presented in table 3. In situation one (S1) and situation two (S2), a student gives *an advice to a familiar instructor.* The findings show that 50.0% (N=15) of the participants used direct strategies by choosing direct advice: *You should not work so hard. It's very late*, while 30.0% (N=9) of the participants preferred to opt out if they encounter such a situation. The findings indicate that 13.3% (N=4) of the participants choose to perform a hedge advice if they encounter such a situation. Only 6.7% (N=2) of the participants used indirect strategy advice.

Table 3: Advice strategies in MCQ

	Situations	Direct	Hedge	Indirect	Nothing
MCQ	S1	A 50.0%	B 13.3%	C 6.7%	D 30.0%
	S2	A 40.0%	C 50.0%	B 6.7%	D 3.3%
	S3	C .0%	B 13.3%	A 76.7%	D 10.0%
	S4	B 23.3%	C 16.7%	A 56.7%	D 3.3%

Similarly, *option A: You should buy the book at the other store. This store has high prices was chosen by 40.0% (N=12) of the participants in S2. Moreover, 50.0% (N=15) of the participants also preferred to choose option C: Maybe, it's not a good idea to buy the book here. This store has high prices* which indicated that they would prefer to perform a hedge advice in such situation. Like S1, 6.7% (N=2) of the participants used indirect strategy advice. In addition, only 3.3% (N=1) of the participants employed to opt out in S2.

In situations three (S3), which a student advises another student about a difficult course and in situation four (S4) a student takes a car to a repair shop. *The social relationship between the participants is that of equal power and high familiarity. Indirect advice is the most frequently used advice. Findings indicated that option A: I've heard that this course is really difficult* was chosen by 76.7% (N=23) of the participants in S3.*Similarly in S4 option A:I usually take my car to the shop on the corner. Its closer* was chosen by 56.7% (N=17) of the participants, while 23.3% (N=7) of the participants preferred direct advice in S4 by choosing option B: *You should take your car to the shop on the corner. It's closer. Few participants displayed their preference toward hedge advice (13.3% (N=4) in S3 and 16.7% (N=5) in S4) B and C options in both situations. In addition, few* participants also show a tendency of not giving an advice (i.e. 10.0% (N=3) in S3 and 3.3% (N=1) in S4).

An analysis of the participants' performance in relation to the use of two different instruments (DCT and MCQ) shows that there was a difference in the use of direct strategies in S1 and in S2. Results showed that the participants preferred to perform direct advice acts in S1 as indicated in MCQ results, while their performance in DCT indicated the use of indirect advice acts compared to direct ones. Similarly, in S2 the participants wrote down what they would say under such situations using more indirect advice act forms. However, the participants used more direct advice act options in MCQ as an appropriate form that represents what they would say under the same situation.

Moreover, the findings showed that there was a difference in the use of both hedge and indirect advice in S3 where Malays used more hedge strategies when giving advice to a friend (student) as indicated in DCT results. Moreover, the findings showed that there was also a difference in using indirect advice strategies in S3 as it was found that Malay participants preferred to use indirect advice acts more in MCQ than they did in DCT.

Discussion
An overall examination of the findings showed that DCT and MCQ yielded quite different responses with regard to the use of direct and indirect advice acts among Malay university students. A closer look at the findings of MCQ in this study would suggest a difference in the use of direct and indirect advice acts than what seem to be in DCT findings in both S1 and S2. The participants' use of direct advice strategies in S1 and S2 was higher in MCQ than their use in DCT. The participants' choice of direct strategies is most probably due to the (-D) social factor whereby the emphasis is on high familiarity between both participants. Hedged advice and direct advice were chosen by the respondents as solidarity strategy to show benevolence, develop conversational rapport, and /or establish group belonging. In other words, the results of this study seem to reinforce the notion stated by Hinkel (1997) that the degree of directness expected in appropriate speech act may vary according to the social norms of each community. Hence, Malay speech act of giving direct and hedged advice are not to be perceived inappropriately. Directness may be assumed to express intimacy and closeness rather than rudeness or impoliteness. In this sense, direct advice are classified as solidarity politeness strategies and it permits a more direct level of interaction between close people such as brothers, sons, daughters, sisters and even close friends because they imply that the speaker assumes only a small social distance between him/herself and the interlocutor. However, further testing may provide us with a more global view of the cultural tendencies in the act of giving advice by Malays.

Another difference was evident in S3 in the case of using hedge advice in DCT and indirect advice in MCQ. The participants' use of hedge advice strategies in S3 is higher in DCT than their use in DCT. In addition, the participants' use of indirect advice strategies in S3 is higher in MCQ than their use in DCT. Thus, when it comes to giving advice between peer acquaintances, the performance and the choice of the advice act is determined by the interlocutors' mutual need to attend to their own and each other's face, reputation and respect. Thus, these participants gave indirect advice to a friend. The reason for the preference of the indirectness is due to the fact that the speech act of advice itself which often calls for strategies of indirectness; advice are face-threatening, and the possibility of offending someone is inherent in the act itself (Beebe & Takahashi, 1989). Thus, the participants cooperate in maintaining face or one's public self image. Traditionally the Malays value indirectness in speaking so as to save face of others and maintaining good relationship among the interlocutors and the society as whole. Therefore, the preference for these indirect advice, particularly the use of indirect advice by providing explanations based on personal experiences are good ways to save face, both the speaker's and hearer's.

With the above descriptions of the Malay cultural values and common behaviour, it seems that Malay university students reflect their L1 behaviour to some extent by their attempts to take face into considerations and adhering to the formal rules of behaviour and politeness when giving advice to peer acquaintance. This is clearly illustrated through their preference of indirectness in all the advice acts realization in DCT situations. The results are in accordance with the previous studies which reported that the second language learners do transfer their L1 behaviours to L2 and it can be an evidence of pragmatic failure. Nevertheless, more research is needed testing the relation of face and advice giving behaviour of Malays in English.

With regard to the differences between employing distinct research instruments, the second research question examined the differences in the linguistic realization of advice in English when employing both DCT and MCQ. The analysis showed that there were differences in the use of advice strategies in both DCT and MCQ data. It should be noted that this difference in the participants' performance of advice strategies in both DCT and MCQ might probably be explained by the fact that "MCQ responses are more representative of face–to-face interaction" (Rose, 1994). In this sense, the results of this study confirmed the drawbacks to this method of data collection (DCT) for this type of study. Most importantly, it is difficult to decide how representative written answers are of real and actual responses the participants would actually say in spontaneous conversations. Yet, this assumption cannot be generalized even

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though many studies have invalidated the DCT data. Moreover, MCQ questionnaires are used to gain information about the participants' "perception of alternative speech act realisation...or about the pragmatic meaning the participants assign to offered stimulus material as stated by Rose (1994). DCT are classified as highly constrained instruments that elicit production data (Kasper & Dahl ,1991 cited in Hinkel, 1997, p. 3-4). Given this classification of instruments, the data gathered by means of MCQ and DCT may not be comparable. Nevertheless, according to the results of Rose's (1994) study, his respondents judged indirect speech acts as appropriate on MC but produced direct written responses to DCT. These findings warrant further investigation of the validity of DCT, MC, and other types of instruments employed to elicit speech acts.

Based on previous studies that have used DCT and MCQ (Rose, 1992; Hinkel, 1997) and other studies that question the validity of DCT as instruments (Rose, 1994, 2009; Billmyer and Varghese, 2000), the difference in the participants' use of a strategy is due to the fact that both instruments are written in English. Choosing an advice may be more accessible to the participants than producing written responses to DCT. When responding to MCQ, the participants are faced with a more balanced task than entailed in the production of a written response in English. Since making choices from an MCQ selection requires only a fraction of the effort necessary for writing responses to DCT, the latter may elicit data more representative of planned, rather than spontaneous discourse characteristics of an actual speech act. More importantly, responses to DCT are likely to impose greater demands on the participants' L2 linguistic skills and thus make DCT less accessible than selecting items in an MCQ instrument.

However, DCT appears to surpass all other instruments in ease of use. Despite the fact that many studies which claimed request strategies data elicited by DCT as naturally occurring data for patterns and formulas (Blum-Kulka et al, 1989; Beebe et al 1990; Rose, 2009), DCT is a useful method used to collect information regarding respondents' knowledge and attitudes regarding the use of a speech act. In this sense, the focus is on the pragmatic competence of what learners know about English advice act.

CONCLUSION

This study has attempted to outline the preferred advice acts given to both instructors and peer acquaintance by Malay university students. With regard to advice strategies, the first research question examined the linguistic realization of advice in English. To examine how advice are realized based on the DCT test, data were analysed following the methodology proposed by Hinkel (1997). In other words, the production of advice was analysed in terms of strategies: direct, hedge and indirect. Results of the present study showed differences between the participants performance in two distinct instruments, however, further examinations using other instruments may provide us with a more analysis of the cultural tendencies in the act of giving advice among non-native speakers like Malaysians. The use of two written instruments should be taken into account as far as the limitations of the study are concerned. Ongoing research in the study of real life encounters in which advice are performed would give more insight into the cultural tendencies, and may be more authentic if the responses were verbal as opposed to written as done in this study. Other limitations can be seen in the examination of one ethnic group, i.e. Malays. This means that results cannot be representative of Malaysians as a country. Thus, examining other ethnicities such as Chinese and Indians might provide a comprehensive picture of how these groups interact.

Finally, based on Malay university students' performance using different instruments in the present study they might require some pedagogical intervention to become pragmatically competent. Therefore, teaching the cultural aspects of language is a vital part of teachers' duty to aid their students in becoming successful second language speakers. ESL teachers should design contextualized, task-based activities that expose learners to different types of pragmatic information along with the linguistic means needed to perform a particular speech act.

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THE CORRELATION OF TEACHING STYLES AND CRITICAL THINKING: THE CASE OF IRANIAN TEACHERS

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ABSTRACT
It is assumed that critical thinking and teaching styles are correlated in construction. In order to investigate the claim, this study aimed to discover the relationship between critical thinking and teaching styles in a population of Iranian PHD candidates who were experienced teachers. Two questionnaires with the focus of critical thinking and teaching styles were assigned to the population of teachers and the results came to be in favor of critical thinking in correspondence with formal authority as a construct of teaching styles questionnaire. It is revealed that critical thinking teachers are teachers who prefer to follow standards, give feedback to students and are less likely to perceive teaching as a personally modified activity. Moreover, as critical thinking is formed in communities, therefore, teachers' beliefs should be accounted for the thinking thread through which teachers apply their teaching practices in the classroom.

KEYWORDS*: Critical Thinking, Teaching Styles,*

INTRODUCTION
Teacher Liberty and her crucial role in inducing learning opportunity and tailoring the classroom teaching according to learner's perception came into center with the birth of post method era. In this view, teachers are encouraged to contextualize their teaching and increase their sense of "plausibility". "It also provides one possible way to be responsive to the lived experiences of learners and teachers and to the local exigencies of learning and teaching" (Kumaravadevalue, 2006, p.73). Therefore the teacher's experience found a significant place in pedagogy, the experience whose identity was credible with the teacher's personal attributes, pedagogical knowledge and learning experiences. It may be interpreted as experiential teaching where the personal abilities take precedence in selectively choosing the proper teaching practice. In other words, the teacher's 'personal qualities guide and direct the selection of instructional power' (Grasha, 1996, p. 1).

Styles are external reflection of ways teachers use to control and govern their philosophical, methodological and personal understanding and preferences in teaching. Stenberg (1997) proposes the general characteristics of styles. Styles are preferences not abilities; they vary across tasks and situations; strength of preferences differ in various styles; stylistic flexibility differs among people; styles are interaction-sensitive; styles are dramatically changeable throughout lifespan; there are measures for styles; styles have capacity to be modified and situational context affects the value of styles.

In this vein, the teacher's intellectual thinking critically tends to be instructive in decision making. In fact, the teacher should think critically to be able to make the most use of her abilities in teaching. Noris and Ennis (1990) define critical thinking as inductive and deductive approach to making decisions and thinking. In other words, thinking critically arms teachers with the ability to optimize the teaching styles with learning styles. Thus, the teacher's teaching style probably is subsumed under her critical thinking. I f this assumption is correct then the teacher's attempt to develop her critical thoughts encourages the cognitive development to choose appropriate teaching styles. It shows that critical thinking and teaching style may share some points or to be in direct relationship. This study investigates existence of any kind of correlation between thinking critically and teaching styles. The positive

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relationship would help educators to devise teaching program to upgrade teacher's critical thinking and enable them to gain access to suitable teaching styles, hence alternatively hone the teaching practices. Therefore, the vital question is broadly focused on the meaningful connection between critical thinking and teaching style.

LITRATURE REVIREW

Teachers share personally-specific behaviors related to their system of beliefs. The deep-seated influence of cognitive behavior improvises the teaching practices and usually is the principal cause of the differentiating difference between a well-established teaching and a detrimental teaching situation. The manifesto of teachers' stylistic qualities provides a reasonably neat account of the teacher's characteristics. Grasha (1996) associates between the personal qualities to which the teacher adheres while teaching, instructional process and students' styles. In other words, teaching style is the interactive connection of beliefs and behaviors displayed in the classroom (Grasha, 1996).

Concerning teaching styles opens up the chambers of discoveries in teachers' personal, technical and learning characteristics. The outcome of stepping teaching styles into the gap of prescriptive teaching diminishes blind teaching and modifies the previously set teaching behaviors. Instructional strategies then begin to serve broader philosophical, theoretical and conceptual goals (Grasha, 1996). Teaching with style as Grasha (1996) puts forward centralizes two main questions of "who I am as a teacher?" and "what do I want to become?" It potentially illustrates the ongoing process of behavioral development in response to revising and updating teaching beliefs.

Teachers should be aware of their personal attitudes towards teaching and conscious attention to thinking styles. In fact, teaching styles are in direct interaction with individual differences (Zhang, 2007). The concept of teaching style is rooted in Stenberg's (1997) thinking style. Teacher's thinking style interpreted as self-government (Stenberg, 1997) describes thinking styles in terms of teachers' abilities to use cognitive, personal, and activities constructed towards classroom instructional factors. According to Stenberg (1997, 1988) there are 13 thinking styles that are categorized under five dimensions: functions, forms, level, scopes and learning. Zhang and Stenberg (2005) reconceptualized 13 thinking styles into three types. Type I subsumes legislative, judicial, hierarchical, global and liberal. Type II devotes a lower cognitive complexity and advocates local, monarchic and conservative levels. Type III depending on the task demands manifests characteristics of type I and type II. Contextual manifestation of thinking style is teaching style (Kabaday, 2007 cited in Zhang, 2008).Teaching style based on Masston and Ashworth (2002 cited in Morgan, Sproule, and Kingston, 2005) is categorized according to the teacher's intellectual abilities to make decisions in three phases of pre-impact, teaching and post-impact. These phases are not separated and work as a continuum. This spectrum is further categorized into reproduction which is centered on learner's recalling the known information, production of the motor skills and production in which the central learning outcome is for learners to discover new information.

Grasha (1996) has illustrated the stylistic qualities of college teachers in five classifications of Expert, Formal authority, Personal model, Facilitator and Delegator. He argues that keeping a single eye on each box of character is misleading and inaccurately takes the teacher as unidimensional personality. However, in reality "each individual style is like a different colour on an artistic palette" (p.2). Blended colours give a natural view of the teacher's style. Teaching style trades approximate synonymous to the ability to think critically and manage the instructional activities in line with the arisen needs. Critical thinking in teacher education has taken a perceived place since the pedagogy urges teachers to give priority to their moment to moment decisions and to be prepared to tackle any kind of problems cognitively and manage their instructional activities to increase the chance of learning. In this vein, some scholars such as Brookfield (1987) views critical thinking synonymous to reflection. Costa and Kellick (2009 cited in Grossar and Nel (2013) propose a multidimensional perspective for critical thinking that merges all cognitive, metacognitive strategies such as hunger for grasping information, eagerness to deduce the reason, draw reasonable solutions, self-confidence and monitoring ones' cognitive actions and abilities. Although critical thinking lacks a definite conceptual definition but the most influential characteristic of critical thinking is suggested by Ennis (1987) as the "reasonable reflective thinking that is focused on deciding what to believe or do" (Hager and Kaye, 1992, p. 26). Critical thinking makes a distinguishing line between weak and strong reasoning (Paul, Binker, Martin and Adamson, 1989). Therefore the key part of thinking critically is to evaluate the assumptions and beliefs.

Teaching strategies are aspects of critical thoughts; a critical thinking teacher must critique the teaching practices and the underlying beliefs, recall the success and failure of teaching (Paul, Binker, Martin and Adamson, 1989). Thus, giving value to the teacher's voice can resonate with critical thoughts. In this regard, Kuhn (1999) suggests metacognition as the developing cognitive competences relevant to critical thinking.

Research accords equal validity to thinking style and teaching style. "Thinking includes making many mental knowledge and processes." (Abou El-Maati, 2005 cited in Turki, 2012, p.140). Teachers' teaching styles are consistent with teachers' thinking (Zhang, 2008) and teachers' teaching style may be predictable from their thinking style. Plethora of research confirms the strength of significant construction of relation between teaching style and learning style (Saracho, 1990; Zhang, 2004; Zhang, 2001), personal attitudes and technical knowledge. These bodies of research are well-thought out plans of absolutely central role of connectivity between teaching style and learning style. These investigations are immediately relevant to the mutual assumption of the power of teaching style passed over to learner's learning styles. The alternative vantage of related studies point to the reciprocal interaction between teachers' teaching styles and the way learners' bring their learning preferences in to surface.

Consequently, there is no amenable analysis of the thinking factors involved in the selection of particularteaching styles. This study purports to highlight the place of critical thinking in perception of teaching styles and to revise the overshadowed approach to studying teaching styles from externally-controlled point of view and strives to scrutinize the collaboration of internally-mediated thinking parameters in external reflection of the relationship between thought and action. Accumulated findings of this study are expected to expand the scope of teaching style and critical thinking in order to provide information for language educators' pedagogical tendencies to behave teaching in a particular way in line with personal tread of thoughts in center. This study has the wealth of data probing in several areas such as investigating the Iranian local context in particular and discriminating the factors connected to the formation of teaching styles based on critical thinking ability of teachers.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS
1. Is there any significant relationship between teaching styles and critical thinking among teachers?
2. Is critical thinking the basis for growth of teaching styles?

METHODOLOGY
Participants
The study holds sway to the relationship between critical thinking and teaching styles. Therefore, it was supposed that experienced teachers practically and academically may show more reliable result as both variables in this investigation assumed that teaching styles and critical thinking have close correlation with teaching experience (Zhang and Sachs, 1997; Zhang and Stenberg, 2002). Twenty eight postgraduate,Ph.D.candidates were selected with the assumption that their teaching experiences in theory and practice suffice for data collection since teaching style and teaching experience are supposed to have one-to-one correspondence. All participants were experienced teachers. Although participants were selected from three different universities and institutions their teaching criteria and language proficiency were at similar range and did not make an extraneous factor to make a deviation in the results.

Instruments
In order to gain access to the relationship between critical thinking and teaching styles, two questionnaires were utilized. One questionnaire dealt with teaching styles which was based on Grasha's(1996) teaching with style questionnaire. It consisted of forty questions and participants had to choose their position towards each statement based on Likert scale from 1 to 5. The questionnaire was additionally categorized into five categories.

1. *Expert Category*: It deals with teachers who emphasize knowledge and expertise and challenge the students' competence. This teaching style characterizes teachers as knowledge transmitters.
2. *Formal Authority*: Teachers using this style are concerned with providing positive and negative feedback, set standards and provide students with the required structures.
3. *Personal Model*: It magnifies teaching by personal examples. Teachers observe and direct to show how to do things.
4. *Facilitator*: It copes with the personal nature of teacher-student interactions; class interactions are stressed. Teachers facilitate and direct students to develop criteria for discovering choices; asking questions, exploring options and suggesting alternatives are encouraged.

5. *Delegator*: This style is concerned with student autonomy; students independent learning. The teacher gives guidance to students when it is needed.

The second questionnaire was used (Naeini's (2005) critical thinking questionnaire) to collect data on the critical thinking of teachers. It had 30items on the Liker Scale of 1 to 5. Participants chose the scales based on the frequency of each item-based activity in the questionnaire that they stick to mostly in real life.

Procedure
Two questionnaires of teaching style and critical thinking were assigned to participants at the same time. The reliability of both teaching style and critical thinking was calculated based on Cronbach's formula. The tallied results were respectively 85.0 and 78.0 for teaching styles and critical thinking questionnaires which credits the local utilization of the questionnaires in respect to the population of the study. The data collected from each questionnaire was put into correlation coefficient formula in order to explore the existence of any relationship between teaching styles and critical thinking.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION
Pedagogical goals of teachers to prepare students educationally to enter the society serve different stylish forms, that is, teachers take advantage of various ways to build an increment in rate of learning and enhance the opportunities through which students can achieve their learning goals. In this highly complicated situation where the teacher and students are acting as humans with all complexities of discovering their real dimensions, teaching styles can cope with learners' desire to maximize the chance of aimed learning. In this vein, it is suggested that critical thinking is of importance since it probably can boost teacher's sense of exploration of students' goals and desires and put them in line with her thinking styles. In other words critical thinking in pedagogy is supposed to help teachers and students to ground more criteria when acting their roles as teachers and students. The present study aimed to discover the likelihood of relation between critical thinking and teaching styles; in other words if teachers as critical thinkers are supposed to use specific teaching styles. Statistically speaking, the data obtained from the tallied correlational formula illustrateda statistical connection between critical thinking and "formal authority" as a teaching style construct. Table below shows the data and its correlational relationship clearly.

Table 1: The correlation between critical thinking and teaching stylesat 0.01 level of significance

	E	FA	PM	F	D	TSS
TCS	0.391	0.645**	0.304	0.300	0.366	0.253

Obviously seen, there is no significant correlation between total score of critical thinking (0.253 at 0.01 level of significance) and total score of teaching styles. In other words it is implied that substantially teaching styles are motivated by another category rather than critical thinking. To interpret the data, there is a relationship between formal authority as a teaching style construct and total score of critical thinking (0.0645** at 0.01 level of significance) which defines the connection between a teacher as a critical thinker and her teaching style in form of formal authority. Therefore, it responses to the first question, namely, is there any correlation between critical thinking and teaching style, it is revealed that critical thinking teachers are teachers who prefer to follow standards, give feedback to students and are less likely to perceive teaching as a personally modified activity. This type of teachers act as the class authority as make their decisions based on the pedagogically prescribed rules (Zhang, 2008).

Consequently, finding of the study contradicts with Zhang and Sachs (1997) and Zhang and Stenberg (2002) who assert critical thinking is in connection with teaching styles. In this case critical thinking and teaching styles are two discrete entities. The potential result of this investigation accords validity to the contextual definition of critical thinking as well as teaching styles. Iranian teachers are by means of being trained to follow authorities and because of pedagogical position of teaching English, immensely contribute teaching and learning goals to the offspring of Grammar translation method and in more opportunistic view Audiolingual method. Another point regarding the reason for which critical thinking did not show alignment with teaching styles can lend itself to the fact that teachers in this local context are not critical thinkers and should be trained during pre-service and in-service teaching development programs to build critical thinking strategies and behavriours. Teaching styles are the reflections of teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning goals and the result definitely illuminates the importance of the traditional views towards teaching and learning though it has been tried, in recent years, to change the infrastructure of language teaching in Iran. To be more precise, the first premises of teaching are planned according to the teachers' perceptions that change in teaching practices goes nowhere and seems ineffective probably because they feel safe following the past teaching routines or they find no need to make a different direction to their teaching goals.

The second question can be answered in respect to the findings of the study which dissipates any corollary for determining any types of relationship between teachers' critical thinking and teaching styles to hypothesize teaching development on the basis of being high critical thinkers. However, the original approach to teaching styles is not separate from think critically. Although it was suggested that teachers' critical thinking would describe the type of teaching style they implement in their teaching practices, Iranian teachers seem to find the root of thinking critically in line with establishing an authoritative view. In fact, giving value to teacher's voice can resonate with critical thinking which is not of much attention in educational system of Iran. Another point to consider when focusing on critical thinking and its outcomes is that contextual situations should not be ignored. Teachers' operationalized definition of the concept of critical thinking shifts from place to place and teacher to teacher in respect to their teaching and learning beliefs(Paul, Binker, Martin and Adamson, 1989). Therefore, looking at critical thinking based on the provided definitions and elements does not suffice and it needs to explore critical thinking of Iranian teachers from an Iranian-bound point of view; then it would be possible to recognise the local teachers of this region critical thinkers or not.

CONCLUSION

The study tried to reveal any connections between teachers' modes of critical thinking and teaching styles. The obtained data shed light on the significant correlation of critical thinking and formal authority as a type of teaching style. The potential result may assume that Iranian teachers' teaching styles is interrelated to the thinking direction dominant over the education system of the country. As critical thinking is formed in communities, therefore, teachers' beliefs should be accounted for the thinking thread through which teachers apply their teaching practices in the classroom. To acknowledge more potential in the relationship between critical thinking and teaching styles researchers should imply critical thinking and teaching styles as two socio-culture entities rather than two broad generalizable concepts. Thus further studies should be borne out to confirm the claim as critical thinking and teaching styles are culturally correlated. Next studies should first infuse critical thinking enquiries on the basis of cultural definition. Second teaching styles are not categorized in firmed fashion and are flexible again with context and culture (Grasha, 1996). Consequently, teaching styles should be discovered on Iranian scales and then investigate the plausible correlation of critical thinking and teaching styles.

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SPEECH FUNCTIONS IN TELEVISION CHANNELS SLOGAN
A COMPARISON OF SUBSCRIBE AND UNSUBSCRIBE TELEVISION CHANNELS

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ABSTRACT
This study was conducted to compare the speech function in slogans of subscribe and unsubscribe TV channels. These are terrestrial TV channel which is free (unsubscribe) base and cable TV channel which needs to subscribe (pay) in order to get their channels. This is a descriptive qualitative research since it attempts to describe the speech functions in 19 channels with 39 slogans from Cable TV and 19 channels with 39 slogans from terrestrial TV. Further, the objectives of this study are: 1) to identify the illocutionary acts in their slogans. 2) to classify them based on macro class of speech acts classification and 3) to compare what kinds of speech act are more used in both networks system. To answer those problems, the present writer has adopted some theoretical frameworks from Yule (1996), Levinson (1985), Searle (1976) and cutting (2003). The result shows that representative speech act is more used by both of terrestrial TV channel and cable TV channel. Then, directive speech acts is more used by cable TV than terrestrial TV. And the last, expressive speech act is more used by terrestrial TV than cable TV. However, commisive and declarative speech acts are not found in this result of study.

KEYWORDS: Pragmatics, illocutionary act, speech act classification, subscribe TV channel slogan, unsubscribe TV channel slogan

INTRODUCTION

> *"Whatever else people do when they come together whether they play, fight, or make dishwashers they talk''*
>
> (Fromkin et al, 1999)

Language is the source of human life and power (Fromkin et al, 1999:2) since people use language to communicate, to explore knowledge, to convey the ideas, to ask some opinions or helps, and so on. The point is language is needed in human life.

In social interaction, language is not only used in conversation or spoken but also in written such as email, letter, invitation card, texts messaging, etc. Moreover, in business field, we find many slogans in some advertisements as one of communicative way between companies and consumers. Regarding their functions, broadcasting companies create slogan to attract people to stay tune in their channels. In addition, slogan is also as communicative way between broadcasting companies and the viewers to tell who they are.

Today many broadcasting companies sprung up and add the list of television channels in the world, especially in Indonesia. We can enjoy many television programs from many channels, not only local or national channel but also international. Local or national television channels are included in the terrestrial television. They are free for the public and do not need use cable or satellite to receive the channel signals. While international channels usually receive via cable television. They distribute through radio frequency which transmitted through coaxial cable. Public

335

who want to receive the program from cable television must subscribe in order to receive the network channel signals. In other word, public should pay for cable television.

The broadcasting companies introduce themselves and identify themselves through their slogans. They create slogans as unique as possible to attract the viewers. Whittier in Foster (2001) says *"a slogan…should be a statement of such merit about a product or service that it is worthy of continuous repetition in advertising, is worthwhile for the public to remember, and is phrased in such a way that the public is likely to remember it".*

In addition, Foster (2001) also states that the slogan aims to leave the key brand message in the mind of the target. Furthermore, slogan should contain some characteristics such as, memorable, strategic, competitive, original, simple, neat, and believable also it should be able to recall the brand name, include a key benefit, differentiate the brand, impart positive feelings for the brand, reflect the brand personality, and help in ordering the brand and so on.

In this article the present writer focuses on speech functions in the slogans which are used and have been using by broadcasting companies through their Television channels; terrestrial televisions and cable televisions. The study of speech act functions has become a central area of study in linguistics, including Pragmatics. According to Parker (1986:11) in Nurjannah, pragmatics is the study of how language is used for communication. In addition, this kind of approach always concerns to a context. As Bublitz and Norrick (2011:4) state *"Pragmatics is fundamentally concerned with communicative action in any kind of context".*

This study is initiated by some previous researchers that discussed in the same issues. Nurjannah (2013) in her article entitled *"Speech Act Functions in Status of a face book: Pragmatic Approach".* Further, this study examines utterances on face book especially the speech act functions. And the result of the study shows that there are four functions of speech acts found in the status of FB such as representative, directive, commisive and expressive.

Besides Nurjanah, the writer who conducted research in speech act was Al-Shaer (2013). The article was entitled *"Speech Acts in American English and Palestian Arabic"* it is published by *International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Lingustics World.* In addition, this study explored how both English and Arabic realize certain speech acts, mainly authoritative speech acts, promising and thanking. Then, this study showed that three of speech acts indicated differently in both of languages. However, this study is different from the previous researchers. While Nurjanah's study just tried to investigate the speech act functions in FB, this study not only aims to explore the speech functions but also investigate the classification of speech acts and types of speech act that more used in both of subscribe or unsubscribe TV channels. Furthermore, it is also different from Al-Shaer's study since he only limited his discussion on authoritative speech acts, promising and thanking.

Therefore, according to the explanation above, it is very important for us to investigate the speech functions in television channels slogan since it is necessary not only for the broadcasting companies but also for viewers. As it is explained by Reece, Vanden Berg, and Li in Sujatna (2013)*" the primary use of a slogan is to summarize the brand's message and to provide continuity from one advertising execution to another in a campaign".* Magrath (1990) in Sujatna (2013) also argues that you should not underestimate the value of a good slogan as a key ingredient to establishing and maintaining a strong brand identity. Thus, the present writer is interested in conducting this research by comparing the speech function on slogans of subscribe and unsubscribe TV channels.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK
Definition of Pragmatics
Levinson (1985:13) states that pragmatics is the study of all those aspects of meaning that are not captured in a semantic theory. In addition, Djajasudarma (2012:48) says *"pragmatik mencakup studi antara pengetahuan kebahasaan dan dasar pengetahuan tentang dunia yang dimiliki oleh pendengar/pembaca (Pragmatics covers the study of listener's linguistic knowledge and the basic about the world).* Yule (1996) also notes that pragmatics concerns about communication result, what is the speaker' intention and how the listener interpreted it. Circumstances, place, time and the interlocutor itself should be considered by a speaker when he or she delivered the messages. Therefore, Pragmatics is defined as the science which studies the contextual meaning. Pragmatics also defined as the study of how more gets communicated than is said. The listener should be able to understand the messages beyond is said. While, Cutting (2003:1) says *"Pragmatics and discourse analysis are approaches to studying language's relation to the contextual background features".*

Besides, pragmatics has some subfields or scopes. Horn and Ward (2006: xii) say *"...the basic subfields within pragmatics theory: implicature, presupposition, speech acts, references, deixis, and (in) definiteness".* It also supported by Djajasudarma (2012: 48), *"Pragmatik mencakup deiktik (misalnya, sebutan kehormatan atau honorifiks), praduga (presupposition) dan tindak tutur (speech acts)* it means that Pragmatics includes deictic (e.g.,

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honorific), presupposition and speech acts. Yet, in this study writer will focus on one of pragmatics' field that is speech Acts.

Speech Acts

There are numerous definitions of speech act and one of interest in speech act that has been proposed by Austin (1962) as cited in Cutting (2003:16) "*speech acts as the action performed in saying something*". Moreover, Yule (1996:47) notes that the actions that performed via utterances are generally called speech act and according to Paltridge (2000:16) "*Speech act is an utterance which has both a literal meaning and a particular illocutionary force*". Yule (1996) and Cutting (2003) further argue that speech act can be analyzed in three levels.

(i) *locutionary act*: the utterance of a sentence with determinate sense and reference .
(ii) *illocutionary* act: the making of a statement, offer, promise, etc. In uttering a sentence, by virtue of the conventional force associated with it (or with its explicit performative paraphrase)
(iii) *perlocutionary act:* the bringing about the effects on the audience by means of uttering the sentence, such effects being special to the circumstances of utterance.

However, Searle (1976) assigns kinds of sentences such are stating, questioning, commanding, promising etc. are called as illocutionary acts

Speech act Classification

The speech function or illocutionary acts are such as stating something, requesting, commanding and so on. From what Yule (1996) and Cutting (2003) in Searle (1976) proposed that speech acts are classified into five general speech act functions or macro class Namely; 1) declarations, (2) representatives, (3) commissives, (4) directives and (5) expressive.

A. Declarations

They are types of speech acts that change the world via their utterance. In addition, the sentences or expression which is uttered by speaker who has a special position in an institutional in particular contexts and it could change the world as the effect. For Examples:
1) *Priset   : I now pronounce you husband and wife*
2) *Referee   : You're out!*
3) *Jury foreman: We find the defendant guilty*

The examples above, in data (1) by the special institutional role, a priest could change the marital status of couples from single to married. In data (2) in the field of the game a referee made a player out of the game for the punishment, and data (3) with the special role which possess by jury foreman, a man gets into prison with their decision.

B. Representatives

They are the types of speech acts which reflected the speaker's view of something. Stating of something, asserting, concluding, hypothesizing, insisting and description are included into this type. Examples:
4) *The earth is flat*
   5) *Chomsky didn't write about peanuts.*
   6) *It was a warm sunny day*
   7) *The fact that girls have been outstripping boys academically has been acknowledged for the past 12 years or so.*

The examples above show that the speaker's representation about the earth as he or she believes and speaker's description about the weather's day. Cutting illustrates a type of stating speech act in "*The fact that girls have been outstripping boys academically has been acknowledged for the past 12 years or so*". Referring to the example It is stating about a fact.

C. Expressives

They are the types of speech act which are stating what the speaker feels through their utterances. It represents the speaker's feeling which related to the psychological of the speaker. Expressing of feeling like or dislike, hurting, exciting, apologizing, praising, congratulating, regretting, joy, sorrow are included into this class. See the illustrations:
8) I am really sorry!
9) Congratulation!
10) Oh, Yes, great, mmmmmm…ssssaaaahhh!
11) I've been poor and I've been rich – rich is better

Furthermore, in using an expressive, the speaker makes words fit the world (or feeling). They express how the speaker feels about the situation. Also expressive is vary with regard to propositional content.

D. Directives
They are the types of speech act which the intention of speaker is to order or ask other person (the listener) to do something. Commanding someone to do something, requesting, suggesting, inviting, forbidding are included into this type of speech act, examples:
12) Give me a cup of coffee, Make it black.
13) Could you lend me a pen, please?
14) Don't touch that.

In using a directive, the speaker attempt to makes world fit/match the words (via the hearer). They try to make the addressee perform an action.

E. Commissives
They are the types of speech acts which are used by the speakers to make a commitment to themselves to do something in future. They express the speaker's intention. The kind of expressing such as promising, threating, refusing, pledging, and vowing are included to this type of speech act. For Examples:
15) I'll be back
16) I am going to get it right next time
17) We will not do that.
18) I'll make him an offer he can't refuse

In our daily conversation consciously or unconsciously our utterances have own purpose as illustrated by Yule and Cutting in the examples above.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS
The study is meant to answer the following three questions:

1. What speech functions are used by broadcasting companies in their slogan either subscribe or unsubscribe TV channels?
2. Which classification of speech acts are they included in?
3. What types of speech act are used more in those channels?

DATA AND METHODS
In this research, the present writer purely uses descriptive qualitative method since she describes the speech functions of slogan of subscribe and unsubscribe TV channels. Further, the present writer describes the speech functions in 19 channels with 39 slogans from Cable TV and 19 channels with 39 slogans from terrestrial TV. Generally, as Creswell (1994:2) notes *"qualitative is a process of understanding social or human problem in complex building, holistic picture, formed in verbal languages"*. In addition, Ritchie and Lewis (2003:3) say that qualitative research gives directives in providing depth understanding of the social world of research participants through learning social value, their experience perspective.

Furthermore, to analyze the data, there are some steps taken, namely: 1) searching the slogan of subscribe and unsubscribe TV channels from internet and other mass media 2) classifying the data 3) analyzing the slogan of subscribe and unsubscribe TV channels based on the theory and 4) drawing some conclusion based on the analyses.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The data are collected from some internet sites. In order to make balance in comparison, the present writer takes same numbers of slogans and channels which are available in Indonesia. These are 39 slogans of 19 channels in cable TV and 39 slogans of 19 channels in terrestrial TV. After collecting the data, the writer analyzes and classifies them based on macro class of speech act function. The Analysis presents orderly according to the macro class of speech acts.

Speech Functions in Cable TV or Subscribe Base Channels Slogan
As it explained earlier, the writer presents 19 channels which consist of 39 slogans. The results show that three kinds of speech functions (*macro class of speech acts*) are found namely directive, expressive and representative. However, both commisive and declarative speech acts are not found. Further, it can be drawn in the table as follow:

Table 1: Speech Functions in Cable TV or Subscribe Base

No	Television channel	Slogan	Ilocutionary acts	Macro class of Speech acts
1	Discovery channel	Explore your World	imperative	Directive
2	Discovery channel	Let's all discover	imperative	Directive
3	Fox Movies Premium	Make Room For Fox Movies	imperative	Directive
4	Fox Movies Premium	Catch The Awesomeness	imperative	Directive
5	Hallmark Channel	Make Yourself at home	imperative	Directive
6	HBO	HBO people Don't miss out	imperative	Directive
7	HBO	Watch Us Here on HBO	imperative	Directive
8	HBO	Let's all get together	imperative	Directive
9	Nat Geo Channel	Think Again	imperative	Directive
10	Syfy	Imagine Greater	imperative	Directive
11	Travel Channel	Catch It	imperative	Directive
12	ANIMAL PLANET	Surprisingly human	expression	Expressive
13	Fashion TV	I love Fashion Tv	expression	Expressive
14	ANIMAL PLANET	Same Planet, Different world	statement	Representative
15	Cartoon Network	It's a fun thing	statement	Representative
16	Channel news Asia	Providing Asian Perspectives	statement	Representative
17	Cinemax	Max in Movies	statement	Representative
18	CNN	The Most Trusted Name in News	statement	Representative
19	Discovery channel	There's no thrill like discovery	statement	Representative
20	Discovery channel	The world is just awesome	description	Representative
21	DIVA Universal	Diva Like You	description	Representative
22	E! Entertainment TV	Pop of Culture	statement	Representative
23	ESPN	The Worldwide Leader in Sport	statement	Representative
24	Fox News Channel	Fair & Balanced	statement	Representative
25	HBO	Just You Wait	statement	Representative
26	HBO	Different and First	statement	Representative
27	HBO	The Great Entertainment Alternative	statement	Representative
28	HBO	The Home Box	statement	Representative
29	HBO	There's no place like HBO	statement	Representative

30	HBO	Nobody Brings It Home like HBO	statement	Representative
31	HBO	The Best on TV	statement	Representative
32	HBO	We're HBO	statement	Representative
33	HBO	It's Not TV. It's HBO	statement	Representative
34	HBO	It's more than you imagined. It's HBO	statement	Representative
35	HBO	It's HBO	statement	Representative
36	Nat Geo Channel	Dare to Explore	statement	Representative
37	Nat Geo Channel	This is who we are	statement	Representative
38	Travel Channel	Travel moves you	statement	Refresentative
39	Warner Channel	The World's Best Television	statement	Representative

Table 1 above apparently shows that eleven directive speech acts (28. 2%) are identified. Further, based on the data analysis, it is found two expressive speech acts (5. 1%) and twenty six representative speech acts (66. 6%).

Directive Speech Function in Cable TV Channels Slogan

As the present writer explained previously, this kind of speech act is used by speaker to get someone else to do something that states what speaker desires. In details, it includes order, command, request, suggestion, and invitation and so on. Related to the data of directive speech functions, the result is as following.

Table 2: Directive Speech Function on Cable TV Channels Slogan

(1) Discovery channel	plore your World
(2) Discovery channel	t's all discover
(3) Fox Movies Premium	ake Room For Fox Movies
(4) Fox Movies Premium	Catch The Awesomeness
(5) Hallmark Channel	Make Yourself at home
(6) HBO	HBO people Don't miss out
(7) HBO	Watch Us Here on HBO
(8) HBO	Let's all get together
(9) Nat Geo Channel	Think Again
(10) Syfy	Imagine Greater
(11) Travel Channel	Catch It

The directive speech functions in the cable TV channel slogan in data (1)-(11) express what the speakers want. In another word, the speakers try to make the hearer perform an action. Further, the slogan (1) - (11) state that the viewers should have explored and discovered their world by watching some TV programs in that channel. In addition, they obviously convey the meaning directly that it commands all viewers to watch those TV channel.

Expressive Speech Functions in Cable TV Channels Slogan

It expresses a psychological state that can reflect statements of happiness, sadness, hatred, misery and gratitude. After the data are analyzed, this study only finds two kinds of expressive speech functions in this Cable TV channel. In the following slogans, the speech acts can be affected by the speaker's experience. It can be explained in the following examples of data:

Table 3: Expressive Speech Functions in Cable TV Channels Slogan

2) Animal Planet	rprisingly human
3) Fashion TV	I love Fashion TV

The slogan in data (12) and (13) show that they are categorized into expressive speech act since those slogans state what they feel through their utterances such as *surprisingly human* and *I Love Fashion TV*. Further, in data (12) means that the slogan is not only about animals, it also about people and real compelling human stories made more intense, more fun, more frightening, more alive and more entertaining because of the world they share with animals. While in data (13) states directly what the speaker expresses. It means that they love their TV channel.

Representative Speech Function in Cable TV Channels Slogan

In theoretical framework, the present writer has explained that this kind of speech acts state what speaker believe to be the case or not. In addition, the speaker purpose in performing representatives is to commit him/her to the belief that the propositional

content of the utterance is true. Statement of fact, assertion, conclusions, and descriptions as the example of the speaker representing the world as he or she believes it is. In this study, from 19 Cable TV channels which consist of 39 slogans, there are 26 representative speech acts. All of them can be seen in the following data.

4) Animal Planet	me Planet, Different world
5) Cartoon Network	s a fun thing
6) Channel News Asia	oviding Asian Perspectives
7) Cinemax	ax in Movies
8) CNN	e Most Trusted Name in News
9) Discovery Channel	ere's no thrill like discovery
0) Discovery Channel	e world is just awesome
1) Diva Universal	va Like You
2) E! Entertainment TV	p of Culture
3) ESPN	e Worldwide Leader in Sport
4) Fox News Channel	ir & Balanced
5) HBO	st You Wait
6) HBO	fferent and First
7) HBO	e Great Entertainment Alternative
8) HBO	e Home Box
9) HBO	ere's no place like HBO
0) HBO	obody Brings It Home like HBO
1) HBO	e Best on TV
2) HBO	e're HBO
3) HBO	s Not TV. It's HBO
4) HBO	It's more than you imagined. It's HBO
5) HBO	s HBO
6) Nat Geo Channel	are to Explore
7) Nat Geo Channel	is is who we are
8) Travel Channel	avel moves you
9) Warner Channel	e World's Best Television

Based on the data above, most of the slogans indicate that the speaker describes and makes assertion on them. It can be seen in example data (15) *It's a fun thing* and (16) *providing Asian Perspectives*. In the slogan (15), the speaker describes that the channel which is fun. In addition, it does and makes assertion that information is true. Also in slogan (16), the speaker describes the channel that provides overview about Asia.

The following diagram shows the use of speech functions in Cable TV channel slogan and their occurrence of percentage.
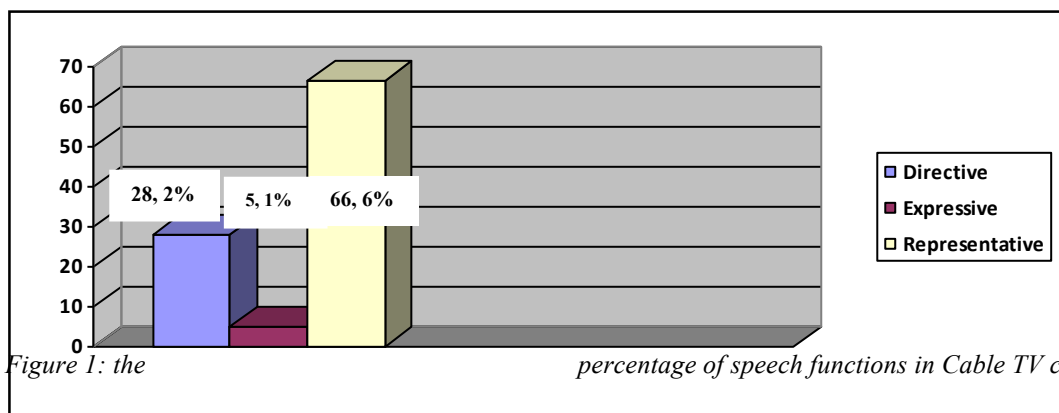

Figure 1: the percentage of speech functions in Cable TV channel slogan

As seen on the diagram above, representative is the highest occurrence of all; it is 66. 6 %. Then Directive is in the second rank and the occurrence is 28. 2 %. The third rank is the use of expressive and the occurrence is only 5. 1 %.

Speech Functions in Terrestrial TV or Unsubscribe (Free) Base Channels Slogan
In this section, the present writer collected the data from some internet sites and some other mass media such as magazines, newspapers, etc. 19 TV channels which consists 39 slogans are collected. After the data are classified the present writer finds kinds of speech functions such as directives, expressive and representatives. It shows that the result is as same as speech function on cable TV. From this point of view, it can be concluded that both commisive and declarative are not found. In details, it is described in the following table.

Table 4: Speech Functions in Terrestrial TV or Unsubscribe (Free) Base

No	Television channel	Slogan	Ilocutionary acts	Macro class of Specsh acts
1	ANTeVe	Come Home to the Stars	Imperative	Directive
2	SCTV	Ayo SCTV	Imperative	Directive
3	ANTeVe	Wow Keren	expressive	Expressive
4	GLOBAL TV	100% Seru!	expressive	Expressive
5	MNCTV	Selalu dihati	statement	Expressive
6	SCTV	SCTV Nge Top	expressive	Expressive
7	TPI	Makin Asyik aja	expressive	Expressive
8	TPI	Makin Indonesia Makin asyik Aja	expressive	Expressive
9	TVRI	Semangat baru	expressive	Expressive
10	TVRI	Makin dekat dengan hati	expressive	Expressive
11	ANTeVe	Televisi Rumah buat keluarga	statement	Representative
12	B Channel	Inspirasi Anda	statement	Representative
13	DAAI TV	Televisi Cinta kasih	statement	Representative
14	INDOSIAR	Indosiar memang untuk anda	statement	Representative
15	JAK TV	My City My TV	statement	Representative
16	Kompas TV	Inspirasi Indonesia	statement	Representative
17	METROTV	The first Indonesian News Television Channel	statement	Representative
18	METROTV	Knowledge to Elevate	statement	Representative
19	O CHANNEL	Jakarta Own Channel	statement	Representative
20	O CHANNEL	Your Inspiring Entertainment and Life Style	statement	Representative
21	RCTI	Saluran Informasi anda	statement	Representative
22	RCTI	Menghadirkan Pentas Dunia di rumah anda	statement	Representative
23	RCTI	RCTI OK	statement	Representative
24	RCTI	Kebanggaan bersama milik bangsa	statement	Representative
25	SCTV	Selalu siap menemani Anda	statement	Representative
26	SCTV	SCTV Satu untuk semua	statement	Representative
27	SINDO Tv	Referensi Indonesia	statement	Representative
28	SPACETOON TV ANAK	Saluran Masa Depan	statement	Representative
29	Trans 7	Cerdas, Tajam, Menghibur, dan Membumi	statement	Representative
30	Trans 7	Aktif, Cerdas, Menghibur	statement	Representative
31	TRANS TV	Hadir Menghibur Anda	statement	Representative
32	TRANS TV	Milik kita bersama	statement	Representative

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33	TVONE	TVPEMILU, kami kabarkan, Anda Putuskan	statement	Representative
34	TVONE	TVONE News and Sports, Terdepan mengabarkan	statement	Representative
35	TVONE	TVONE News and Sports, Memang Beda	statement	Representative
36	TVRI	Menjalin Persatuan dan Kesatuan	statement	Representative
37	TVRI	Saluran Pembersatu Bangsa	statement	Representative
38	TVRI	Lembaga Penyiaran Publik	statement	Representative
39	TVRI	Televisi Republik Indonesia	statement	Representative

Apparently, as the table 4 shows that the obtained directive speech function is two (5.1%). Then, then the result of expressive speech function is eight (20. 5%) while representative speech function reaches to twenty nine (74. 3%).

Directive Speech Functions in Terrestrial TV Channels Slogan
The finding discovered that there are two kinds of directive speech functions that identified in this TV Channel Slogan. It can be seen clearly in the following example of data.

Table 5: Directive Speech Functions in Terrestrial TV Channels Slogan

(1) ANTeVe	Come Home to the Stars
(2) SCTV	Ayo SCTV

As seen on the first data (1), *come home to the stars* reveals that the speaker commands the viewers to do something directly. Thus, it can be categorized into directive speech function since this kind of speech act is used by speaker to get someone else to do something that states what speaker desires. In addition, it also includes order, command, request, suggestion, and invitation and so on. In data (2) also includes in directive speech function since this slogan also gets someone to do something *Ayo SCTV*.

Expressive Speech Functions in Terrestrial TV Channels Slogan
These kinds of speech acts states and can be statement of pleasure, pain, likes, joy or sorrow. In addition they are about the speaker's experience. In using an expressive, the speaker makes words fit the world (or feeling). They express how the speaker feels about the situation. As table 6 shows, the number of expressive speech function reaches eight (20, 5%). The following example can corroborate the facts.

Table 6: Expressive Speech Functions in Terrestrial TV Channels Slogan

(3) ANTeVe	Wow Keren
(4) GLOBAL TV	100% Seru!
(5) MNCTV	Selalu dihati
(6) SCTV	SCTV Nge Top
(7) TPI	Makin Asyik aja
(8) TPI	Makin Indonesia Makin asyik Aja
(9) TVRI	Semangat baru
(10) TVRI	Makin dekat dengan hati

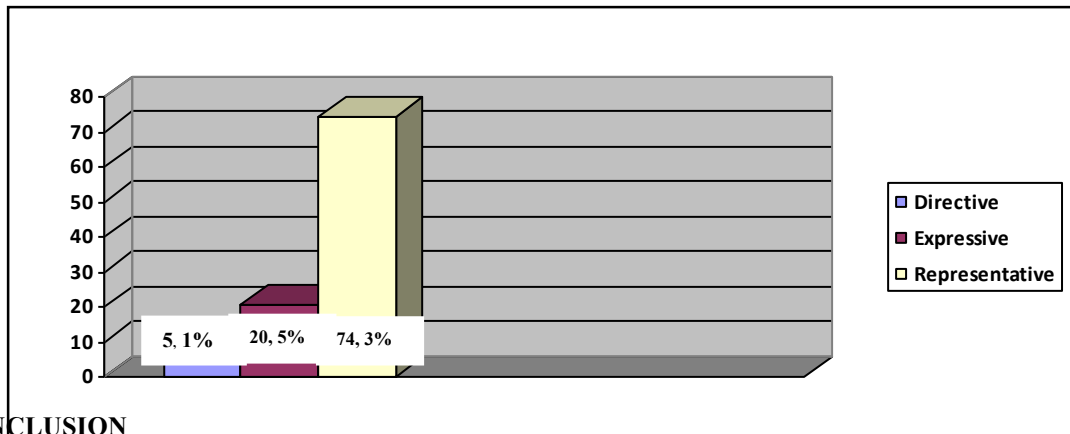**Representative Speech Functions in Terrestrial TV Channels Slogan**
In this case, the present writer identifies 29 representative speech functions. In addition, it is the types of speech act which reflected the speaker's view of something. Stating of something, asserting, concluding, hypothesizing, insisting and description are included into this type.

Table 7: Representative Speech Functions in Terrestrial TV Channels Slogan

(11) ANTeVe	Televisi Rumah buat keluarga
(12) B Channel	Inspirasi Anda
(13) DAAI TV	Televisi Cinta kasih
(14) INDOSIAR	Indosiar memang untuk anda

(15)	JAK TV	My City My TV
(16)	Kompas TV	Inspirasi Indonesia
(17)	METRO TV	The first Indonesian News Television Channel
(18)	METRO TV	Knowledge to Elevate
(19)	O CHANNEL	Jakarta Own Channel
(20)	O CHANNEL	Your Inspiring Entertainment and Life Style
(21)	RCTI	Saluran Informasi anda
(22)	RCTI	Menghadirkan Pentas Dunia di rumah anda
(23)	RCTI	RCTI OK
(24)	RCTI	Kebanggaan bersama milik bangsa
(25)	SCTV	Selalu siap menemani Anda
(26)	SCTV	SCTV Satu untuk semua
(27)	SINDO TV	Referensi Indonesia
(28)	SPACETOON TV ANAK	Saluran Masa Depan
(29)	Trans 7	Cerdas, Tajam, Menghibur, dan Membumi
(30)	Trans 7	Aktif, Cerdas, Menghibur
(31)	TRANS TV	Hadir Menghibur Anda
(32)	TRANS TV	Milik kita bersama
(33)	TV ONE	TVPEMILU, kami kabarkan, Anda Putuskan
(34)	TV ONE	TVONE News and Sports, Terdepan mengabarkan
(35)	TV ONE	TVONE News and Sports, Memang Beda
(36)	TVRI	Menjalin Persatuan dan Kesatuan
(37)	TVRI	Saluran Pembersatu Bangsa
(38)	TVRI	Lembaga Penyiaran Publik
(39)	TVRI	Televisi Republik Indonesia

From the table 2, it can be summarized that representative speech act in Terrestrial TV Channels Slogan is as many as in Cable TV Channel slogan. In addition, it reaches to 74.3 % while expressive speech act is in the second rank it reaches 20.5% and the last position is directive speech act. It reaches only 5. 1 %. It can be seen clearly in the following diagram.

CONCLUSION

As stated in introduction, this study attempts to apply pragmatic approach to compare the speech functions in slogans of subscribe and unsubscribe TV channels. The findings show that representative speech act is more used by both of them, in the rank 26 and 29 of 39 slogans on both TV network systems. Directive speech acts is more used by Cable TV with 11 of 39 slogans than Terrestrial TV with 2 of 39 slogans. Expressive speech acts is on the contrary. It is more used by Terrestrial TV with 8 of 39 slogans than Cable TV which has 2 of 39 slogans. While commisive and declarative speech acts are not found in this study. In details, it can be summarized in the following table. The detail of numbers is shown in the following table.

Table 8: speech acts classification are used in TV network system

o	peech acts classificatio	V Cable (Subscri	rcentage	errestrial TV (Unsubscr base)	centage
	eclaration		%		%
	epresentative		.6 %		.3 %
	xpressive		1 %		.5 %
	rective		.2 %		1 %

344

	ommissive		%		%
	otal		0%		0%

In addition, for broadcasting companies, having knowledge of how the slogans are made based on their speech functions may influence the customers or viewers to use the channel offered. While for customers or viewers, it is also very importance since having knowledge of how slogans are interpreted may not underestimate the value of a good slogan as a key ingredient to establishing and maintaining a showing brand identity.

Moreover, this study will be necessary in future research to also look at speech function in another slogan.

Limitations of the study

This study is about to compare the macro of speech functions in slogans of subscribe and unsubscribe TV channels containing illocutionary acts produced by the broadcasting companies. Yule (1996) and cutting (2003) speech act concept is applied on this study. Three speech acts are postulated, i.e. *locutionary act*, *illocutionary act* and *perlocutionary act.* In addition, they define that illocutionary act is the utterance of a sentence with determinate sense and reference. Illocutionary act is the making of a statement, offer, promise, etc. In uttering a sentence, by virtue of the conventional force associated with it (or with its explicit performative paraphrase) and perlocutionary act is the bringing about the effects on the audience by means of uttering the sentence, such effects being special to the circumstances of utterance.

Therefore, this study focuses on the illocutionary acts deal with macro of speech functions such as declarations, representatives, commissives, directives and expressive. So, it can be seen that both locutionary and perlocutionary acts will not be applied on this study.

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LEXICAL COHESION IN PERSIAN AND ENGLISH PSYCHOLOGICAL ARTICLES ABSTRACTS

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ABSTRACT
Lexical cohesion is a property of text, achieved through lexical semantic relations between words in text. Most information retrieval systems make use of lexical relations in text only to a limited extent. The purpose of this study was to compare the frequency and the degree of the use of different types of lexical cohesion in English and Persian article abstracts journals of psychology. The framework utilized for the analysis of lexical cohesion is the one employed by Halliday and Hasan (1976) in cohesion in English and Halliday (1985). Forty psychological abstract texts (20 from each language) were selected. To have an equal amount of data in English and Persian, the first 100 words from each text were analyzed. The texts were also in the same field; i.e. clinical psychology. The statistical tool of the Chi-Square Test was used to determine whether there was a significant difference among the lexical cohesion devices in both groups of English and Persian texts. The observed chi-square value proved to be significant only in the case of synonym. Based on these findings, it was concluded that repetition and synonym were more frequent than other devices in both English and Persian texts; of course they were denser in English than that of Persian. The frequency of other lexical cohesion devices was almost the same in both corpora.

KEYWORDS: *Lexical cohesion devices, Frequency, English and Persian texts, Chi-square test.*

INTRODUCTION
Sentences cannot be interpreted in isolation. An utterance in a conversation makes sense only if it can be connected to the preceding utterances in a meaningful way. This relationship is commonly described as coherence, but it is not easily defined. Researchers in discourse analysis appear to agree that coherence emerges in the perception and evaluation of a text by the listener or reader (see Van Dijk, 1977; Gernsbacher & Givon, 1995; Hoey, 2005). As Fairclough (1995, p. 122) puts it, "relations of coherence between clauses and sentences of a text are not objective properties of the text, they are relations that have to be established by people interpreting it."
The linguistic means that speakers (or writers) use to bring about coherence relations have been described as cohesion (Fairclough, 1995; Halliday & Hasan, 1976; Hoey, 2005). These means are diverse, but they have in common that they establish a link between an element in a sentence with another element in a preceding sentence. Cohesion is thus a relationship between words, whereas coherence is a relationship between concepts and meanings (De Beaugrande, 2004).

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976, p. 104), cohesion can be divided into two types: grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion. The previous refers to a combination of terms between sentences that form grammatical aspect. The latter refers to a combination of terms between sentences that form lexical component. Grammatical cohesion can be divided into 4 kinds. Reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction. Reference denotes cohesion relations between pronouns or determiners and preceding coreferential elements. Substitution and ellipsis typically occur in responses with an element (such as one or do)--or its very absence--forming a cohesive relation to an element (often an entire clause) in the preceding question (e.g., who knows the shortest way from Philadelphia to Cape May?--I do.). Conjunction involves the use of elements that express a semantic relationship between sentences as a whole (e.g., however, on the other hand, then). According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), lexical cohesion is divided into five components. Firstly, hyponymy is a lexical cohesion that relationship between constituent that has general meaning called subordinate and constituent that specific meaning called hyponymy. Secondly, synonym is the words that have similarity in meaning. Thirdly, antonym is lexical cohesion that relationship between constituents that have different meaning. Fourthly, repetition is lexical cohesion that repeats the constituent. Fifthly, collocation is the regular pattern

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of relationships between words. In this study, the focus was on the lexical contrastive cohesion analysis. By lexical cohesion, it means, the relation that exists between or among specific elements of different sentences in a text and is achieved through the vocabulary. The goal in this paper was to compare the English and Persian psychological article abstract texts regarding the frequency of the lexical cohesion types, mentioned above.

LITERATURE REVIEW

A text has some features which make the texture of a text. According to Lotfipour-Saedi (1991), the texture of a text can be characterized by textual features of 1) thematization strategies, 2) schematic structure, 3) paralanguage and 4) cohesion. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), cohesion refers to relations of meaning that exist within the text and that define it as a text. Cohesive relations are the ways two or more items are semantically joined to each other in a text. Each pair of cohesively related items is referred to as a "tie".

According to Traugott and Pratt (1980, p. 21), the earliest study of cohesion in English was conducted by Jakobson (1960), who analyzed syntactic structure and parallelism in literary texts with reference to poetry. In 1964, it was Halliday who first divided cohesion into grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion. Later, Hasan (1968) made a detailed exploration into grammatical cohesion. Before the publication of Halliday and Hasan (1976), a number of other relevant cohesion studies became available. One of these studies by Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, and Svartvik (1972) gave a description of cohesion and studied features that ground a sentence in its context. Their concept was later expanded in their *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language* (1985). Gutwinski (2007) attempted to root cohesion in a stratificational framework; its focus on the potential stylistic applications of cohesive studies has since provided a starting point for some research studies in stylistics. But for the moment, the best-known and most detailed model of cohesion available is that outlined by Halliday and Hasan (1976). It was this book that made cohesion an important concept in many fields and has evoked wide discussion and application ever since. In 1976, Halliday and Hasan published *Cohesion in English*, which marked the establishment of cohesion theory. In Halliday and Hasan's opinion, the concept of cohesion is described as "a semantic one; it refers to relations of meaning that exist within the text and that define it as text" (p. 4). For the occurrence of cohesion, they explain that: Cohesion occurs where the interpretation of some elements in the discourse is dependent on that of another. The one presupposes the other, in the sense that it cannot be effectively decoded except by recourse to it. When this happens, a relation of cohesion is set up, and the two elements, the presupposing and the presupposed, are thereby at least potentially integrated into a text (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 4). After the publication of *Cohesion in English* (1976), Halliday and Hasan continued to study cohesion and further developed their theory of cohesion in their subsequent works. For instance, in Halliday's book (1994), Halliday gave up the original classification of conjunction and adopted logic-semantic relations to divide conjunctive elements into elaboration, extension and enhancement. Besides, he regarded substitution and ellipsis as "variants of the same type of cohesive relation" (p. 317) and put them into one category. Hasan (1984, 1985) enlarged the concept of cohesion and divided cohesion into structural and non-structural cohesion. The former includes parallelism, theme-rheme development and given-new organization. The latter includes componential relations and organic relations. In componential relations, there are grammatical devices (such as reference, substitution and ellipsis) and lexical cohesive devices (such as general and instantial relations). In organic relations, there are grammatical devices (such as conjunctives and adjacency pairs) and lexical cohesive devices (such as continuatives).

There are two branches developed from Hasan's model of cohesion (1985). One is Martin (1992) with his system of cohesion and the other is Hoey (1991) with his theory of lexical cohesion. Martin's *English Text: System and Structure* (1992) introduces text-forming resources in English, along with practical procedures for analyzing English texts and relating them to their contexts of use. He reconstructs Halliday and Hasan's cohesion from the perspective of discourse semantics and forms an integrated system of cohesion. Hoey's theory of lexical cohesion was put forward in *Patterns of Lexis in Text* (2005). In this book, Hoey insists on the importance of lexical patterning and believes that much of coherence as well as cohesion of text is created by the lexical ties of individual words with each other. Just as Hoey said, "the study of the greater part of cohesion is the study of lexis, and the study of cohesion in text is, to a considerable degree, the study of patterns of lexis in text" (2005, p. 10). In addition to Halliday, Hasan, Martin and Hoey, many Chinese scholars also study cohesion and apply cohesion theory to many different fields. In China, many scholars develop cohesion theory from different perspectives. Wang Li made great contributions to the development of cohesion in Chinese. As early as 1943, Wang mentioned the phenomenon of

347

cohesion in his book *Zhongguo xiandai yufa* (*Modern Grammar of Chinese*) and provided a detailed analysis of reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, and reiteration, classes of cohesive devices later mentioned by Halliday and Hasan (1976). However, Wang's work was written in Chinese and was only known in China. It was not until 1976 when *Cohesion in English* was published and introduced to China that Chinese linguists began to realize the importance of cohesion. For example, Hu (1993) claimed that Halliday inherited and developed his teacher Wang Li's academic achievements because Halliday studied modern Chinese under the guidance of Wang, and Halliday' theories, such as cohesion and transitivity had been written about by Wang long before. Apart from Wang, Lu Shuxiang (1979) is another scholar who has noticed the phenomenon of cohesion and coherence at the textual level. Three important scholars have made great contributions to cohesion studies in China and paved the way for other scholars to further cohesion studies. They are Hu Zhuanglin, Zhu Yongsheng and Zhang Delu. In 1989, the three scholars introduced Halliday and Hasan's cohesion theory and its classification in their book *Xitong gongneng yufa gailun* (*A Survey of Systemic-Functional Grammar*). What is more important, they used examples from the Chinese language to show the applicability of cohesion theory. Since then, they have continued to study cohesion and have developed cohesion theory from different perspectives. In his book, *Yingyu de xianjie yu lianguan* (*Discourse Cohesion and Coherence*) (1994), Hu Zhuanglin follows Halliday and Hasan's model but distinguishes four types of cohesion in Chinese, namely, the referential, structural, logical and lexical cohesion. He tries to categorize cohesive ties according to structural features of Chinese. Drawing on some of the progresses in the traditional model, Hu believes that cohesive relations can also be found in other functional categories, such as transitivity at the semantic level, the thematic structure at the syntactic level, and intonation and sound patterns at the phonological level. What's more, he describes the development of the theory from cohesion to coherence, in which context, pragmatics, and the relationship between discourse structure and discourse elements are also discussed. Based on these developments, Hu comes to the conclusion that textual cohesion and coherence should be analyzed at various levels and develops a multi-level model of discourse cohesion and coherence.

Like Hu, Zhang Delu (2003) also focuses on the relationship between cohesion and coherence and extends the scope of cohesion to include cross-type cohesion, explicit cohesion, implicit cohesion, etc. Different from Hu, who mainly focuses on the cohesive effects created by ideational and textual relations, Zhang argues that interpersonal relations can also play an important role in creating cohesion and mood; modality, and other devices which realize interpersonal meaning can also contribute to discourse cohesion and coherence. Another book in the field of cohesion studies in Chinese is *Yinghan yupian xianjie shouduan duibi yanjiu* (*Contrastive Study of Cohesion in English and Chinese*) (2001) by Zhu Yongsheng, Yan Shiqing and Miao Xingwei. Based on Halliday and Hasan's classification of cohesive devices, the authors investigate the features of cohesion in Chinese (reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, reiteration, and so on). In addition, they attempt to explain causes of differences behind the general preferences in Chinese and English for certain cohesive devices. After the publication of *Cohesion in English*, the concept of cohesion has been applied to different fields such as stylistics, discourse analysis, language teaching and learning, translation studies, psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics. Take language teaching, psycholinguistics and translation studies for example, in the field of language teaching, many scholars have investigated cohesion in language teaching (e.g. McCarthy, 1991; McCarthy & Carter, 1994; Liu, 1999; Zhang & Liu, 2003; Hyland, 2005; Rost, 2005; Zhang, Miao & Li, 2005). In the field of psycholinguistics, many scholars study the use of cohesion in discourse production and comprehension (e.g. Garrod & Sanford, 1994; Sanford & Garrod, 1994; McCabe, 1998; Carroll, 2000; Gui, 2000). In the past three decades, the field of translation studies has provided a good opportunity for cohesion theory and has become a fertile area for cohesion theory. In the field of translation studies, scholars conduct a great number of studies on the integration of cohesion with translation studies. It is clear that cohesion theory has wide application in many different areas. Yarmohammadi (1995) also has the same study in which the aim was to determine the frequency and degree of utilization of different types of lexical cohesion in English and Persian journalistic political texts.

RESEARCH QUESTION

Based on what mentioned above and due to the significance of text analysis, most notably in the realm of academia, the current study is an attempt to answer the following question:

In what frequency do different lexical cohesion types occur in Persian and English psychological research articles abstracts?

METHODOLOGY

The data of this research came from English and Persian Psychological abstracts respectively. Forty psychological abstract texts (20 from each language) were selected. To have an almost equal amount of data in English and Persian,

the first 100 words from each text were analyzed. The texts were also in the same field; i.e. clinical psychology. The total number of words analyzed amounted to 1414 in number, 660 in Persian and 754 in English. The framework utilized for the analysis of lexical cohesion was the one employed by Halliday and Hasan in cohesion in English (1976) and Halliday (1985). In their taxonomy, reiteration and collocation are considered as two major types of lexical cohesion. Reiteration involves same items, Synonymy, Super ordinate, and General items. In this study for the analysis of lexical cohesion in English and Persian, Repetition, Synonym or Near-Synonym, Antonym, Hyponym, and Collocation were taken into account.

An example from each type of lexical cohesion in both English and Persian is provided in Appendix A.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS
It is clear from Table 1 that in English texts repetition was the most frequently used sub-type of lexical cohesion. The next frequent lexical cohesion devices are synonym, hyponym, collocation, and antonym respectively. In the Persian texts also the most frequent percentage of occurrence belonged to repetition. And the order of other lexical cohesion devices with regard to highest - lowest frequency was synonym, collocation, hyponym, and antonym respectively.
All in all, both English and Persian texts bring out a general tendency towards the use of repetition more than other lexical cohesion devices. But the average number of repetition in English texts was higher than Persian ones (570 vs. 520).

In both texts, antonym indicates a minor role in producing cohesion. Synonym and hyponym are more frequent in English texts than Persian ones (i.e., 74 & 46 vs. 50 & 33 respectively). The frequency of collocation was almost the same in both English and Persian languages (i.e., 35 vs. 34 respectively).

According to the Table 1 and Chi-Square test, between lexical cohesion devices in both English and Persian texts there was a significant difference only in synonym items (p<0.05), but among other devices there was no significant difference (p>0.05).

As the figures in the Table 1 bring out, in the case of synonym the differences are statically significant. The results also show that repetition and synonym are more frequent in English psychological texts than Persian ones. The frequency of other lexical cohesion devices is almost the same in both groups of texts.

Table 1: The frequency of lexical cohesion devices in English and Persian

	repetition	synonym	antonym	hyponym	collocation	sum
Frequency of Persian articles	520	50	23	33	34	660
Percentages of Persian articles	78.8	7.6	3.5	5	5.1	100
Frequency of English articles	570	74	29	46	35	754
Percentages of English articles	75.7	9.8	3.8	6.1	4.6	100

	repetition	synonym	antonym	hyponym	collocation
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z	.632	1.107	.474	.791	.316
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.819	.172	.978	.560	1.000
Chi-Square	.388	3.941	.793	.893	.002
df	1	1	1	1	1
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.533	.047	.373	.345	.967

In the vein of lexical cohesion devices, a similar study has been done by Yarmohammadi (1995). In his study, the aim was to determine the frequency and degree of utilization of different types of lexical cohesion in English and Persian journalistic political texts. Comparing the current study with that of Yarmohammadi, in both scientific texts (i.e., psychological texts) and journalistic texts both languages exhibit a general tendency towards the use of repetition. But in journalistic texts Persian texts were denser in repetition than in English ones. On the other hand, in psychological texts English texts were denser in repetition than Persian ones. In journalistic texts, Persian texts were

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less frequent than English ones in terms of hyponym and the order of frequency in English and Persian journalistic texts was as follow: In English texts the order was R, S, M, C, H, G, A and in Persian texts it was R, M, S, C, G, H, A with decreasing percentages of occurrence respectively. On the contrary, the analysis of data in psychological texts revealed that all lexical cohesion devices in English texts were more frequent than Persian ones. In journalistic texts, in the cases of repetition and hyponym the differences were statically significant, whereas in psychological texts the differences were significant just in the case of synonym.

CONCLUSION

This paper was a contrastive study of lexical cohesion in English and Persian psychological abstract texts. In this study only five lexical cohesion devices were taken into consideration, i.e., repetition (R), synonym (S), antonym (A), hyponym (H), and collocation (C). The data drawn from this study were as follow: In English texts the order of frequency in lexical cohesion devices was R, S, H, C, A, and in Persian texts it was R, S, C, H, A with descending percentages of occurrence respectively. Both texts exhibited a general tendency towards the use of repetition more than other devices; of course English texts were denser in this aspect. Based on Chi-Square test, between lexical cohesion devices in both English and Persian texts there is a significant difference only in synonym items ($p<0.05$), but among other devices there is no significant difference ($p>0.05$). Results show that repetition and synonym are more frequent in English psychological texts than Persian ones. The frequency of other lexical cohesion devices is almost the same in both groups of texts.

Due to data access limitations, we just compared 20 Persian and 20 English articles. Thus, much has been remained to be done on the other sets of data so that we have a comprehensive analysis on the application of various lexical cohesion types in the two languages.

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Appendix A: An example from each type of lexical cohesion in both English and Persian

1.   Repetition (R)

Ex. This review describes the role of chronic *stress* in the development of obesity and available methodologies for the assessment of chronic *stress* in humans.

مثال. هدف این پژوهش بررسی نشانگان *اختلال استرس* پس از سانحه و همبودی افسردگی اضطراب خشم و تجزیه با *اختلال استرس* پس از سانحه بر اساس تفاوت جنسیتی در دو گروه نوجوانان دختر و پسر زلزله زده شهر بم و مقایسه آن با نوجوانان بهنجار شهر تهران بود.

2.   Synonym (S) or Near-Synonym

Ex. The gastro-intestinal tract is well known for its largest *neural network* outside the central *nervous system* and for the most extensive immune system in the body.

مثال. این_____ از نوع مطالعات علی مقایسه ای است. جامعه آماری_____حاضر شامل کلیه بیماران مبتلا به اختلال گوارشی است.

3.   Antonym (A)

Ex. *Normal* gut physiology is molded by interaction between the intestinal microbiota and the host's gastrointestinal tissues. Early studies in axenic mice demonstrated gross morphological *abnormalities*.

مثال. جامعه دوم شامل کلیه افراد_____ شاغل و همراهان سالم _____ گوارشی مراجعه کننده به همان بیمارستان وطی همان زمان میباشد.

4.   Hyponym (H)

Ex. The possible effects of *enteric nerves*, especially of the *nonadrenergic and noncholinergic nerves*, on the intestinal immune system are described.

مثال. در یک_____ مداخله ای نیمه آزمایشی 120 نفراز مادران شاغل بررسی شدند. گردآوری داده ها به کمک _____ انجام شد.

351

5. Collocation (C)

Ex. A logical regression *analysis* was performed to *test* a model for the possible predictors of the two different patterns of outcome.

مثال. 40 بیمار مبتلا به بیماری کرونری‎_____‎ در گروه سنی 65 35 سال که برای نخستین بار تحت جراحی بای پس ‎_____‎ کرونر قرار گرفته بودند انتخاب و به تصادف در دو گروه آزمایش و گواه جای داده شدند.

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