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AIMS AND SCOPE

The international journal of language learning and applied linguistics world performs as a platform for the new scholars to share their insights with other scholars in the form of original papers.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

<i>Categorial Function And Lexico-Grammatical Meaning As New Theories In Indonesian Linguistics</i>	6
<i>Agus Nero Sofyan, M.Hum.</i>	
<i>Comparing The Performance Of Extrovert And Introvert Intermediate Female EFL Learners On Listening And Reading Tasks</i>	15
<i>Behdokht Mall-Amiri & Nazanin Nakhaie</i>	
<i>Improving Students' Achievement On Writing Descriptive Text Through Think Pair Share</i>	32
<i>Tiur Asih Siburian</i>	
<i>Tom Stoppard's 'Spiritual Loners:' A Study Of Four Early Absurd Plays Hana'</i>	45
<i>Khalief Ghani</i>	
<i>Developing Databases-Driven Writing For Writing Academic Papers By Iranian Academic Members</i>	59
<i>Marziyeh Nekoueizadeh & Abbas Motamedi</i>	
<i>Critical Reading Among College Students</i>	73
<i>Mahboobeh Keihaniyan</i>	
<i>The Effect Of Pre-Task Planning Through Split-Info And Brainstorming On Learning And Recall Of Lexical Items By Iranian EEL Learners</i>	80
<i>Hassan Soleimani & Zohreh Taheri Mahmoodabadi</i>	
<i>How To Improve College Students' Autonomous?</i>	94
<i>Mahboobeh Keihaniyan</i>	
<i>Impersonalized subject "we" in university business English letters written by non native English speakers</i>	101
<i>Edi Purnama, Eva Tuckyta Sari Sujatna & Lia Maulia</i>	
<i>The Effects Of Peripheral Teaching On Iranian EEL Learners' Writing Skill In Cyber Environments</i>	114
<i>Seyyed Mohammad Rezayousefi Far & Rahmatollah Soltani</i>	
<i>The Effect Of Explicit Instruction Of Verbal Constructions On Compositions Of Iranian EFL Learners: Using Moodle</i>	123
<i>Hassan Soleimani & Behrouz Shirzadfar</i>	
<i>Representation Of Racism And Ethnicity In American Black Singers' Tweets: A Critical Discourse Analysis</i>	137
<i>Desi Indrawati, et al.</i>	

Smart Assessment In Cyber Environment: A SWOT Analysis(The Practicality Of Smart Assessment) 155
Abouzar Shojaei, et al.

Nativization In The Spoken Mode Of Communication: A Study Of The Innovations In The Pronunciation Of English Words In Ghana 168
Richard T. Torto

RETHORICAL TRANSFERENCE(A TRANSITIVITY ANALYSIS OF LEXICAL METAPHOR) 180
Tatang Suherman, et al.

Contribution Of Cognitive Linguistics To TEFL: Presenting Conceptual Meaning In Phrasal Verbs 194
Elham Sadri & Mohammad Reza Talebinezhad

Implementation Of Team Teaching In An ESP Program And The Investigation Of Its Effectiveness On Students Of Computer Science ESP Vocabulary Achievement 208
Rahmatollah Soltani & Seyyed Nooraldin Shafaei

Literary Communication And Its Role In Poetics 215
Mohammad Taheri & Mohammad Ahi

Issues To Adapting Web-Based Training Deployment In Iran Higher Education: Students' And Professors' Perspective 226
Adel ESMAEELI SALUMAHALEH. Et al,

The Effect Of Using Learning Logs As A Self- Assessment Tool On The Syntactic Development Among Iranian Pre-Intermediate EFL Learners 245
Sara Mahdavian, et al.

Contextualization Versus Inferencing Strategies To Develop Vocabulary Learning Among Intermediate EFL Students 260
Hamid Ashraf, et al.

CATEGORIAL FUNCTION AND LEXICO-GRAMMATICAL MEANING AS NEW THEORIES IN INDONESIAN LINGUISTICS

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ABSTRACT

This research, entitled “Categorical Function and Lexico-grammatical Meaning as New Theories in Indonesian Linguistics,” aims at introducing and applying new concepts/theories to Indonesian Linguistics. Using qualitative method, it collects data from Indonesian online newspaper published in 2013, *Tata Bahasa Baku Bahasa Indonesia*, *Kamus Besar Bahasa Indonesia*, and personal compositions. The research finds that affixes attached to base morphemes are either inflective or derivative—changing word categories). In relation to that, derivative affixes are called categorical function affixes for they can be used to verbalize, nominalize, adjectivalize, numeralize, and adverbialize. Affixes attached to base morphemes of which categories are verbs and non-verbs will result in varying lexico-grammatical meanings due to their verb inherent aspectuality and sub-categorical lexical meaning of each non-verb category.

KEYWORDS: *affixes, function, categorical, lexico-grammatical meaning*

INTRODUCTION

Every language has its own system which consists of several components, namely phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics. Grammar of a language is built on two of the four components, i.e. morphology and syntax. Indonesian morphology covers word formation by means of combining morphemes, affixation and composition, and reduplication. Accordingly, speaking about morphemes also entails examining morphological processes.

In a morphological perspective, word forms can be classified into base words (*makan*), affix-attached words (*mengkaji, membukakan, menjalani*), reduplicated words (*terbayang-bayang*), and composition words (*rumah sakit*). As for categories, they are classified into verb, noun, adjective, adverb, pronoun, number, preposition, and conjunction.

Being part of morphological processes, affixation offers vast attractions since it can be discussed from almost all aspects, to name but a few: affixes, base morphemes, and meanings. Affixation covers prefixes, infix, suffix, confix, and affix combination with base morphemes. In Indonesian language, they are evident in words such as *menuai, kinerja, satukan, pelatihan, menganugerahkan*, and *menganugerahi*. Indonesian prefixes are *me-, ber-, ter-, di-, ke-, se-, pe-,* and *per-*; infixes: *-el-, -em-, -er-*; and *-in-*, *sufiks: -kan, -i, and -an*, *konfiks: ke-an, pe-an, per-an, ber-an, and se-R-nya*; affix combination: *me(N)-kan, me(N)-i, memper-, memper-kan, memper-i, ter-kan, ter-i, di-kan, di-i, ber-kan, ber-an, per-kan, and per-i* (Kridalaksana. 1994:40--74).

As for syntax, the topic covers phrase, clause, and sentence, all of which can be examined with a focus on several aspects such as type, construction, and distribution.

Semantics talks about meaning in language. It can also be said that semantics talks about the structure of language in relation to the meaning of utterance or speech (Kridalaksana, 2008:216). It discusses the meaning of language units.

Palmer (in Djajasudarma, 2008:5) argues that examining meaning means interweaving language units. In other words, speaking about meaning (*makna*) entails understanding one word and its difference with another (Lyons in Djadjasudarma, 2008:5). Another term for meaning in Indonesian, i.e. *arti*, conveys lexical meaning of a word as lexeme. Sugono et.al. (2008:87) believes that *arti* covers the use of function that a unit of language carries. The last term for meaning is *erti* which can be understood as sub-entry. When attached with affixes, *mengerti*, the word can mean to know or understand (Sogono, et.al. 2008:381). Going from understanding the three terms, studying meaning can be said to be more relevant.

Research on morphology and semantics has been rigorously carried out, especially by several Indonesian linguists as follow:

1. Badudu, *Pelik-Pelik Bahasa Indonesia* (1993), on attaching affixes with base morphemes that create function and meaning.
2. Ramlan, *Ilmu Bahasa Indonesia Morfologi Suatu Tinjauan Deskriptif* (1987) on the function and process of affixation and reduplication
3. Kridalaksana, *Pembentukan Kata dalam Bahasa Indonesia* (1992) on types of affixes in relation to their varying function and meanings
4. Alwi, et.al., *Tata Bahasa Baku Bahasa Indonesia* (2003) on types of affix attached to base morphemes
5. Chaer in *Linguistik Umum* (1994), Kridalaksana in *Kamus Linguistik* (2008), and Djajasudarma in *Semantik 2 Pemahaman Ilmu Makna* (2009) on types of meaning—consisting of narrowed meaning and extended meaning, cognitive, emotive-connotative, referential, construction, lexical, grammatical, ideational, proposition, central, intentional, figurative, associative, contextual, idiomatic, and sayings.

The pieces of research in the above, however, have yet to cover:

- (1) concept/theory of affixes attached to base morphemes with categories such as verb and non-verb such as noun, adjective, pronoun, adverb, quantifier, and conjunction;
- (2) concept/theory of lexicogrammatical meaning, popularly known as grammatical meaning;
- (3) causes of divergent lexicogrammatical meanings attached to base morphemes with verb and non-verb categories.

The three aforementioned aspects are partly examined in my dissertation.

METHODOLOGY

The research uses qualitative method which, according to Djadjasudarma, is a procedure that results in descriptive data, both written and oral. Its objective is to create clear description on factual and accurate data or phenomena being scrutinized in the research.

Sudaryanto (1993:133) argues that collecting data can be carried out through *metode simak*, which consists of several basic techniques, namely *sadap*, *libat*, *cakap*, *simak bebas libat cakap*, *rekam* and *catat*. This analysis makes use of the last technique which covers:

- (a) reading and marking sentences that contain affixes attached to base morphemes;
- (b) taking notes and collecting all elements in part a;
- (c) composing corpus

In addition, it also makes use of distributional study, which is a method that relies on elements of the said language. This approach is based on a consideration that every language unit is related—building an integrated entity (Saussure in Djajasudarma, 1993:60).

ANALYSIS AND FINDING

Categorial Function

The concept of categorial function is examined because, in Indonesian language, every affix attached to a base morpheme is either inflective (unable to change word category) or derivative (able to change word category).

When affixes, such as *me(N)-*, *me(N)-kan*, and *me(N)-i* are attached to base morphemes, whose categories are verb or non-verb (noun, adjective, adverb, and number), in a morphological perspective, the affixes form derivative category. For example, affix *me(N)-* when attached to adjective *kecil* becomes *mengecil*; *me(N)-kan* when attached to number *dua* becomes *mendudukan*; *me(N)-i* when attached to noun *batu* becomes *membatui*. Such function, I argue, is called categorial function. The function of the three affixes when attached to base morpheme is to verbalize—making derivative verbs.

Such concept is also applicable to other affixes, resulting in certain morphological functions of verbalizing or non-verbalizing. The following are some examples:

- (1) *Pendaki gunung itu tewas di **ketinggian** 3.700m.* (KBBI/2008/1469)
- (2) *Ia meragukan **kejujuran** anak muda itu.* (KBBI/2008/591)
- (3) *Pikiran yang dikemukakannya **bernilai**.* (TBBBI/2003/94)
- (4) *Gadis itu **bermobil** ke sekolah.* (DB/2013)
- (5) *Dari semua kakaku Kusnolah yang **terpandai**.* (TBBBI/2003/187)
- (6) *Pak Lukman adalah orang **terkaya** di daerah kami.* (DB/2013)
- (7) *Terdakwa telah **mengakui** perbuatannya.* (KBBI/2008/32)
- (8) *Kami **berlima** akan mengikuti perlombaan itu.* (DB/2013)
- (9) ***Keenam** siwa yang hilang itu akhirnya ditemukan.* (DB/2013)
- (10) *Kami bekerja **sekantor** dengan orang Arab itu.* (DB/2013)
- (11) *Kami **mengharuskan** mereka tidur sebelum pukul 21.00.* (KBBI/2008/486)
- (12) *Juara pertama itu **mendapat** medali emas.* (KBBI/2008/293)
- (13) ***Sebaiknya**, Saudara cepat menyelesaikan tugas itu.* (DB/2013)
- (14) ***Setinggi-tingginya** kapal terbang tidak akan sampai ke langit.* (DB/2013)
- (15) *Kelengahannya **menyebabkan** dia terjatuh.* (KBBI/2008/1235)
- (16) *Masalah **penduduk** memerlukan penanganan yang serius.* (TBBBI/2003/217)
- (17) ***Manisan** buah-buah di Cianjur cukup mahal.* (DB/2013)
- (18) ***Kekasih** Riva bernama Zulham.* (DB/2013)

In the above sentences, affixes are attached to free morphemes. In sentences (1) and (2), affix *ke-*, attached to adjectives *tinggi* and *jujur*, carries a categorial function of nominalizing. In sentences (3) and (4), affix *ber-*, attached to nouns *nilai* and *mobil*, carries a categorial function

of verbalizing. As for sentences (5) and (6), affix *ter-*, attached to adjectives *pandai* and *kaya*, carries a categorial function of adjectivalizing. In sentences (7), affix *me(N)-I*, attached to personal pronoun *aku*, carries a categorial function of verbalizing. In sentences (8) and (9), affixes *ber-* and *ke-*, attached to numbers *lima* and *enam*, carry categorial functions of verbalizing and numeralizing, respectively. In sentence (10), affix *se-*, attached to noun *kantor*, carries a categorial function of numeralizing. In sentences (11) and (12), affixes, *me(N)-kan* and *me(N)-*, attached to adverbs *harus* and *dapat*, carry a categorial function of verbalizing. In sentences (13) and (14), affix *se-nya*, attached to adjectives *baik* and *tinggi* (reduplicated), carries a categorial function of adverbializing. In sentences (15) to (18), affixes *me(N)-kan*, *pe(N)-*, *-an*, and *ke-*, attached consecutively to conjunction, verb, adjective, and adverb—*sebab*, *duduk*, *manis*; and *hendak*, carry categorial functions of verbalizing and nominalizing

Table 1: Affix Categorial Functions

No.	Base Morphemes/Category	Affixes	Word Formation	Categorial Function
1	<i>tinggi</i> /adjective	<i>ke-an</i>	<i>ketinggian</i>	nominalizing
2	<i>jujur</i> /adjective	<i>ke-an</i>	<i>kejujuran</i>	nominalizing
3	<i>nilai</i> /noun	<i>ber-</i>	<i>bernilai</i>	verbalizing
4	<i>mobil</i> /noun	<i>ber-</i>	<i>bermobil</i>	verbalizing
5	<i>pandai</i> /adjective	<i>ter-</i>	<i>terpandai</i>	adjectivalizing
6	<i>kaya</i> /adjective	<i>ter-</i>	<i>terkaya</i>	adjectivalizing
7	<i>aku</i> /personal pronoun	<i>me(N)-i</i>	<i>mengakui</i>	verbalizing
8	<i>lima</i> /number	<i>ber-</i>	<i>berlima</i>	verbalizing
9	<i>enam</i> /number	<i>ke-</i>	<i>keenam</i>	numeralizing
10	<i>kantor</i> /noun	<i>se-</i>	<i>sekantor</i>	numeralizing
11	<i>harus</i> /adverb	<i>me(N)-kan</i>	<i>mengharuskan</i>	verbalizing
12	<i>dapat</i> /adverb	<i>me(N)-</i>	<i>mendapat</i>	verbalizing
13	<i>baik</i> /adjective	<i>se-nya</i>	<i>sebaiknya</i>	adverbializing
14	<i>tinggi</i> /adjective	<i>se-nya</i>	<i>setinggi-tingginya</i>	adverbializing
15	<i>sebab</i> /conjunction	<i>me(N)-kan</i>	<i>menyebabkan</i>	verbalizing
16	<i>duduk</i> /verb	<i>pe(N)-</i>	<i>penduduk</i>	nominalizing
17	<i>manis</i> /adjective	<i>-an</i>	<i>manisan</i>	nominalizing
18	<i>hendak</i> /adverb	<i>ke-</i>	<i>kehendak</i>	nominalizing

Lexico-grammatical Meaning

Beside the categorial function in Indonesian linguistics, this research also examines lexico-grammatical meaning. Theory on lexico-grammatical meaning, I argue, is resulted from critiques on and elaboration of studies on grammatical meaning that has been popular among linguists. Whether realized or not, many believe that affixes convey grammatical meanings. The claim that affixes are grammatical comes from the fact that it is related to a subsystem in language organization in which meaning units combine and form bigger units of meaning (Kridalaksana, 2008:73). Grammatical meaning, therefore, can only be formed if there are joining language

units. Consequently, the notion that affixes are grammatical, in my opinion, is partly incorrect. The claim should say that affixes have the potentials of carrying grammatical meanings. Affixes that have yet to combine with language units would properly be called pre-grammatical.

Lexico-grammatical meaning in Indonesian linguistics was first coined by Professor Tadjuddin, my dissertation advisor. The term originates from lexical meaning and grammatical meaning. According to Tadjuddin (2013:30), “Lexical meaning is the meaning of a word in relation to phenomena outside language in a form of physical world description such as earth, sea, and man or of abstract concepts such as humanity, animalism, and plantation.” As for grammatical meaning, Tadjuddin (2013:32) argues that “it is generated by interaction or combination among various formal components.” Furthermore he divided grammatical meaning into grammatical invariant and lexico-grammatical meaning.

Grammatical invariant is a general meaning inherent in bound affixes, for example affix *me(N)-* when attached to verb *pukul*, noun *jamur*, dan adjective *merah* only carries verbalizing meaning with one grammatical invariant, namely active voice (transitive/intransitive)-- *memukul*, *menjamur*, and *memerah*.

This meaning is also evident in other affixes such as *be(R)-* and *te(R)-*. Affix *be(R)-* when attached to nouns *atap*, *sepeda*, and *telur* becomes *beratap*, *bersepeda*, and *bertelur* and carries verbalizing meaning with one grammatical invariant, which is active-intransitive. Affix *te(R)-* when attached to verb *baca* and *injak* becomes *terbaca* and *terinjak* also carries verbalizing meaning with one grammatical invariant, which is passive voice.

As for lexico-grammatical meaning, Tadjuddin argues that it comes from the integration of lexical forms with their lexical meaning and grammatical forms with their grammatical meaning. Affix *me(N)-*, for example, when attached to derivative verbs *memukul*, *menjamur*, and *memerah* with their differing lexical meanings results in varying lexico-grammatical meanings. The three words now mean to do (to hit-*pukul*), to become like (mushroom-*jamur*) and to turn (red-*merah*).

Similarly, affix *be(R)-* in *beratap*, *bersepeda*, and *bertelur* now have lexico-grammatical meaning to have (roof-*atap*), to ride (bicycle-*sepeda*), and to lay (egg-*telur*). Affix *te(R)-* in verbs *terbaca* and *terinjak* carries lexico-grammatical meanings to be able to be (read-*baca*) and to be (stepped on-*injak*).

The following data contain other affixes carrying several lexico-grammatical meanings.

- (19) Dalam rangkaian kegiatan Festival Bunga dan Buah Nusantara 2013 diselenggarakan Lomba **menggambar** Tingkat SD
(<http://www.fbnipb.com/2013/03/lomba-menggambar-tingkat-sd.html>)
- (20) Karena pengaman granat masih terpasang dengan baik, anggota Gegana dengan mudah **mengangkat** dan mengevakuasi granat dari lokasi penemuan.
(<http://www.metrotvnews.com/metronews/video/2013/04/30/6/176406/Gegana-Amankan-Granat-di-Bantaran-Sungai-Pasar-Kembang>)
- (21) Anda mungkin ingin **membelikan** anak-anak Anda atau pun keluarga smartphone blackberry, berikut ini cara untuk mencari solusinya.
(<http://duniablackberry.com/harga-blackberry-baru-dibawah-1-juta-2013.html>)
- (22) Madrid sementara harus tertinggal secara agregat 1-4 dari Dortmund setelah kalah **menyakitkan** pada pertandingan leg pertama di Signal Iduna Park pekan lalu.
(<http://sport.detik.com/sepakbola/read/2013/04/30/092852/2233704/1033/>)

[schuster-percaya-madrid-mampu-balikkan-keadaan?991104topnews\)](#)

(23) Aksi rampok di siang bolong ini, berhasil menggondol emas dengan cara **menembaki** salah satu penjaga toko.

<http://www.jambiexpres.co.id/berita-6800-pemilik-toko-ditembak-emas-disikat.html>

(24) Terpancar wajah kegembiraan dari wajah sang ayah yang saat ini **memandangi** putra keempatnya itu.

<http://www.topix.com/forum/world/malaysia/T24E9C08RS9CA1UQE>

In sentences (19) to (24), affixes *me(N)-*, *me(N)-kan*, dan *me(N)-i* are attached to verbs *gambar*, *angkat*, *beli*, *sakit*, *tembak*, and *pandang*. The lexico-grammatical meaning that affix *me(N)-* carries is activity (action within a long duration) and semelfactive (momentarily); affix *me(N)-kan* carries a lexico-grammatical meaning to have someone do something or causative. Affix *me(N)-i* is iterative (in repetition) and continuative (continuous).

The varying lexico-grammatical meanings are due to the inherent aspectual meaning of verbs; activity verbs (*gambar* and *beli*), punctual verbs (*angkat* and *tembak*), and stative verb (*pandang*).

(25) Petualangan **bersepeda** sesungguhnya dimulai pada Sabtu, 23 Maret. Di hari itu, peserta akan diboyong ke Sapta Tirta Pablengan di Karanganyar.

<http://www.tempo.co/read/news/2013/03/22/200468732/Garuda-Ajak-Penggemar-Sepeda-Jelajahi-Wisata-Solo>

(26) "Hingga saat ini kami belum mendapat kepastian dia diizinkan **bermain** atau tidak," ujarnya.

<http://www.tempo.co/read/news/2013/03/19/099468038/Rahmad-Darmawan-Umumkan-28-Pemain-Timnas>

(27) Dari pengamatan "PRLM", gedung dua lantai yang pernah dipakai Dinkes dalam tidak **terpakai**.

<http://www.pikiran-rakyat.com/node/231699>

(28) ... Binod Chaudhary (57), orang Nepal pertama yang tercantum dalam daftar orang **terkaya** sedunia versi majalah Forbes.

<http://bisniskeuangan.kompas.com/read/2013/03/18/02472036/Chaudary.Miliuner.Pertama.dari.Nepal>

(29) Cara membandingkan dua anak ini, menyebabkan kakak merasa **terjatuhkan** didepan adiknya.

<http://kesehatan.kompasiana.com/ibu-dan-anak/2012/12/16/tidak-suka-dibandingkan-511417.html>

In sentences (25) and (29), affixes *ber-*, *ter-* and *ter-kan* are attached to inanimate noun *sepeda*, dynamic verbs *pakai* and *main*, adjective *kaya*, punctual verb *jatuh*. Affix *ber-* carries lexico-grammatical to ride and to do. Affix *ter-* carries a lexico-grammatical superlative whereas affix *ter-kan* carries a lexico-grammatical meaning perfective.

(30) ...Chris John, berharap bisa kembali bertarung menghadapi **petinju** Meksiko...

- (<http://olahraga.kompas.com/read/2012/12/10/12123460/Chris.John.Ingin.Hadapi.Marquez>)
- (31) ... lonjakan permintaan karena ketergantungan warganya yang tinggi pada **pemanas listrik**.
(<http://www.pikiran-rakyat.com/node/228576>)
- (32) "**Ketua** *Harian DPP Demokrat ini adalah lembaga baru hasil KLB*
(<http://nasional.kompas.com/read/2013/03/31/09541794/SBY.Tunjuk.Syarief.Hasan.Jadi.Ketua.Harian.Demokrat>)
- (33) *Peringkat **kesatu** diraih oleh pebulu tangkis asal Bandung*. (DB/2013)
- (34) **Timbangan** pada pedagang ikan itu sudah kurang baik. (DB/2013)
- (35) *Pengaruh jenis kelamin terhadap **pilihan** makanan sudah sejak lama menjadi pertanyaan para ilmuwan dan ahli gizi*.
(<http://health.kompas.com/read/2013/04/23/11241497/pengaruhjeniskelamin.pada.makanan>)
- (36) **Secantik-cantiknya** orang, **sekaya-kayanya** orang, **semahal-mahalnya** makanan makanan yang dimakan toh akhirnya muaranya sama, menjijikkan dan bau.
(<http://lifestyle.kompasiana.com/catatan/2012/12/27/inspirasi-dari-bilik-15-meter-persegi-514343.html>)
- (37) bahwa HIV AIDS bisa menular dari bersalaman, menggunakan WC yang sama, **tinggal** serumah, **menggunakan spre**i
(<http://www.pikiran-rakyat.com/node/214149>)
- (38) Saya tidak ingat lagi wajah orang itu karena melihatnya hanya **sekilas**.
(KBB/2008/698)

In sentences (30) to (38), affixes pe-, ke-, -an, se-nya, and se- are attached to punctual verbs (tinju and timbang), adjectives (panas, tua, cantik, kaya, and mahal), dynamic verbs (pilih), inanimate nouns (rumah and kilas). Affix pe- carries lexico-grammatical meanings profession and tool. Affix ke- carries lexico-grammatical meanings chief and rank. Affix -an carries lexico-grammatical meanings result and tool. Affix se-nya carries a lexico-grammatical meaning intensity. Affix se- carries lexico-grammatical meanings one and temporary.

The varying lexico-grammatical meanings that those affixes carry when attached to non-verbs are resulted from sub-categorical lexical meaning that each category has.

Table 2: Lexico-grammatical Meanings of Affixes

No.	Base Morpheme	Category/Sub-category	Affixation	Lexico-grammatical Meanings
1	<i>gambar</i>	dynamic verb	<i>menggambar</i>	activity
2	<i>angkat</i>	punctual verb	<i>mengangkat</i>	momentary action (semelfactive)
3	<i>beli</i>	dynamic verb	<i>membelikan</i>	action for indirect object
4	<i>sakit</i>	stative verb	<i>menyakitkan</i>	causative
5	<i>tembak</i>	punctual verb	<i>menembaki</i>	iterative
6	<i>pandang</i>	stative verb	<i>memandangi</i>	continuous
7	<i>sepeda</i>	inanimate noun	<i>bersepeda</i>	to possess/to ride
8	<i>main</i>	dynamic verb	<i>bermain</i>	activity
9	<i>pakai</i>	dynamic verb	<i>terpakai</i>	to be + past participle
10	<i>kaya</i>	adjective	<i>terkaya</i>	superlative
11	<i>jatuh</i>	punctual verb I	<i>terjatuhkan</i>	perfective
12	<i>tinju</i>	punctual verb I	<i>petinju</i>	profession
13	<i>panas</i>	adjective	<i>pemanas</i>	tool
14	<i>tua</i>	adjective	<i>ketua</i>	chief
15	<i>satu</i>	cardinal Number	<i>kesatu</i>	rank
16	<i>timbang</i>	punctual verb	<i>timbangan</i>	tool
17	<i>pilih</i>	punctual verb	<i>pilihan</i>	result
18	<i>cantik, kaya, mahal</i>	adjective	<i>secantik-cantiknya, sekaya-kayanya, semahal-mahalnya</i>	intensity
19	<i>rumah</i>	inanimate noun	<i>serumah</i>	one
20	<i>kilas</i>	inanimate Noun	<i>sekilas</i>	momentary

CONCLUSION

The analysis on the categorial function and lexico-grammatical meaning finds that

- (1) Affixes in Indonesian language when attached to morphemes carry categorial functions of verbalizing, nominalizing, adjectivalizing, numeralizing, and adverbializing.
- (2) Affixes when attached to base morphemes of both verb and non-verb categories have varying lexico-grammatical meanings consisting of activity, to do something for (indirect object), semelfactive, causative, iterative, continuative, to have/to use, superlative, tool, profession, to be+past participle, perfective, result, chief, intensity, and one.
- (3) The variation of lexico-grammatical meanings that affixes carry is caused by (a) verb sub-category inherent aspectual meaning and (b) lexical meaning sub-category of every non-verb.

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COMPARING THE PERFORMANCE OF EXTROVERT AND INTROVERT INTERMEDIATE FEMALE EFL LEARNERS ON LISTENING AND READING TASKS

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ABSTRACT

The present study focused on the difference between English as a foreign language (EFL) introvert and extrovert learners regarding their reading and listening abilities. Instruments for this study included Preliminary English Test (PET), Eysenck Personality Inventory (EPI), test of listening tasks (6 kinds of listening tasks, 80 items), test of reading tasks (8 kinds of reading tasks, 60 items). The study was conducted on 150 intermediate female EFL learners at Soodeh Language School and Kish Institute who participated and answered a PET test. The 108 homogeneous participants who scored one standard deviation below and above the estimated mean responded to EPI and based on the result of this questionnaire, they were divided into two groups of extroverts and introverts. Then both groups took the same test of listening and reading tasks and their results were compared. Finally, to observe whether or not there were any significant differences between the two groups in terms of performing reading and listening tasks, an independent t-test and a Mann-Whitney U test were run as the assumptions for a MANOVA were violated. The results indicated that introverts perform significantly better in listening tasks than extroverts. But in reading section there was no significant difference between the two groups of students.

KEYWORDS: Personality, Extrovert, Introvert, Task, Listening Comprehension, Reading Comprehension.

INTRODUCTION

In recent years increasing numbers of teachers, in all subjects, have been looking for ways to change the traditional forms of instruction in which knowledge is transmitted. They have sought ways to make the classroom more “student-centered” and have investigated the different ways in which students can play more active roles in discovering and processing knowledge (Littlewood, 2000). In the field of language teaching, the approach which is currently best known in this respect is “task-based language teaching”.

For the past 20 years, task-based language teaching (TBLT) has attracted the attention of second language acquisition (SLA) researchers, curriculum developers, educationalists,

teacher trainers and language teachers worldwide. Long (1985) and Prabhu (1987), in their seminal writings, among others, supported an approach to language education in which students are given functional tasks that invite them to focus primarily on meaning exchange and to use language for real-world, non-linguistic purposes.

One of the major goals of EFL instruction is to prepare learners to be able to understand their interlocutors. The importance of listening cannot be underestimated since as Brownell (1995) believes that listening skills are as important as speaking skills. Speaking does not itself constitute communication unless what is said is comprehended by another person. Teaching the comprehension of spoken speech is therefore of primary importance if communication's aim is to be reached. Considering the importance of listening skill, Chastain (1988) maintains that, "to learn to speak, students must first learn to understand the spoken language they hear. The negative effect that undeveloped listening skills have on second language learning is quite profound. To communicate with native speakers, students must first learn to understand enough in real language situations to comprehend the gist of what native speakers are saying" (p. 193).

Another skill that should be considered in learning foreign languages is reading comprehension. Reading is an important skill for most students of English throughout the world, especially in countries where foreign language learners do not have the opportunity to interact with native speakers but have access to the written form of that language (Rivers, 1968). In the past reading was considered as a language learning process in which the teacher used reading materials to teach vocabulary and grammar, but nowadays it is considered as a communicative process in which reading for meaning is the core objective. Reading can be considered as a source of information, as a pleasurable activity, and as a means of extending one's knowledge of the language (Rivers, 1968).

"In the classroom there is a danger that reading or listening takes place in a void, without purpose or challenge. But it is possible to design tasks which will provide a context for written or spoken texts in order to provide the purpose or challenge which is basic to reading or listening in the real world. These tasks are valuable learning activities in themselves and by providing a context they also make the reading or listening into a meaning focused activity" (Willis & Willis, 2008, p. 33). The purposeful nature reading and listening enhance learning.

The concept of language teaching has always been with us at different stages. Some experts like Busch (1982) who writes about second language learning make the point that language is closely bound up with human behavior and personality. Nowadays, with so many people being interested in learning English, the factors that could impact on their learning effectiveness become more important to know. As we all know, many factors influence the second language learning process. Yet one of the most important elements for SLA research to explain is the great individual variability second language learners obtain in their respective second languages, so it's getting more important to know more about the influence of personality on SLA. Personality factor theory is founded upon the work of Jung (1923). Bradley and Hebert (1997) state that "according to the personality factor theory, individuals are predisposed to one of four preference alternatives in their behavior: (a) How a person is energized - designated by extrovert (E) versus introvert (I); (b) What information a person perceives - designated by sensing (S) versus intuition (N);

(c) How a person decides - thinking (T) versus feeling (F); (d) The life-style a person adopts - judging (J) versus perceiving (P)” (pp. 340-341).

In order to provide effective sensitive instruction, teachers of second or foreign languages need to learn to identify and understand their students’ significant individual differences (Ehrman & Oxford, 1995b; Ehrman, 1993). Among personality factors, Extroversion and, its counterpart introversion, are also potentially important factors in the learning of a second language.

The researchers believe that in spite of the attempts which have been made in the TBLT area to produce authentic, purposeful, informative, enjoyable and motivating contexts to encourage students to use language (especially in listening and reading skills) students’ achievement also depends on their personality type, particularly extroversion and introversion types because these personality types may influence students’ motivation, the strategies they choose to learn a language, classroom management and teaching language.

Task-based Language Teaching

The task-based approach to language teaching, according to Foster (1999), has evolved in response to a better understanding of the languages learned. Task-based language teaching (TBLT), according to Richards and Rodgers (2001), refers to an approach based on the use of tasks as the core unit of planning and instruction in language teaching. It may be considered as a logical development of communicative language teaching, since it draws on some of the following principles of communicative language teaching movement from the 1980s:

- Activities that involve real communication are essential for language learning.
- Activities in which language is used for carrying out meaningful tasks promote learning.
- Language that is meaningful to the learner supports the learning process.

They also suggest that tasks are proposed as useful vehicles for applying these principles. These principles provide a link between outside classroom reality and inside classroom pedagogy. At the interface with outside classroom reality, communication tasks enable the course to be organized around chunks of communication which reflect students’ needs, interests and experiences. At the interface with inside classroom pedagogy, they provide an organizing focus for the individual components of language that students have to learn in order to communicate.

Nunan (1991) states that task-based language teaching has the following characteristics:

1. Emphasizing on interaction in the target language.
2. Using authentic texts.
3. Focusing not only on language, but also on the learning process itself.
4. Enhancing learner’s own personal experiences.
5. Linking classroom language outside the classroom (p.68).

Tomlinson (1998) states that tasks have been used in foreign language classrooms since the mid-1970s. Since learners need to be able to communicate in English, the best way to develop communicative competence is to use the target language for communication.

Littlewood (2004) argues that there is continuity between task-based language teaching and the broader communicative approach within which it is a development. He further suggests that in a task-based approach “tasks serve not only as major components of the methodology, but also as units around which a course may be organized” (p. 324).

Listening

Lundesteen (1971, cited in Devine, 1978), states that listening is “the process by which spoken language is converted to meaning in mind” (p. 296).

One of the major goals of EFL instruction is to prepare learners to be able to understand their interlocutors. Rivers (1981) states that listening is not separated from speaking. In fulfilling a communication what is being said should be comprehended by another person. Rehearsed production is useless if we are to respond to the reply that it generates from our interlocutors.

Also Chastain (1988) maintains that both language teachers and students tend to overlook the importance of listening comprehension skills. They do so because their attention is fixed so completely on their ultimate goal, speaking, that they fail to recognize the need for developing functional listening comprehension skills as a prerequisite to developing skills.

Reasons of Negligence

As Chastain (1988) maintains, the reasons of neglecting the listening skill can be summarized as:

- 1) The listening comprehension process is internal and thus not subject to direct, external observation, examination, and correction. Therefore, language teachers and students tend to overlook its prerequisite importance in language learning because there is no immediate observable output.
- 2) Many teachers have learned that they should base classroom activities on behavioral objectives, so they expect students to produce a product that they can hear or see.
- 3) They can correct students’ errors only if they hear them say something or if they read what they have written.
- 4) They feel more comfortable conducting activities in which they can control what the students are doing.
- 5) Tradition also contributes to the slight attention paid to listening in many language classes. Teachers tend to teach as they were taught, and the students tend to expect the same types of classes they have learned to associate with language classes. The result is that neither teachers nor students question the validity of traditional class activities.
- 6) Since teachers have little experience providing classroom activities that help students develop listening comprehension skills, they may not be prepared to generate and conduct the appropriate activities (p. 192).

Modi (2012) maintained that “while traditional approaches to language teaching tended to underemphasize the importance of teaching listening comprehension, more recent approaches emphasize the role of listening in building up language competence and suggest that more attention should be paid to teaching listening in the initial stage of second or foreign language learning” (p. 57).

Factors Influencing Listening Comprehension

Anderson and Lynch (1988) also identify factors that influence listening comprehension as follows:

Personal Style

A more patient, reflective person takes more time to listen and, consequently, may be perceived as listening more effectively.

Intelligence

Because intelligence, as a listening variable, interacts with number of factors such as personality, motivation, attitude, and interest in the subject.

Anxiety and Stress

High anxiety in listening situations may lead to asking questions that have already been answered or making statements unrelated to current topic of discussion. While the fear of speaking is probably related to social approval, the anxiety one experiences as listener is more likely consequence of his fear of, misinterpreting or misunderstanding of the speaker.

Attitude

Even under the best circumstances one tends to listen selectively. If one dislikes a speaker and anticipates that the speaker will have nothing valuable to say, it is likely that what one hears will confirm his expectations.

Gender

Coleman (1978, cited in Anderson and Lynch, 1988) was among the first to suggest that females perform better on tasks that involve verbal ability, while men perform better when visual skills are involved.

Culture

An individual culture, background, role, and other variables determine listeners' unique perspective.

Message and Speaker

The clarity of the organization has a significant impact on listener's ability to comprehend and recall the information he hears. Speakers who use clear organizational strategies are easier to follow than those who present ideas randomly. A speaker's mannerism and delivery have an impact on credibility and affect the listener's attention, comprehension and retention (pp. 35-38).

Reading

Many foreign or second language teaching authorities like (Richards and Renandya, 2002; Anderson, 2003; Nunan, 2004) believe that reading is the most important language skill. Richards and Renandya (2002) argue that in many second or foreign language teaching situations, reading receives a special focus. He believes that there are a number of reasons for this. First, many language foreign language students often consider reading as one of their most important goals. They want to be able to read for information and pleasure, for their career, and for study purposes. In fact, in most EFL situations, the ability to read in a foreign language is all the learners ever want to acquire. Second, written texts serve various pedagogical purposes. Extensive exposure to linguistically comprehensible written texts can enhance the purpose of language acquisition. Good reading texts also provide good models for writing and provide opportunities to introduce new topics, to stimulate discussion, and to study language. Reading, then, is a skill which is highly valued by students and teachers (p. 273).

Grabe (2001) highlights the importance of reading in academic settings. He states that in academic settings, reading is assumed to be the central means for learning new information and gaining access to alternative explanations and interpretations. Reading also provides the foundation for synthesis and critical evaluation skills. In addition, reading is the primary means for independent learning, whether the goal is performing better on academic tasks, learning more about subject matter, or improving language abilities (cited in Celce-Murcia, 2001).

Rivers (1968) believes that reading is a basic skill through which students at a higher level can learn to read great quantities of authentic material and to read for communication. They can also increase their knowledge and understanding of the culture of the speakers of the language, their people and their ways of thinking, their literature, and their past and present civilization.

Reading Comprehension and Communicative Tasks

Nunan (1993) defines a communicative task as a "piece of classroomwork which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing, or interacting in the target language while their attention is focused on meaning rather than form" (p. 59). Strictly speaking, in task activities, the goal is nonlinguistic. The idea is to get something done via the language, to read a text and do something with the information (Long & Crookes, 1992). According to Knutson (1998) whole tasks involve performance of reading in conjunction with other skills: listening, speaking, or writing. For example, students in a small group might read a number of texts, such as brochures, timetables, or maps, and listen to radio weather or traffic reports in order to carry out the larger task of deciding on the best method of transportation to use on a trip. In such an activity, each student deals with one category of information, and all students must communicate their information to one another to come up with the best plan for the trip.

According to Davies (1995) "traditional reading exercises, such as multiple-choice, are extremely limited in their potential as learning activities. Reading tasks can probably be used as an alternative to the traditional approach to reading comprehension because they not only make use of authentic and challenging texts, but also involve the students interacting with the text and with each other. These two features of reading tasks, along

with other features, may motivate the reader to engage in the learning process more actively, hence, to learn the language better” (p. 144).

Difference between Introverts and Extroverts

According to Hjelle and Ziegler (1992) most of the efforts have been aimed at determining whether there are significant differences in behavior associated with individual differences along the introversion-extroversion continuum. Some empirically established ways in which introverts and extroverts have been found to differ include:

1. Introverts prefer theoretical and scientific vocations (e.g., engineering and chemistry), whereas extroverts tend to prefer people oriented jobs (e.g., sales and social work).
2. Introverts attain higher grades in college than extroverts. Also, students who withdraw from college for psychiatric reasons tend to be extroverts.
3. Introverts show higher arousal levels in the mornings, whereas extroverts show higher arousal levels in the evening. Furthermore, introverts work better in the morning, and extroverts work better in the afternoon (p. 284).

Introversion-Extroversion and Reading and Listening comprehension

The study of personality factors, in general, and extroversion/introversion, in particular, with regard to second language acquisition has recently begun to attract increasing attention. Several studies have been carried out to investigate if extroversion/introversion personality trait plays any role in the process of language learning. Pazhuhesh (1994) studied the relationship between the personality dimension of extroversion/introversion and reading comprehension. In her studies introverts were significantly better than their extrovert counterparts. Nasrabadi (1996) examined the role of extroversion-introversion personality dimension in EFL listening comprehension in Iran. He found significant results for extroverts. Daneshvari (1996) also examined the role of E/I in EFL listening comprehension in Iran. He concluded that extroverts were better listening strategy users in comparison with introverts. Brown (1994) “claims that extroversion may be a factor in the development of general oral communicative competence, which require face to face interaction, but not in listening, reading, and writing” (p. 174). But, Tucker, Hamayan and Genesee (1976) found that the more outgoing adventurous students in a one-year late (grade 7) French immersion program performed better on tests of listening comprehension and oral production than did the quieter students. Busch (1982, cited in Brown, 2000) tried to determine whether there would be any relationship between extroversion/introversion and English proficiency among the EFL students in Japan. The study came out to reject the hypothesis that the extraverts are more proficient than the introverts. The study clarified that extroversion had negative correlation with proficiency and the introverts had better reading comprehension and grammar proficiency than the extraverts.

There is no doubt that personality is one of the important factors which impact the second language acquisition, and it is a complicated aspect which is affected by different factors, such as ethnic background, culture, and environment, and so on. Although many

researches, as mentioned before, have made a lot of endeavors to study this, it is not surprising that the results of so many experiments are unclear, and that any conclusions can only be viewed as tendencies, not absolutes. More new findings are expected to come up with further development in the personality research area, and to put them into teaching practice of second language in order to the rapid development of second language teaching.

Although the importance of task- based teaching has been accepted by scholars like Skehan (1996); Willis & Willis (2001); Nunan (1991) in the field of language teaching, and despite the research projects (ex: Bangalore Communicational Teaching Project, 1979-1984, by Prabhu, & Ramani-cited in Long and Crookes-1992) done on the influence of task-based instruction on reading and listening skills, to the best knowledge of the present researcher, no important and substantial research has been conducted on studying the relationship between personality types (Extroversion/Introversion) and performing listening and reading tasks at least in Iran. Therefore, the purpose of the present study was to compare the performance of Extrovert and Introvert Intermediate Female EFL learners on listening and reading tasks. To fulfill the purpose of the present study which was to see whether there were any significant differences between the performance of Extrovert and Introvert Intermediate Female EFL learners on listening and reading tasks, the following questions were raised:

1. Is there any significant difference between the performance of Extrovert and Introvert Intermediate Female EFL learners on listening tasks?
2. Is there any significant difference between the performance of Extrovert and Introvert Intermediate Female EFL learners on reading tasks?

METHODOLOGY

In order to find appropriate answers to the posed questions, the researchers followed certain procedures and made use of certain instruments, which are reported in this section.

Participants

One hundred and eighty female EFL learners participated in this study, 30 of them who attended the pilot study were intermediate EFL learners at an English institute. And 150 intermediate learners who studied English at a language school and an institute took part in the main study. There was no random selection, and the researcher was not free in selecting the classes and instructional materials. Their age range varied between 13- 24.

Instrumentation

To meet the purpose of the study, the researchers used following instruments:

Preliminary English Test (PET): This test is designed by Cambridge ESOL and is used as a proficiency test for selecting the intermediate sample among the whole participants. PET consists of three main sections: a 35-item reading comprehension test and an 8-item writing test in the first part (1 hour and 30 minutes), a 25-item listening comprehension test in the second part (35 minutes) and a speaking test consisting of four sections in the third part (10-12 minutes).

Eysenck Personality Inventory (EPI): EPI is a self-report personality inventory based on Eysenck's (1947-1952) factor analysis of personality which assumes three basic factors (the two

most important being extroversion/introversion and neuroticism). The original version of this test contains 57 yes/no questions based on which the degree of extroversion and introversion becomes clarified, but only 24 of them related to measuring the degree of extroversion and introversion. So in this study the Farsi translation of EPI test which contained 24 yes/no questions was administered. The translated version of EPI has been proved to be highly reliable at 0.8 level of significance and published in some books. But the English version of it was translated again to Farsi by a professional translator and compared to Farsi translation of EPI which was already translated and published. They were identical.

Test of Listening Tasks: This test was constructed by the researchers and consisted of 84 items which decreased to 80 items after piloting and doing item analysis. The test consisted of 6 kinds of listening tasks as follows:

Listening Cloze Tasks, Information Transfer Tasks, Communicative Stimulus-Response Tasks, True/ False Listening Tasks, Matching Tasks, Multiple Choices listening Comprehension Tasks.

Test of Reading Tasks: This test was constructed by the researchers and consisted of 63 items which decreased to 60 items after piloting and doing item analysis. The test consisted of 8 kinds of reading tasks as follows:

Matching Tasks, Gap-Filling Tasks, True/False Reading Tasks, Multiple Choice Guessing Meaning Tasks, Paraphrase Recognition Tasks, Multiple Choice Reading Comprehension Tasks, Ordering Tasks, Multiple Choice Cloze Vocabulary/Grammar Tasks.

Procedure

Initially, PET, Listening Tasks and Reading Tasks were piloted. Then PET was administered to the 150 subjects in order to come up with a group of EFL learners at approximately the same level of language proficiency but because of practicality issues and time limitation only listening and reading comprehension parts of the PET was administered in this study. Then, those whose score fell in one standard deviation above and below the mean of the sample were selected. The outcome was a homogenized group of 108 learners.

To determine the personality type of the subjects in terms of Extroversion/Introversion, the Eysenck Personality Inventory (EPI) was administered on 108 learners. Through this questionnaire the learners were divided into two groups of extroverts (63 learners) and introverts (45 learners). In order to have equal number of participants in each group, the researcher randomly selected 45 of the extroverts to be in the Extrovert group and excluded the rest.

After determining the groups of introvert and extrovert, the test of reading tasks was administered. The test contained 60 items in three parts which was administered in three sessions because of the limited time that the institute and school allocated for administering the tests. Subjects took one part of the test in each session in 30 minutes.

After the test of reading tasks, the researcher administered the test of listening tasks. The test contained 80 items and was administered in 3 sessions. It took 30 minutes in each session to

administer the parts of the test. The participants listened to each part twice and filled out the answer sheet simultaneously.

After administering the tests and gathering the data, the Descriptive Statistics were estimated then a Mann Whitney U test was run to compare the mean score of introverts and extroverts on listening tasks and an independent t-test was run to compare the mean score of introverts and extroverts on reading tasks.

RESULTS

This study was aimed to compare the performance of introvert/extrovert EFL learners on tasks of listening and reading. The design of this study is “A Criterion group design” which is a subset of Ex post facto design. In this study the personality type (Introversion and Extroversion) was the independent variable, the performance of students on listening and reading tasks were dependent variables and the level of language proficiency (intermediate level) and gender (female) were control variables.

The Homogeneity test

A mock Preliminary English Test (PET) was used as a proficiency test for selecting the intermediate sample among the whole participants. Because the focus of this study was on the listening and reading skills; therefore just the parts of listening comprehension and reading comprehension of PET were used in this research. In order to check the reliability of the test, first of all PET was piloted among 30 intermediate EFL learners of an Institute. After analyzing item facility, item discrimination, choice distribution, and reliability (calculated through the KR-21 formula), PET was recognized suitable for being used in the study (table 1).

Table 1: Results of the PET in the pilot study

N	No. of items	Mean	Range	Variance	SD	r
30	60	35.43	45	225.84	15.02	0.95

As it is shown in the above table the reliability coefficient turned out to be 0.95 which assured the researcher that it could be used safely for the purpose of screening the main participants.

Therefore, this test was administered to a group of 150 intermediate EFL learners of a Language School and an Institute to homogenize subjects of the study. Based on the PET, those participants whose score fell in one standard deviation above and below the mean of the sample through the test were selected for the research. Therefore, 108 of the learners were selected to take part in the study. The results are presented below (table 2).

Table 2: Results of the Homogeneity Test

N	No. of items	Mean	Range	Variance	SD
150	60	41.40	44	125.10	11.18

In another step of the piloting, the test of listening tasks was administered. It took one session (1 hour and 45 minutes). And in the next session Reading Tasks were administered in one session (1 hour and 45 minutes). After piloting the Reading and Listening Tasks, Item analysis, Reliability

(calculated through the KR-21 formula) and Internal Consistency of the tests were checked. According to the piloting results, Listening Tasks decreased from 84 items to 80 items and Reading Tasks decreased from 63 items to 60 items (tables 3 and 4).

Table 3: Results of the test of listening tasks in the pilot study

N	No. of items	Mean	Range	Variance	SD	r
30	84	50.26	64	450.82	21.23	0.9667

Table 4: Results of the test of reading tasks in the pilot study

N	No. of items	Mean	Range	Variance	SD	r
30	63	38.33	39	226.29	15.04	0.94

In the last step of the piloting, in order to check the effect of discarding items on the reliability of the tests, the reliability and descriptive statistics of the test of listening tasks with 80 items and test of reading tasks with 60 items were analyzed, checked and estimated again. Results showed a very good degree of reliability. So, the tasks were recognized suitable for using in the study (tables 5 and 6).

Table 5: Results of the test of listening tasks in the pilot study

N	No. of items	Mean	Range	Variance	SD	r
30	80	46.8	64	441.06	21	0.9680

Table 6: Results of the test of reading tasks in the pilot study

N	No. of items	Mean	Range	Variance	SD	r
30	60	36	40	226	15.03	0.95

The Descriptive Statistics: Test of Reading and Listening Tasks

After determining the groups of introvert and extrovert through the administration of EPI, the test of reading and listening tasks were administered. Both groups of introverts and extroverts took the same tests. The test of reading tasks comprising 60 items in three parts was administered in three sessions and the test of listening tasks consisting of 80 items was administered in three sessions too. The descriptive statistics (mean, range, variance, standard deviation and also reliability) of the tests of reading and listening tasks were calculated. Reliability of the tests was calculated through the KR-21 formula. The results are shown in tables (7 and 8).

Table 7: Results of the test of reading tasks for extroverts and introverts

	N	No. of items	Mean	Range	Variance	SD	Reliability (r)
Extroverts	45	60	41.15	37	64.90	8.05	0.81
Introverts	45	60	43.8	34	108.34	10.40	0.90

Table 8: Results of the test of listening tasks for extroverts and introverts

	N	No. of items	Mean	Range	Variance	SD	Reliability (r)
Extroverts	45	80	51.84	53	169.63	13.02	0.90
Introverts	45	80	57.22	52	209.99	14.49	0.93

The Inferential Statistics: Test of Reading and Listening Tasks

To examine whether the null hypotheses were supported or rejected, the data gathered in this study was subjected to Multivariate-ANOVA (MANOVA), since there were two dependent variables (reading and listening) and one independent variable (personality trait). But, firstly the assumptions of the test should be met: 1. Normality of the distribution of each set of scores, 2. Homogeneity of variances. The following table (table 9) shows the descriptive statistics including skewness ratios used by the researcher to check the first assumption.

Table 9: Descriptive Statistics of the scores obtained by the two groups on listening and reading tasks

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Skewness Ratios
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	
extroverts' reading	45	21.00	58.00	41.1556	8.05649	-.301	.354	0.85
Introverts' reading	45	25.00	59.00	43.8000	10.40891	-.350	.354	0.98
extroverts' listening	45	25.00	78.00	51.8444	13.02437	-.087	.354	0.24
Introverts' listening	45	24.00	76.00	57.2222	14.49120	-1.000	.354	2.82
Valid N (listwise)	45							

As shown in table 9 above, the last column, the skewness ratio belonging to the Introverts' listening scores exceeds the normality range of ± 1.96 , while the rest fall within the range. Therefore, as the first assumption was not met, running a MANOVA was not legitimate, and since there is no non-parametric equivalent for MANOVA, independent t-tests had to be run.

First, to see if there was any significant difference between the reading scores of introverts and extroverts, a t-test was run. The normality of the distribution as one assumption for a t-test is met, as shown in table 9. As table 9 indicates, the introverts outperformed the extroverts in the reading test (43.80 vs. 41.15). But, a further statistical analysis was needed to show whether the difference is significant or not. The following table (table 10) shows the result of the t-test:

Table 10: Independent Samples t-test on the mean scores of reading tasks

	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	
Reading	3.506	.064	-1.348	88	.181	-2.64444	1.96216	-6.54382	1.25493	
Equal variances assumed										
Equal variances not assumed			-1.348	82.795	.181	-2.64444	1.96216	-6.54724	1.25835	

With the equal variances assumed as the second condition for t-test ($F=3.50, p=.06>.05$), the t-test result is interpreted as there was no significant difference between the two groups regarding

their reading skill ($t=1.34, p=.181>.05$). So the null hypothesis stating that *there is no difference between the performance of extrovert and introvert female EFL learners on reading tasks* is maintained.

To see the difference between the listening skill of the two groups another t-test is needed, but as one set of scores belonging to the introverts was not normally distributed, the first assumption of t-test was violated. Therefore, the non-parametric equivalent test, Mann-Whitney U test, was run. The following tables (tables 11 and 12) show the result:

Table 11: Ranks of the two groups on the listening task

grouping	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Listening extroverts	45	39.59	1781.50
introverts	45	51.41	2313.50
Total	90		

As table 11 displays, the introverts obtained a higher mean rank (51.41) compared with the extroverts (39.59). The following table (table 12) indicates the significance of the difference:

Table 12: Test Statistics^a of the listening scores

	listening
Mann-Whitney U	746.500
Wilcoxon W	1781.500
Z	-2.148
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.032

a. Grouping Variable: personality trait

As table 12 depicts, the difference between the two groups turned out to be significant ($M=746.5, p=.032<.05$). Therefore, the null hypothesis stating that *there is no significant difference between the performance of extrovert and introvert female EFL learners on listening tasks* is rejected, with the conclusion that introverts performed significantly better in listening tasks than extroverts.

CONCLUSION

In this study it was demonstrated that the introvert EFL learners were significantly better at listening tasks than the extrovert ones. One possible explanation for such a finding is that according to the personality characteristics of introvert learners, they tend to be better performers in receptive skills like listening, reading, and structure, since according to Eysenck (1965) “they generally have a reflective and thoughtful personality type that suits the receptive kinds of tasks” (p. 59-60). Another reason according to Eysenck (1965) is that “the typical extrovert does not like studying by himself and is generally impulsive individual” (p. 59-60). Also Burrus and Kaenzig (1999) claim that introverts prefer to work on their own than in groups, they do not like being in the center of attention and need time and space to complete the tasks. They need to know what they are expected to do and have suitable condition to concentrate. On the other hand extroverts require high stimulation, cooperating with others and movement to learn and do the tasks. They also like open discussions and discovery activities. Therefore based on the above mentioned findings we can conclude that the special characteristics of introverts: like high concentration and their eagerness to listen rather than to speak and also the kind of listening tasks and the context in which the listening tasks were administered could help them to perform better than extroverts in doing listening tasks.

As for the second hypothesis the researcher was interested to know if extrovert and introvert students were different with regard to their performance on reading tasks. It was shown that the introvert learners with the mean score of (43.80) perform fairly better as compared with extrovert learners with the mean score of (41.15). However the difference between their performances was not statistically significant. One of the justifications that we can come up with might be that introverts have been known as studious and hard-working students compared to more extroverted and outgoing ones. It gives the impression that they are more attentive and conscientious in certain receptive tasks like reading. Therefore, this attentive personality type may contribute to their performance on the types of tasks which need concentration. More over as reflected in table 10, there is a trend in the difference between extroversion-introversion when it comes to reading tasks that is in general, both extroverts and introverts had almost the same performance on the reading tasks part.

This finding is also in line with the finding achieved by Astika, Carrol, and Moneta (1996) which indicates no significant relationship between extroversion-introversion and reading section of the English language proficiency test and there was just a negative trend between extroversion and learners' performance on the reading section. Also Vehar (1968) found no such significant difference in reading test performance between extroverts and introverts. Brown (1994) “claims that extroversion may be a factor in the development of general oral communicative competence, which require face to face interaction, but not in listening, reading, and writing” (p. 174). The reason for lower performance of extroverts has been explained more in the works of following scholars:

Ellis (1994) presents two major hypotheses concerning the relationship between extroversion/introversion and L2 learning. The first is that extroverted learners will do better in acquiring basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS). Extroverts are more eager to talk, to

join the groups and participate in classroom activities. They will use the language more in and outside the classroom. The second hypothesis is that introverted learners will do better at developing cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP). Entwistle and Wilson (1977) claim that introverts will achieve more because they have better long-term memory than extroverts. Besides, they take learning a language in a more serious way and spend more time on reading and writing due to their personality trait. The extroverts are not able to concentrate for a long time and are too sociable to learn with the same attention (Eysenck, 1957). Based on the above mentioned factors, one possibility for the findings of this study might be due to the kind of tasks used in this study. The tasks used in reading and listening tests did not have interpersonal communication characteristics. Therefore, based on the personality characteristics of extroversion and introversion which was mentioned before, extroverts could not show their ability better than introverts in performing reading and listening tasks.

Therefore, by studying the difference between extroverts and introverts and their probable effect on language skills like reading and listening comprehension, teachers can predict what kinds of activities and tasks students will enjoy, what sort of teaching methods they require and what their learning styles are. Therefore it can be concluded that using tasks for teaching listening and reading comprehension to introvert students is a useful approach but it does not mean that using these tasks for instructing listening and reading comprehension to extroverts is not useful. Thus, it is felt that this study has made some important contributions towards a better understanding of the extroversion-introversion personality variable and its relationship to some learning outcomes (i.e., performance on reading and listening tasks).

LIMITATIONS

Like many other studies, the present study suffered from some limitations.

1. Due to the regulation of language schools and English institutes, the researcher was not able to deal with male students. The subjects who participated in this study were all female students. Therefore, the findings of this study may not be generalizable to male learners.
2. The probable effect of some other variables related to learners such as previous learning backgrounds and age, which might have affected their performance in reading and listening tasks, could not be controlled.
3. Because of shortage of time, the number of task-types which were chosen to apply was limited. And the researcher was not free to use a variety of tasks in tests.
4. Since the researcher was not allowed to select the participants or even classes, there was no random selection.
5. Since the selection of subjects was according to their level of language proficiency, there was not control over the age of the subjects.
6. The subjects participating in this study were selected from intermediate learners, because the researcher only had access to the intermediate level. So, only female EFL learners at intermediate level in a Language School and a Language Institute in Tehran were selected for this study; therefore, the findings are limited to them and might not be generalized to other levels.

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IMPROVING STUDENTS' ACHIEVEMENT ON WRITING DESCRIPTIVE TEXT THROUGH THINK PAIR SHARE

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ABSTRACT

Students' achievement in writing descriptive text is very low, in this study Think Pair Share (TPS) is applied to solve the problem. Action research is conducted for the result and qualitative and quantitative technique are applied in this research. The subject of this research is grade VIII in Junior High School, Rantau Parapat, North Sumatera, Indonesia. In the first test, the students get the mean of mark 66,4375. It dramatically increases on the second test, which gets 78,125. Additionally, on the third test the mean of students' mark reaches a pick on 87,5625. Observation result showed that the students gave their good attitudes and responses during teaching and learning process by applying the application of TPS (Think Pair Share) method. Questionnaire and interview report showed that students agree that the application of TPS (Think Pair Share) method had helped them in writing descriptive text. It can be conclude that the students' achievement is improved when they are taught by TPS Method.

KEY WORDS: *Achievement, Writing, Descriptive Text and Think Pair Share*

INTRODUCTION

The Background of The Study

English is the language of global terms that need to be developed in Indonesia. Due to the ability to speak English, people have been able to obtain and provide information that was very important to develop oneself and the environment. Therefore, in Indonesian language has been incorporated into the curriculum of English schools and colleges so that English can be taught to the Indonesian people well and in line with expectations stated in the opening of the 1945 constitution that was to increase the nation intellectual life.

In learning the English language, there are four skills that should be taught to students. They are speaking, listening, reading and writing. In practice, learning the lessons taught writing after speaking, listening and reading. But this does not state that learning writing is not important. In fact, writing is a very important skill as writing needs practice and wring is the very difficult subject for the students. It is related to Oshima and Hogue (1999:3) that writing, particularly academic writing is not easy. It takes study and practice to develop this skill. For both native and new learners of English, it is important to note that writing is a process, not a "product". This means that a piece of writing, whether it is a composition for your English class or a lab report for your chemistry class is never complete; that is, it is always possible to review and revise, and review and revise again.

Writing is a very important capability for being owned by students, writing is also an excellent

communication tool. Through writing, each person is able to convey feelings, ideas, and announcements to others. Sharples (1999:8) actually, writing is an opportunity; it allows students to express something about themselves, explore and explain ideas. Student can convey their ideas in their mind by organizing them into a good text so that the others know them and they can think critically. Therefore, learning is very important for improved writing in particular learning of English in Indonesia because the writing is a process of transformation of thoughts and ideas into tangible forms of writing. In addition, many people choose writing as a means of effective and efficient communication of information to be conveyed in some ways like posting letters, business letters and important information in a company's product.

In the *Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan (KTSP) 2006* syllabus of junior and senior high schools curriculum requires students to be able to write some kind of genre in writing. They are narrative, recount, descriptive, report, explanation, analytical exposition, hortatory exposition, procedure, discussion, reviews, anecdote, spoof, and news items.

Based on the above, the descriptive text is one genre that must be mastered by students in learning English. And theoretically, according to Ervina Evawina S (2010:7) descriptive paragraph is a paragraph vividly portrays a person, place, or thing in such a way that the reader can visualize the topic and enter into the writer's experience.

In fact, not all students are able to write descriptive paragraph properly and in accordance with the existing elements in the descriptive text. Based on the researcher's observation at the time of the teaching practice program (PPL) contained 75% of students who were unable to write a descriptive paragraph. Teachers of English already have taught the material to students well but the students still had the problem in writing descriptive paragraph. In addition, the researcher also had looked the teachers of English language teaching by lecture, and then asked the students to write descriptive paragraph individually.

From the above, student's ability to write descriptive paragraph is very less because the learning methods that is adopted by teachers of English language was a method that does not fit anymore in this day because it reduces the interest and liveliness of the students in the learning process so that students are bored and do not want to continue learning as they have to do.

At this present time, there are already implementations Learning Revolution in teaching and learning that is learning is no longer centered on teachers. In other words, it is called "Teacher Centered Learning (TCL)" but it has been centered on students. It is called "Student Centered Learning (SCL)". Theoretically, SCL is an approach to education focusing on the needs of the students, rather than those of others involved in the educational process, such as teacher and administrators (<http://en.wikipedia.org>). So the teacher is only as facilitators and a provider of solutions in learning is no longer only as a source of knowledge in the learning process.

Based on the above, the researcher offers a method that have to be applied in the learning process of writing descriptive paragraph because Ransdell and Laure Barbier (2002: 143) maintain that a good writing strategy can be trained, and it can improve writing performance. The method that is offered by researcher is the implementation of Student Centered Learning

(SCL) and the development of Cooperative Learning (CL) that according to Slavin (1995:2) Cooperative Learning refers to variety of teaching methods in which students work in small group to help one another learn academic content. In cooperative classrooms, students are expected to help each other to discuss and argue with each other, to assess each other's current knowledge and fill in gaps in each other's understanding, so that the interest and active students in the learning process can be improved not only individually but in groups or together. Learning method, which the researcher refers to, is Think Pair Share (TPS).

Think Pair Share (TPS) is one of the Cooperative Learning methods which poses a challenging or open-ended question and gives students a half to one minute to think about the question. Students then pair with a collaborative group member or neighbor sitting nearby and discuss their ideas about the question for several minutes. The think-pair-share structure gives all students the opportunity to discuss their ideas (www.wcer.wvasc.edu). It is designed to motivate the students to tackle and success at problem, which initially are beyond their ability. It is based on the simple nation of mediated learning. Obviously, one alternative to solve the problem of writing descriptive paragraph is by applying TPS.

With the application of this method is expected to enhance students' skills in writing descriptive paragraph properly and in accordance with the existing elements in the descriptive paragraph.

THE PROBLEM OF THE STUDY

Based on the background of the study, the problem of this study was formulated as follows:

“How do apply Think Pair Share method to improve the students' achievement in writing descriptive Text?”

THE OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY

In relation to the problem, the objective of the study was to investigate and to find out the improvement of students achievement in writing descriptive text through the application of Think Pair Share (TPS) method.

THE SIGNIFICANT OF THE STUDY

Finding of this study are expected to:

1. to motivate the students to be better on writing descriptive paragraph,
2. to provide significant information for the English teacher in their attempt to decide the TPS in teaching descriptive writing in senior high school,
3. to increase the readers knowledge about TPS and descriptive paragraph and,
4. to help the next researcher candidate of the teacher to apply a model in teaching learning process.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Achievement

Travers (1970:447) states that achievement is the result of what an individual has learned from some education experience. Additionally, Yelon, Weinstein, and Weener (1977:301) express achievement as the successfulness of individual, while another source Smith and Hudgins (1964:95) says that achievement is to do one's best, to be successful to accomplish tasks

requiring skill and effort and to be recognized by authority.

Based on the opinions above, it can be concluded that achievement is the result, the successfulness, the extent or ability, the progress in learning education experiences that the individual indicates relation with his/her educational learning. Achievement concerns with what someone has actually learnt whereas aptitude is the potential for learning something. In other words, achievement is a success in reaching particular goal/status or standard, especially by effort, skill, courage, and so on.

Writing

Writing is a process of formulating and organizing ideas in right words to deliver the aim and present them on a piece of paper. According to Jones in R. Cooper and Odell (1977:33) writing is synonymous with discourse, and discourse is discussed in terms of its aims, it relate to the function of language, and in terms of its feature, which are the separate elements, devices, and mechanism of language.

On the other hand, Reinking, Hard and Osten (1993:188) state that writing is a way of communication and of course communicates all the time. And then Deporter and Heracki (2002:179) explain that writing is a whole brain activity, which uses bright brain side (emotion) and left-brain side (logic). Although right and left-brain sides are used in writing, right brain side has a big position because it is a place, which appears new ideas and emotion.

From the explanation above, we can state that writing is a whole brain activity to formulate and to organize ideas in right words to deliver and communicate the aims to the reader and present it on a piece of paper.

Descriptive Text

A descriptive text is a piece of writing that is intended to convey meaning to the reader through sensory details and provides image to the reader (<http://www.ehow.com>). Additionally, descriptive text is a paragraph that is defined as a group of sentences that are closely related in thought and which serve one comment purpose often used to describe what a person looks like and acts like, what a place looks like, and what an object looks like (<http://www.examples-help.org.uk>). Furthermore, Pardiyono (2007:34) state that description paragraph is a type of written text paragraph, in which has the specific function to describe about an object (living or non-living things) and it has the aim that is giving description of the object to the reader clearly.

From the definition above, it can be concluded that description paragraph is a paragraph that describes a particular person, place or event in great deal. Description writing vividly portrays a person, place, or things in such a way that the reader can visualize the topic and enter into the writer's experience. It is a way to enrich others forms of writing or as a dominant strategy for developing a picture of what something looks like.

Furthermore, Jolly (1984:470) asserts there are five types of descriptive writing paragraph. They are:

a. Describing Process

Describing a process not only explains how something was done, but also explains why it was done and what was needed to complete the process.

b. Describing and event

To describe an event, a writer should be able to memorize and remember what happened in the event. Supposed the writer will write about Tsunami that was happened in Japan. In this case, he / she has to explain all details related to the event, so that the readers can imagine the real situation and condition.

c. Describing a personality

In describing a person, the first thing that we do was recognizing his/her individual characteristics. We need to describe people occurs fairly areas of physical attribute (hair, eyes), emotional (warm, nervous), moral attributes (greedy, honest, worthy, trust), and intellectual (cleverness, perception)

d. Describing a place

Presenting something concrete was the way to describe place, for example: a home, a hospital, and school.

e.

f. Describing an object

To describe an object accurately was done by providing the physical characteristics of the object such as the color, form, shape, and so on.

Part of Descriptive Text

There are three part of descriptive text. They are: 1. Social function, which is to describe a particular person, places, or things. 2. Generic Structure, which is divided in to two. They are: a) identification: identifies the phenomenon to be described, and b) description: describe parts, qualities, characteristics. 3. Significant lexico-grammatical feature, that is focus on specific participant, use simple present tense. (<http://teacherside.blogspot.com>). Other source, Pardiyono (2007:34) maintain that three parts of descriptive, they are (1) communicative purpose, that was to describe an object (human and non-human), (2) rhetorical structure, there are two parts of rhetorical structure a) identification, that was statement that consist of one topic to describe; b) description, that was consist of the detail description about object that identify in identification, and (3) grammatical patterns, it was needed to understand that in descriptive paragraph, declarative sentence was used and using present forms.

From the two explanations above, we can conclude that the part of descriptive paragraph was divided in to three parts, they are:

a. Social Function

Describe the characteristics and conditions of the object person, thing, place, or animal) by using adjective and attribute.

b. Generic structure

It was divided into two part they are a) identification was to identify the phenomenon that was described, and b) description was to describe the qualities, characteristics, condition, and part of

an object in detail.

c. Grammatical feature

In description paragraph, it uses present tense as normally.

Think Pair Share (TPS)

The think, pair, share strategy is a cooperative learning technique that encourages individual participation and was applicable across all grade levels and class sizes. Students think through questions using three distinct steps:

1. **Think:** Students think independently about the question that has been posed, forming ideas of their own.
2. **Pair:** Students are grouped in pairs to discuss their thoughts. This step allows students to articulate their ideas and to consider those of others.
3. **Share:** Student pairs share their ideas with a larger group, such as the whole class. Often, students are more comfortable presenting ideas to a group with the support of a partner. In addition, students' ideas have become more refined through this three-step process.
(www.teachervasion.fen.com)

On the other hand, Think-Pair-Share is a strategy designed to provide students with "food for thought" on a given topics enabling them to formulate individual ideas and share these ideas with another student. It is a learning strategy developed by Lyman and associates to encourage student classroom participation. Rather than using a basic recitation method in which a teacher poses a question and one student offers a response, Think-Pair-Share encourages a high degree of pupil response and can help keep students on task.

The steps of Think Pair Share

1. With students seated in teams of 4, have them number them from 1 to 4.
2. Announce a discussion topic or problem to solve. (Example: Which room in our school was larger, the cafeteria or the gymnasium? How could we find out the answer?)
3. Give students at least 10 seconds of think time to THINK of their own answer. (Research shows that the quality of student responses goes up significantly when you allow "think time.")
4. Using student numbers, announce discussion partners. (Example: For this discussion, Student #1 and #2 was partners. At the same time, Student #3 and #4 will talk over their ideas.)
5. Ask students to PAIR with their partner to discuss the topic or solution.
6. Finally, randomly call on a few students to SHARE their ideas with the class.

Teachers may also ask students to write or diagram their responses while doing the Think-Pair-Share activity. Think, Pair, Share helps students develop conceptual understanding of a topic, develop the ability to filter information and draw conclusions, and develop the ability to consider other points of view.

(<http://olc.spsd.sk.ca>)

METHODOLOGY

This research is conducted as an action research procedure since involved a substantive act with a research procedure to find the improvement. Stringer (2007:1) maintains that action research is a systematic approach to investigation that enables people to find effective solutions to problems they confront in their everyday life. Action research focused on specific situations and localized solutions. Action research provided the means by which people in schools, business and community organizations; teachers; and health and human services may increase the effectiveness of the work in which they are engaged.

In this research, the data was collected by quantitative and qualitative approach. Quantitative data is collected by administrating composition text and qualitative was one research method that was describing the situation and the event (Sugyono, 2004:4).

Quantitative data is collected through evaluation sheet, which is administrated by the researcher. For gathering the qualitative data, the researcher used observation sheet, interview sheet and questionnaire. Observation sheet is used to identify all the condition that happened during the teaching learning process including teacher, students and the context of situation that are done by the collaborator, interview sheet is used when the writer want to identify the problems occurred in the learning process and questionnaire as the personal records which usually taken by the writer that was written up daily.

A collaborator is asked to observe and evaluate all the situations during the teaching learning process, the researcher, the students and the class in the teaching learning process.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

The students' score increases from first evaluation to third evaluation. The writer gives the evaluation in second, fourth, and six meeting. During the research, it was found out that the students' score kept improving from first evaluation to last evaluation. By application TPS the students' score was significantly improved. The ranges of score improvement can be seen in the following table:

Table 1: Range of Score Improvement

Range of Score Improvement	Total Students
26-36	7
21-25	8
16-20	9
11-15	5
6-10	3
Number of Students	32

a. Students who got the improvement score about 26-30:

- from 60-90
- from 60-90
- from 60-90
- from 60-90
- from 65-94
- from 60-88
- from 62-89

There were 7 students who got the improvement of score 26 – 30. They were students who did

not like English. But, after the teacher paid attention to them more, asked them problem, and applied TPS Method, they became interested in writing descriptive text.

b. Students who got the improvement score about 21-25

- from 65-90
- from 65-90
- from 63-88
- from 65-90
- from 70-93
- from 67-90
- from 65-87
- from 65-86

There were 8 students who got the improvement of score 21 – 25. They were active students during teaching learning process. Almost of them got points 87 up in the last evaluation. They were active from the first until the last meeting in asking questions and they discussed every problem that they faced with their own team and pair so that their scores also kept improving.

c. Students who got the improvement score about 16-20

- from 64-84
- from 70-90
- from 69-89
- from 63-83
- from 68-87
- from 70-88
- from 73-90
- from 70-86
- from 74-90

There were 9 students who got the improvement of score 16 – 20. Even though the improvement was not so high, it did not mean the students in this range were not competent in writing descriptive text. Two of them achieved satisfying score up to 90 that are PH and SF in the last evaluation. Then the low score in this range was just 83, it meant they could pass the test well.

d. Students who got the improvement score about 11-15

- from 75-90
- from 70-85
- from 70-85
- from 65-80
- from 60-75

There were 5 students who got the improvement of the score 11-15. The score improvement was not too high almost students in this range were smart students. There was one student who got the score just 75 in the last evaluation. It was RTI, but RTI still passed the evaluation.

Because they were very smart students, sometimes they did not pay attention to the teacher and in their own team, they were not serious to hear the explanation. But, they kept improve their score until the last writing evaluation because of the TPS method.

e. Students who got the improvement score about 6-10

- from 80-90
- from 76-85
- from 73-80

There were 3 students who got the improvement of score 6-10. The score improvement was low, but in these range just three students who got the improvement from 6 until 10. Then no one got lower than 80. It meant they are good students but they did not pay attention to the lesson that was given by the teacher.

There were difference in the lowest and the highest of students' writing score in each writing evaluation, which was given during the research. The differences showed that there was a significant improvement of students' writing. The improvement of students' score in each writing evaluation can be seen in the following table:

Table 2: Comparison Score of Students' Writing Evaluation

Type of Score	Evaluation I	Evaluation II	Evaluation III
	M1	M4	M6
	Cycle I	Cycle II	
Lowest Score	60	70	75
Highest Score	80	85	90
N	32	32	32

Note: M = Meeting N = Number of Students

From the table above, it was seen that students' score kept improving. In writing evaluation I, the lowest score was 60 and the highest score was 80. In writing Evaluation II, the lowest score was 70 and the highest score was 85 whereas in the last writing evaluation, the lowest score was 75 and the highest score was 90. It showed the significant improvement in students' writing descriptive text.

The improvement of students' score in writing descriptive text through TPS (Think Pair Share) also can be seen from the mean of the students' score in every writing evaluation. The mean of students' score can be seen below:

$$\begin{array}{r}
 \text{Xfi} = \frac{2126}{32} \\
 \text{Xfi} = \frac{2500}{32} \\
 \text{Xfi} = \frac{2802}{32}
 \end{array}$$

Table 3: The Improvement of Mean Scores of Students' Writing

Meeting	Total Score	Mean
Evaluation I (Cycle I)	I	2126
Evaluation II (Cycle I)	II	2500
Evaluation III (Cycle II)	III	2802

The mean of the students' score in the first meeting was the lowest of all meetings. In the last meeting, the students' score improved. From the data analysis, the mean score of the students' writing increased from 66, 4375 to 87, 5635. It meant that the ability of students in writing descriptive text was improved.

In this research, the indicator of successful in writing descriptive text was if 75 % of students have got score up to 75 in their writing evaluation because the English passing grade at the school was 75. The number of the students who were competent in writing descriptive text was calculated below:

$$P1 = \frac{2}{32} \times 100 \% = 6,25 \%$$

$$P1 = \frac{26}{32} \times 100 \% = 81,25 \%$$

$$P1 = \frac{32}{32} \times 100 \% = 100 \%$$

Table 4: the Percentage of Students' Writing Descriptive Text

Evaluation	Cycle	Meeting	Students who got score 75 up	Percentage
I	I	I	2	6,25 %
II	I	IV	26	81,25%
III	II	VI	32	100%

In writing evaluation I, there were 2 students who got point 75 up. The percentage of students' achievement in descriptive text kept increasing when TPS method was applied. In the first cycle, 6, 25 % students got points 75 up whereas in the second cycle 100 % students who got points 75 up. The range of the first meeting (6, 25%) and the last meeting (100%) was 93, 75 %. It had been proved that 93, 75% students got the good score on their writing achievement. It can be concluded that TPS method worked effectively and efficiently in helping students in improving their achievement in writing descriptive text.

Qualitative Data

The qualitative data were taken from observation sheet, questionnaire sheet and interview that gained within two cycles.

Observation Sheet

From the result of observation sheet, it can be concluded that teaching learning process by applying TPS method run well. The situation of teaching learning process was comfort, lively, and enjoyable. Because from the data that was taken from the first (I) meeting to the last (VI) meeting we can find out that the Note in the data got good and very good. It means the score in this data was just gotten from 3 to 4.

So this TPS method created a good environment in teaching learning writing in which students became active in the process of writing, focus their mind to the teachers' explanation, and share in their team and pair and then finish in individually. In individually work, the students could improve their confidence to finish the work because they had discussed in team and pair.

Interview

From the interview data those were taken by the teacher and the students from the first meeting and the last meeting, we could find out that the teacher was very interesting to the students because the students were very active and enjoyed with English but students ability in writing descriptive text was not good enough and then the teacher did not have effort to improve it.

From the interview with the students in the first meeting, it can be found out that the students very interesting with English and most of the students like to write descriptive text, because from 6 students that the writer interviewed said like. So from this data we can conclude that most of the students like to write the descriptive text. That was why it was needed to improve their achievement in writing descriptive text by the application of TPS.

From the second interview that was taken from teacher, it can be find out that the application of TPS in teaching learning process especially in writing descriptive text was very helpful to improve the ability of students in writing descriptive text. And according to the teacher this method was very good because can make the students became active and enjoy the lesson.

Furthermore, from the last interview that was taken from the students it can be find out that most of the students like this method and the said that this method was very good to improve their achievement in writing descriptive text because they could be active and enjoy the material. And from the 6 students, all of them said TPS was very good and just one student said that it was very busy but the student also like. So, from the entire interview, it can be concluded that TPS method was very good to improve the students' achievement in writing descriptive text at Junior High School, grade IX and the teacher will apply TPS in teaching learning process not only writing but also another subject.

Questionnaire

From the result of questionnaire, it can be found out that TPS method can improve the achievement of students because from the data no one of the students fill in disagree and strongly disagree then no more than 4 students fill in the neutral. So most of the students fill in agree and strongly agree. It meant that this TPS method was very good for the students.

In significantly, from the data that was taken from questionnaire sheet I we could account that from the statement 1 until statement 8, the percentage of strongly agree was 331 with mean 41, 40625%, agree 431, 25 % with mean 53, 90625 % , neutral 37, 5 % with mean 4, 6875 % and disagree and strongly disagree 0 %. So, from this questionnaire data we can concluded that the students was very interesting and enjoy the TPS method in teaching learning process especially in writing descriptive text.

Besides that, from the data that was taken from the questionnaire sheet 2 it can be found in the

first statement that the percentage of students who chosen a was 71,875 %, b was 3, 125 %, c was 25 % and d was 9, 375 %. It meant that most of students had learned to work to gather from this TPS method. So they were active in teaching learning process. And then from the statement 2 the students who chosen a was 43, 75 %, b was 28,125 %, c was 15, 625 % and d was 12, 5 %. It meant that most of students had learned about pair accountability and pair responsibility. In additional, from the statement 3 the students who chosen was 84, 375%, b was 6, 25 %, c was 6, 25 % and d was 3, 125 %. It meant that most of students in this research had learned to produce something alone.

From the all questionnaire data, it can be concluded that the students were very interesting and enjoying the TPS method and they the students were not only improve their achievement in writing descriptive text but also improve their teamwork, responsibility and self-confidence.

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

Conclusion

Having analyzed the data that have been presented in the previous chapter, it was found that average scores of students in every evaluation kept improving. It can be said that there is a significant improvement on the students' achievement in writing descriptive text by applying the application of Think Pair Share method. It can be seen from the improvement of mean of students' score, namely: the mean of first evaluation (66,4375) sharply increased to the mean of second and the third evaluation, which have 78,125 and 87,5625 respectively. The score continuously improve from the first evaluation to the third evaluation. Observation result shows that the students give their good attitudes and responses during teaching and learning process by applying the application of TPS (Think Pair Share) method. Questionnaire and interview report shows that students agree that the application of TPS (Think Pair Share) method have helped them in writing descriptive text. It can be concluded that the application of TPS method significantly improves students' achievement in writing descriptive text.

Suggestion

The result of this study showed that the application of TPS method could improve students' achievement in writing descriptive text. In relation to the conclusion above, some points are suggested, as follow:

1. The English teachers are suggested to use TPS (Think Pair Share) method as teaching method to stimulate the students' learning writing spirit in teaching writing process.
2. For the readers who are interested for further study (university students) related to this research should explore the knowledge to enlarge the understanding about how to improve students' achievement in writing and search another reference.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

There are three limitations of this study; the first is administration procedure as the school in which the research was conducted was very difficult to get the permission from the Head Master. The researcher had to get the permission letter from the office of education as the requirement of doing the Unluckily, the researcher had spent the time to get the letter for two weeks. The second is the facilities on the school. There were many media that cannot be

provided by the school so that the researcher had to take the media from other institution. The last but not least is the cooperation with the students. Some of the students did not want to fill in the questionnaire, as we know this is one of the assessments in this study.

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TOM STOPPARD'S 'SPIRITUAL LONERS:' A STUDY OF FOUR EARLY ABSURD PLAYS

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ABSTRACT

Tom Stoppard is a leading figure in contemporary British drama. He began his writing career in the early sixties. He was considerably influenced by the dominant literary trends in the first half of the twentieth century, the most important of which is absurdism, both thematically and technically. In the plays dealt with in this paper; namely, *The Dissolution of Dominic Boot*, *'M' Is For Moon Among Other Things*, *If You're Glad, I'll Be Frank* and *Albert's Bridge*, Stoppard not only employs the elements of the absurdist drama, but also presents a series of spiritual loners who are helpless and unable to cope with the realities of life. They are condemned to a life of boredom and meaninglessness and are put in a series of absurd situations.

KEY WORDS: Stoppard, absurd, spiritual loners, *The Dissolution of Dominic Boot*, *'M' Is For Moon Among Other Things*, *If You're Glad, I'll Be Frank* and *Albert's Bridge*.

TOM STOPPARD'S 'SPIRITUAL LONERS:'

A Study of Four Early Absurd Plays

Tom Stoppard belongs to the playwrights of the 1960s, who represent, according to Taylor(1971), "the Second-Wave" of post-war dramatists. This means that Stoppard burst upon the English theatrical world at a critical juncture. At that time, British theatre was almost completely 'Naturalistic' and was showing concern for social 'message' and involvement (Bigsby, 1976, p.3). However, in 1981, Stoppard told *Gambit* that his early writing career could best be seen in terms of his sense of alienation from the Osbornian school of angry young men writing socially-engaged dramas. (qtd in Sammelles, 1988, p.131) Keeping this fact in mind, one realizes the importance and special position of Stoppard's plays in the 1960s. Furthermore, Stoppard admits at this stage of his literary career that he has very few social and political preoccupations so that he writes without any social objectives in his mind. (Stoppard, 'Something to Declare', 1968, p.47)

The sixties was a decade of relative prosperity in England as far as mass production and accumulation of wealth were concerned, but it was a period of social and political confusion as well. This confusion was not restricted to England only. Indeed, people were facing hard times in many parts of the western world. In as far as Stoppard's literary career is concerned, Billington

(1987) gives an accurate diagnosis of the sixties as a decade of social, cultural and political chaos:

Stoppard was writing in the mid-sixties at a time of considerable political disturbance and social change: the Americans had begun bombing North Vietnam; racial riots had erupted in the Watts sections of Los Angeles; the Vatican Council had called for the modernization of the Catholic Church...While the Beatles has erupted all over British life. There was no reason why any of this should not find its way into Stoppard's work, but even his early plays hint that life is too much; that the best thing is to escape...from the surrounding chaos. (p.26)

As a result of this breakdown in man's confidence of finding consolation in the social or political structure of his country, he began to question more acutely issues such as the established religious convictions, the values of family life, and the meaning of his own existence.

Stoppard's early plays reflect his deep awareness of, and sensitivity to, the plight of modern man, by putting his characters under many kinds of pressure-psychological, financial, or metaphysical. He produces in these plays a series of 'spiritual loners,' people who reject and are rejected by their societies. (Sammelles, 1988, p.89) His early heroes, as Bigsby has well explained, are all trapped within a hostile mechanistic world, which is at odds with individual inspiration. (In Roberts, 1978, p.86) Dominic Boot in *The Dissolution of Dominic Boot*, loses his job; Glayds, in *If You're Glad, I'll be Frank*, is on the verge of a breakdown, due to her feeling of the meaninglessness of her life; and Albert, in *Albert's Bridge*, escapes from his harsh chaotic world and finds order in the structure of the bridge, an order not available on the ground.

Moreover, Stoppard emphasizes the importance of seeing his plays in performance. In an interview, he declares that he does not write plays "for discussion...I think of a play as an event in the theatre: to look for a kind of cryptogram in a play is to approach it in a way not really to do with theatre" (qtd in Bareham, 1990, p.34). In fact, he does not write plays primarily to be read or discussed, but to be performed, and to be seen in performance. This concern with the creation of a theatrical event on stage to alienate the audience and to keep them critically detached, besides being extremely entertained and concerned about the whole performance, is what links Stoppard with the Brechtian theatre.

This may explain why Stoppard likes to involve himself in playing around with quite complex theatrical effects and images, which link both thematic and technical adaptations of original theatrical themes that in turn projects the dilemma of man existing in a world devoid of meaning. (Hayman, 1977. pp8-9)

Another aspect of Stoppard's early theatrical career was his exploitation of the opportunities radio offered to the dramatists of the post-war period. Radio drama, in fact, is an excellent form; it sets an interesting challenge to the writer, the producer and the actor, while the listener is allowed to use his own imagination, instead of having everything imagined for him on the stage or the television screen. In commenting on radio as a theatrical medium, Guralnick (1990) rightly points out: "radio plays typically establish, and exploit, an unusual intimacy with the listener; they lend themselves easily to the dramatization of a character's interior thoughts, particularly dreams, fantasy, and the absurd; and they sometimes aspire to the condition of music, as in the plays of Samuel Beckett." (p.229) Indeed, radio is more effective than stage or television in conveying interior monologues, stream of consciousness and recollection. In *Albert's Bridge*, we

go inside Albert's thought, while a good deal of *If You're Glad*, happens inside Clayd's head. Listening to these radio plays, one feels that it would be a pity to present them visually on stage. (See Esslin, 1975, pp.38-42, and Wain, 1971, pp. 61-65)

At this stage of the discussion, it is necessary to study some of Stoppard's plays that were written during the 1960s, to point out those thematic, stylistic, and technical features of Stoppard's early plays that link them with the theatre of the Absurd.

The Dissolution of Dominic Boot (henceforth *Dominic Boot*)(1964) reflects Stoppard's employment of a situation rather than a plot: "I have tremendous difficulty in seizing a 'plot' but I am probably to tackle a situation" (qtd in Fleming, 1996, p.124).

Indeed, *Dominic Boot* is essentially an extended joke, as Fleming describes it (Ibid.). It has an autobiographical element, as Stoppard suffered from financial difficulties in his early career as a dramatist. Stoppard himself describes the four years between 1963 until his first success with *Rosencrantz and Guildenstern are Dead* (1967) as "mainly self-unemployed"(Ibid, p.116). However, and in spite of these hard circumstances, Stoppard, like *Dominic Boot*, rarely refrained from taking taxis instead of using public transportation.

Stoppard was not the only person who suffered from unemployment and financial straits during the sixties. Many young men in Britain shared with him the same hard situation. This may help to explain Stoppard's preference of writing about "human beings under stress-whether it is about losing one's trousers or being nailed to the cross" (Berlin in Bareham, 1990. pp.107-108).

The play's idea is as simple as it is interesting. Stoppard summarizes it as follows: "The peg for *Dominic Boot*-man riding around in a taxi trying to raise the money he needs to catch up with the meter-is the only self-propelled idea-for-a play I ever had and I think I wrote it in a day"(Stoppard, 1983, p.7). The opening moments of the play give us an idea about the eternal characters' personalities as well as Dominic's distress:

Fade in street-traffic.

Vivian: Well, thanks for the lunch-oh, golly, it's raining.

Dominic: Better run for it.

Vivian: Don't be silly...(Up) Hey, taxi!

Dominic: I say Viv...

Vivian: Come on, you can drop me off. (*To driver*) Just round the corner, Derby Street Library. (*They get in-taxi drives*).

Dominic: Look, Vivian, I haven't got...

Vivian: Dush it-that's taken about ten shillings out of my two guinea hairdo-honestly, I'm furious. Don't you ever have an umbrella?

Dominic: Not when it's raining. (Ibid, p. 49)(All subsequent quotations are from this edition)

We immediately understand from this shorthand conversation what kind of relationship exists between Dominic and his selfish, demanding fiancée, Vivian. She gives him no chance to admit

his lack of money. Also, this scene signals the lack of love, warmth and understanding between them.

Stoppard presents here one of his Prufrockian characters-after T. S. Eliot's Alfred Prufrock in his poem "The Love Song of J. Alfred Prufrock." These characters are characterized by their helplessness and inability to cope with the realities of life. However, in spite of the hard situation in which Dominic finds himself as he fails each time he tries to raise the required taxi-fare, we never hear him complain about, or explain, his predicament to anyone.

All we hear is Dominic's inner thoughts and the chinks of the coins as he tries to meet the fare. He decides to go to the Metropolitan Bank in Blackfriars. At the bank, we are informed by Shepton, whom Dominic assumes to be Honeydew, that Dominic is overdrawn and that the bank has already refused two cheques from the restaurant at which he lunched with Vivian. These events are to be repeated in a second and a third bank.

What happens in the three banks clearly reflects Dominic's carelessness about other people and about his being continuously under stress. Despite that, Dominic struggles valiantly to keep in control. He tries to borrow from his work mates, Bligh and Cartwright. However, his requests are turned down. Even Dominic's mother, who is as self-centered and demanding a woman as Vivian, proves to be of very little help to him. This shows the difficult situation Dominic is suffering from, as he is expelled from his job. He is unemployed at the present time, and this will eventually lead to the mounting of his financial hardships. Also, his shorthand conversations with his mother reflect his feelings of loneliness and solitude and his need of someone to listen to, and sympathize with him in his predicament.

Indeed, it is rather interesting to notice that, in spite of the lack of communication among the characters, Dominic agrees with his mother that "It's quite wrong not to keep in touch with one's father"(p.54). Unfortunately, Dominic's father also fails to support him, as he receives him rather coolly and formally:

Dominic: Well, I was missing you, Father.

Father: Don't be *absurd*(p.56)(Italics mine)

The reply of Dominic's father here represents a severe and painful blow to all his attempts to communicate with others. Dominic Boot is an utterly desperate man now, especially after being let down by his mother, father and friend Charles Monkton. Here, Stoppard asserts people's need for mutual love, understanding and emotional involvement in their lives. It seems that Dominic is the only character in the play who is seeking others' understanding, and who is not imprisoning himself in a world of his own making. He thinks of asking Vivian's help who pushed him into his blight in the first place, but she proves to be extremely callous and apathetic to Boot's needs. Their meeting in the library ends up with a pathetic cry from Boot, in which he pours out all his anger and indignation at the absurd and meaningless situations he is constantly put in. He shouts at her: "OH, YOU STUPID COW, SHUT UP AND GIVE ME TEN POUNDS FOR THE LOVE OF GOD!"(p.57).

Finally, Dominic decides to sell everything he owns, except for a pair of pajamas, to the driver, who owns a shop where he sells a variety of goods, in exchange for the fare. At the end of the play, Stoppard presents a very ironical and painful picture about the blight of Dominic Boot. In fact, there is no remedy or solution for Dominic's ordeal, since the last scene is a repetition of the

first one. Dominic is left helpless, insecure, unable to communicate with others, and utterly lonely. Also, he is penniless, unemployed and in tears, for he realizes that he is trapped in a web of difficulties.

To sum up, this play is about a man who is always being urged to pull his socks up. This reminds us of Prufrock, who finds nothing to do but to pull his socks up. He is also desperate and on the verge of a nervous breakdown because of suffering endlessly in a world whose characters are enclosed in little boxes, unaware of the existence of the rest of people.

Wearing a raincoat and pyjamas only and without an umbrella, Miss Bligh hails a taxi while addressing Dominic, saying: "Taxi!...come on, Mr. Boot. Come on, you can drop me off..."(p.58). One can do nothing but smile at this ridiculous situation. In fact, the closing joke of the play suggests that Dominic is trapped in an unending cycle of financial problems.

As we shall see, such images of 'circularity' abound in Stoppard's other early plays.

Reading, or listening to, *'M Is for Moon Among Other Things* (henceforth *'M' Is for Moon* (1964), one immediately notices how similar it is to many of Ionesco's plays, since it gives us a portrayal of a middle-aged, childless couple, and as it presents dramatically the boredom, loneliness and meaningless existence of the couple's lives.

In this play, Stoppard, like Ionesco, concentrates mainly on showing the mutual isolation of human beings and the meaninglessness of their daily actions, which constitute the major portion of their existence on earth.

Both Alfred and Constance imprison themselves separately in small boxes, unaware of each other's needs and desires. Actually, Stoppard succeeds in this play, as he begins to "explore the pathos of imprisoned littleness" (Jenkins, 1987, p.8).

Alfred and Constance are fully aware of their 'littleness' and meaningless existence. Therefore, they try to invest their lives with meaning. In other words, they try to evade the barrenness of their married life. Constance seeks to achieve this by attempting lexicography. She spends her time by browsing through her monthly installment of the M-N volume of encyclopedia, while her husband, Alfred, fantasizes about what he reads in the newspapers and hears on the radio- with the main story being the death of the American film actress, Marilyn Monroe. Alfred, while ignoring his wife's desires, dreams of being Marilyn's comforter, of holding her close to him, of helping her, and easing her traumatic experience.

Stoppard conveys the pair's boring existence in an interesting way. He begins with something of a sound puzzle. There is "*Silence- a man grunts and shakes his paper- a woman flips over the pages of a book and sighs*" (Tom Stoppard, 1983, p.61). (All subsequent quotations are from this edition) In fact, most of the play's dialogue, as we shall see, happens inside the characters' minds; that is, interior monologues, which help to give us an "autumnal picture of middle-aged, ..., childless couple, whose thoughts and aspirations are richer than their humdrum lives," as Jenkins (1987) points out (p.12).

What we see here is a typical couple, married for a number of years, yet they do not know each other. What Stoppard wants to say is that people are isolated, lonely; people never really know each other, even when they are living together in the closest possible relationship.

Because of the meaninglessness of her life, Constance is increasingly preoccupied with time and counting the dates. She is appalled by the idea that time flies out without using it properly. Like Clayds, in *If You're Glad*, she is obsessed with time, and is extremely frightened by the fact that on "August the fifth, nineteen-sixty two...in half an hour I'll be exactly forty-two-and-a-half years old"(p.62).

She was born just as the clock struck half past ten at night. This means that she will be a day older each day the clock strikes half past ten. Constance may not be so worried about her being forty-two years old, or anxious about time, if her life with Alfred was happy and normal. However, this is not the case here. In fact, Constance sums up the whole of her meaningless life when she says: "Forty-two-and-a-half, and all I've got is a headache"(p.63). The word 'headache' is indicative, for it connotes that Constance has never been happy in her life with Alfred, that she is leading a miserable and lonely existence, and that even when she tries to voice her feeling to Alfred, he is not there to listen to, and comfort her. This reminds us of the fact that, as characters in an absurdist play, they are living in a world where love is unattainable and understanding is absent. A comparison with Ionesco's couples in *The Chairs*, *The Bald Soprano* and *Amedee* may be relevant here. These plays tell stories about the meaningless and absurd existence of middle-aged couples who use nonsensical language and clichés as a form of escape from, or a cover-up for, their purposeless lives.

Constance's reaction to Marilyn's death is quite different from Alfred's. Constance sees nothing specific in the death of Marilyn, since the latter does not appear in her encyclopedia, whereas Alfred invests the incident with his own fantasies.

Stoppard often refers to '*M' Is for Moon* as "his Marilyn Monroe's play," (Fleming, 1996, p.125) in the sense that Marilyn's death is pivotal to the play's action, for it helps to shed light on the characters' personalities, dilemmas and aspirations.

Constance is indifferent to Marilyn's death, because Marilyn represented everything that Constance is not. She became very famous as an actress during the fifties. The film producer turned her into a profitable project, in the sense that she became a victim of their materialistic greed. Marilyn lived paradoxically: she was under stress from the outside world which wanted her to be a paragon of sex. As a film star, she got all she aspired to, such as wealth, beauty and fame. However, she was suffering, like Constance, from loneliness in her empty life, which ended by her decision to commit suicide. This fact signals out the spiritual emptiness that spreads over in Western civilization, as suicides are largely due to the waning of religious beliefs and the dominance of materialistic philosophy and individualism.

Alfred's reaction to Marilyn's death takes another shape. To Alfred, her death is symptomatic of a hard, selfish world in which there is "no one to recognize her needs...No one to turn to, I mean. No wonder the poor girl got desperate. Those *actors*...they've got no humanity, no understanding..., it's such a selfish society"(p.66). Actually, Alfred gives us, in this statement, an accurate description of the world he, Marilyn and Constance were living in. Alfred, in fact, pities

Marilyn's death as he sees in it the death of his fantasies and dreams of a happy marital life. In another instance, Alfred almost identifies himself with Marilyn as he thinks:

Alfred: (*Thinks*): Abandoned...no love...like a child...(p.64)

Alfred:...It's such a cold shallow world she was living in. No warmth or understanding- no one understood her, she was friendless (Ibid.)

These musings represent an accurate description of Constance's life. Also, Alfred comments indirectly on the nature of the world people live in, as they suffer from an increasing sense of isolation and loneliness in spite of the scientific developments in mass communication and the invention of many means of entertainment.

The crucial question, which Stoppard tries to answer in *'M' Is for Moon* is: What is the meaning of our life? In fact, he leads his listeners through making Constance question whether her life has any meaning, into questioning the meaning of their lives and their daily actions and, at the same time, makes them realize the absurdity and futility of their lives.

Constance tries, through writing entries in the encyclopedia, to invest her life with meaning. She thinks that, by doing this, she makes use of time: "...it's just that the time isn't all a waste" (p.65), in spite of Alfred's continuous ridiculing comments on her efforts. She also regrets losing her happy childhood and her ability to take decisions. When she was seventeen, she decided to change her name from Millie to Constance, for "it sounded more grown-up"(p.63). She yearns for the simple world of her childhood ABC, where each letter stood for one object only. It was years before she realized that 'M' was for moon, among other things. She is utterly desperate now, because she feels that she is compelled to go on in her tedious, monotonous life and actions. Commenting on the characters' attempts to make their lives meaningful, Billington (1987) remarks about the play:

It...adumbrates one of Stoppard's recurrent themes: the attempts of human beings to find some pattern or scheme that will somehow shape and explain the meaningless flux of existence... Stoppard himself-rather like his characters-seems to be yearning for something to counteract the randomness of experience. All art is, by definition, an attempt to order chaos (pp.21-22).

Finally, the play ends as it begins, for Stoppard repeats the first scene at the end of the play, to emphasize the fact that both Alfred and Constance are, like Dominic Boot, trapped in an increasing cycle of misunderstanding, loneliness, and boredom. Alfred, while failing to give his wife any kind of comfort, retreats into the fantasy of being Marilyn's comforter, while Constance, who again misunderstands her husband's solicitude and thinks he intends it for her, retreats to bed with her M's from her encyclopedia, rattling in her mind.

Stoppard's next play, *If You're Glad, I'll be Frank* (henceforth *If You're Glad*) (1966), represents his mediation on the nature of time and how modern society is imprisoned by it. The play "actually had its origins in a series the BBC were contemplating ...about people in absurd jobs

which did not really exist, and the idea of doing one about the speaking clock girl occurred to me then,” as Stoppard (1974) points out. (p.8) Gladys is the voice of the telephone-speaking clock, and she is doomed endlessly to announce the passing seconds. Her husband, Frank, is a bus driver and, like her, is doomed endlessly to drive his car from one station to another.

As a matter of fact, the special nature of their professions turns them into slaves to time, as they are so tied to timetables and schedules that they become almost machine-like objects, deprived almost of all free will. They function mechanically within a totally artificial inhuman framework, consequently imprisoning themselves in little boxes or cells that separate them from the outside world and from each other.

Man was and is still interested in the concept of time and its impact on him. His preoccupation with, and interest in time has escalated, due to the achievements in big strides in the scientific world, to the extent that people have started to be slaves to timetables, programmes and schedules.

Unlike other characters, Gladys objects to the prevailing, collective experience of time. For her, the scale of human life has been reduced to ‘nothing.’ Everything becomes petty and insignificant when measured against the omnipotence of time. Gladys suffers from spiritual dislocation whenever she ponders over things beyond the tiny world of the Post Office where she works, and her bus-driver husband’s enslavement to his timetable. She says:

And I feel sick
When you look down from a great height
You become dizzy. Such depth, such distance,
Such disappearing tininess, so
far away, rushing away,
reducing the life size into nothing-
it upsets the scale you live by.
Your eyes go first, followed
by the head,
and if you can’t look away
you feel sick,
And that’s my view of time. (Stoppard, 1969, p.12)(All subsequent
quotations are from this edition)

Actually, Gladys rejects the common notion of time; she insists that time is impartial, disinterested, and god-like. Consequently, she gives up everything, including her husband and other human beings, who think that time is something they invented for their own convenience and divided up into years, months, days, hours, and so on. People rely heavily on this division of time so as to make their lives orderly and systematic, and to know

When to retire;
When to leave the station,
renew their applications
When their subscription
have expired;
....., etc, etc, (p.11)

T. S. Eliot presents, in 'Burnt Norton,' the same view point of time as impartial and indifferent to human beings. He believes that time is a continuum, an endless flux that engulfs man's existence. Man, in order to understand this continuum, imposes this division of time into past, present and future:

Time present and time past
are both perhaps present in time future
And time future contained in time past
If all time is eternally present
All time is unredeemable (Eliot, 1982, p.171, ll1-5)

Stoppard presents through Gladys another of his 'spiritual loners,' as she desperately attempts to evade the harsh realities of her world. In the past, she failed to gain admission to a nunnery. She sought 'serenity' and quiet life, but was rejected by the religious authorities because of her religious doubts. Gladys lives in an age of reason, in which rational thinking dominates especially in western societies. These societies witnessed, since the scientific works of Darwin and other scientists, many moral shocks that led to the prevalence of spiritual emptiness and religious doubts. Gladys is eager to escape this world, with its chaos and turbulence into an orderly existence, a world that provides her life with meaning and logical explanations. Her job as the speaking clock offers her this kind of order. However, as she goes on announcing the passing seconds, she is appalled by the omniscience of time. Through this unending repetition of time, Gladys experiences a portion of eternity as the seconds stretch ahead and behind her to infinity. Time, she believes, flows endlessly and reduces man within it to a very tiny part of its flow, in fact to nothing. Realizing that time is indifferent to human beings, she is driven to breakdown by this Olympian vision of time and its impartial progress. One of her wishes is to 'cough,' 'sneeze' and to whisper an obscenity (p.28), while she is performing her tedious and repetitive task. However, she is reluctant to do so, because this means the collapse of the system at the Post Office, though she is fully aware that this disruption would make no difference:

It can go without me
and it will
Time doesn't need me-
They think I am time, but I am
not-
I am Gladys Jenkins...(p.27)

It is this keeping of her dull and monotonous job, despite her knowledge of its absurdity, that makes her position absurd and puts her on the verge of psychological breakdown.

Gladys's relationship with Frank is another piece of evidence of her enchantment with serenity and the quiet life. Frank, Gladys tells us, is as reliable and punctual as a clock; she informs us that he took his timetable seriously, to the degree that "you could set your clock by him"(pp.19-20). Frank is surprised to recognize, while dialing 'Tim' that the speaker is his wife, Gladys. He decides to rescue her, because he thinks that she is kept there against her will. However, he is unable to reach Gladys or release her from her ordeal, since he is a slave to his timetables and work routine. He is beaten back and ridiculed each time he enters the Post Office to meet the top

man or to ask about his wife. Finally, Frank is given a very severe blow when the First Lord replies callously and unsympathetically: “First Lord (*Chuckling*): My dear fellow-there’s no Gladys- we wouldn’t trust your wife with the time- It’s a machine, I thought everyone knew that...”(p.30).

This reply gives a true portrait of what life in the twentieth century has come to. We are going, like Gladys, to be machines or cogs in a big wheel. Here, Stoppard warns us that we will be reduced to puppets in a universe unsympathetic to our needs, if we lose our ability to master time, and reminds us that the clock is made for man and not vice versa.

Frank’s separation from his wife, and his inability to communicate with her, are aspects of the absurd situation they are put into. However, it strikes one as a hopeful gesture that- although the action is circular and the characters are imprisoned and repeat the same action- Frank will never stop looking for Gladys, as Gladys will keep on informing us about time.

The final scene of the play represents another image of circularity, as the First Lord manages to defeat Frank’s efforts to liberate Gladys from her self-inflicted prison, and as she will go on in her Sisyphean and self-consuming job “ad nauseum”(p.12). So will her husband.

As in *Dominic Boot* and *‘M’ Is for Moon*, the situation in *If You’re Glad* will remain the same, since Gladys will always be under the mental and psychological pressure of her work, and as she will be forced “to pull [herself] together, stop crying, and to control [her] voice”(p.31).

Levin (1976), in a comment on the significance of the play, points out that it represents:

an assault on the whole concept of time as the irresistible force that compels societies...to trot obediently in its wake. It is a dazzling piece of work...juggling excellent but straightforward jokes...with a constant stream of time-metaphors turned inside out, all spinning round the still human nature of Gladys...The scenes switch between no fewer than six acting areas, with the cross-references of speech, movement, and lighting, all controlled by the inexorable pips.(p.38)

To depict Gladys’s predicament effectively, Stoppard creates an inner and outer voice, one for the speaking clock and the other for her inner thoughts. The latter, of course, has the dominant value in the play, for it informs us of her personal anguish, ordeal and private feeling in regard to the absurd limbo she finds herself in.

Albert’s Bridge (1967) is similar to *If You’re Glad* in many respects. Like Gladys, Albert is another character in Stoppard’s series of ‘spiritual loners.’ Like her, he tries to impose order on his chaotic life by devoting himself to repainting a bridge. Moreover, man for Albert, as for Gladys, becomes insignificant if measured from the height of the Clifton Bay Bridge, on which Albert is employed as a painter.

Albert was a philosophy student, and he wanted to stay on at university, but “they wouldn’t have [him]”(Stoppard, 1970, p.14). (All subsequent quotations are from this edition) It seems that studying philosophy made him unable to cope with ordinary life and human relationships. One notices that there is hardly any relation between Albert and those around him. This may explain his utter disregard for Fraser’s attempts to commit suicide and his wife’s desertion with their child. His feelings of loneliness and isolation make him seek resort in the bridge. Indeed, the play’s title reflects Albert’s obsession with bridges and towers. He chooses Paris as place for

spending his holidays with Kate, because this enables him to visit the Eiffel Tower. Besides, almost all the play's events take place around or on the bridge.

Albert has been painting the bridge for a number of years. He is quite happy and content in his job, for it offers him a pattern or an order that helps to shape his meaningless life.

However, Albert's solitude and quite life will not go on forever like that. The city engineer, Fitch, who is also obsessed with logic and patterns, produces to the town's Bridge Committee a scheme to save money by using a paint that will last eight years, and, therefore, the committee needs only one painter. Albert applies for the job and succeeds. He likes the distance it offers him. The clutter of everyday world looks like a neat pattern when viewed from the bridge, and the bridge itself has a self-contained logic-the whole thing utterly fixed by the rules that make it stay up. (p.16) Albert here has assigned himself a Sisyphean task of endlessly repainting the bridge. Unlike his work mate Dad, who gives up his job as a bridge painter, Alfred sees this endless task as a finite achievement:

Albert: Simplicity-so...contained; neat; your bargain with the world, your wages, your time, your energy, your property, everything you took out and everything you put in, the bargain that has carried you this far-all contained there in ten layers of paint-accounted for.(p.9)

Albert has forsaken everything, including his wife, child, and mother, in order to work on the bridge. His mother thinks that philosophy has changed him. It has made him think all the time. Like Beckett, Stoppard suggests that knowledge sometimes leads to bewilderment and uncertainty, as one is subject to different cultural trends and philosophies. (Wellwarth, 1971, p.46) As a philosophy student in the twentieth century, Albert comes across different and contradictory philosophical concepts. Apparently, this helps only to increase his confusion and bewilderment. Instead of wasting his time on philosophy, as his mother thinks, Albert could have been now a trainee executive with his father in the factory. Stoppard here develops the theme of non-conformism, which occurs in several of his early plays. Albert continues his job as a bridge painter and refuses to step on the treadmill of business and industry.

Albert gets married to Kate without an obvious motive. This again reflects his indifference to those around him. However, unlike the protagonists in the plays of the Absurd, Albert does not regret having a family. He does want to make them happy. The problem with Albert is that he does not feel really at home in the society in which he is condemned to live. When he is not on the bridge, he is haunted by the pettiness and futility of all he intends to do. His perspective about the world assumes another shape when he is on the bridge. He is happy there and thinks that there are some logical rules that govern the world and make it comprehensible to us. In this respect, Albert is like Gladys, a victim of perspective. He is seduced by the distant view of life as seen from the bridge, while Gladys is imprisoned into the infinite horror of time.

Another victim of perspective is the would-be suicidal maniac, Fraser. Just like Albert, who sees the whole town, people, university, and even his wife and daughter from the bridge as bricks, dots and beetles-that is, an existence orderly arranged- Fraser, who is appalled at the fragility of

the chains of economic causes and effects which keep civilization going on when he is on the ground, sees everything from the bridge as “Quite ordered, seen from above. Laid out in squares, each square a function, each dot a functionary. ...from a vantage point like this, the idea of society is just about tenable” (p.32). Fraser realizes that the only direction left for him to go in is upwards. So, he decides to climb the bridge, to escape the world and its miseries.

In his conversation with Albert, Fraser diagnoses the ills of modern British society. One can safely say that many parts of the world in the twentieth century suffer from similar problems. Fraser poses the well-known problems of mass production, unemployment, financial pressures, the feeling of insecurity in a world of shattered beliefs, noise and population explosion. Fraser realizes that “There is too much of everything, but the space for it is constant. So the shell of human existence is filling out, expanding, and it’s going to go bang” (p.30), and that “One is forced to recognize the arbitrariness of what we claim to be order. Somewhere, there is a lynch pin, which, when removed, will collapse the whole monkey-puzzle” (Ibid). Actually, this is exactly what happens at the end of the play when **1800** painters come to help Albert in painting the bridge in one day. Neglecting the rules of physics that keep the bridge stay up, it collapses under the weight of those men and with it Albert’s dreams of order and quiet life. The collapse of the bridge represents another kind of reduction to ‘nothing’ by taking a neat logic to its extreme.

Because of his deep sense and preoccupation with the bridge, Albert regards any visitor as a threat to his world of make-belief on the bridge. He asks Fraser to descend, but once he is told that Fraser intends to jump off the bridge, Albert says:

Albert: You come up to go down?

Fraser: To jump.

.....
Albert: Jump off? You’d kill yourself. Ah.

.....
Albert: Well, jump.

Fraser: Aren’t you going to try or to talk me
out of it?

Albert: You know your own mind. And you’re
holding me up. I’ve got to paint where you’re
standing. (p.31)

This conversation shows Albert’s apathy towards human life and existence. Indeed, the bridge, for Albert, becomes both a symbol of life and a retreat from it. The bridge becomes his life and his final destiny, for in his insistence on working on it, he resigns himself to the ultimate truths of life, namely life and death.

The bridge, in fact, may give Albert a sense of importance, a sense of being in “the centre” of things” (p.37). This is why Albert and Fraser are horrified as the army of painters approaches. They recognize that it is their ultimate tragic end, and they sense the approaching collapse of their world. Hayman (1977) describes the death scene thoroughly:

Like Ros and Guil [in *Rosencrantz and Guildenstern are Dead*], who are almost flattered by the tragedy of their death, never having believed themselves to be important enough, Albert is caught by surprise: “Eighteen-hundred men-flung against me by a madman! Was I so

important?(p38) He knows that the basis of his existence is destroyed; he doesn't yet know that his life is. The changing tone of the marching indicates that more and more of the men have left terra firma and started the ascent. Soon we hear the noise of the rivets popping out of place. Fraser's apocalyptic prophecies are being carried to dramatic fulfillment and Albert...., dies with him as the bridge collapses. (p.68)

Stoppard ridicules here the bureaucracy that dominates our life through the character of Fitch, who loves efficiency as much as Albert does. For him, painting a bridge is "poetry ... a perfect equation of space, time, and energy" (p.18). It is the pointlessness and illogicality of his miscalculation that ultimately bring about the death of the 1800 painters and the collapse of Albert's world.

In these four radio plays-*Dominic Boot*, *'M' is for Moon*, *If you're Glad*, and *Albert's Bridge*-Stoppard writes on the anxiety and confusion of life, on modern man's plight as he is subject to ever-increasing pressures from the outside world, a world that is hostile to man's dreams and pushes him either to death (in the case of Albert in *Albert's Bridge*) or to an endless cycle of personal miseries and troubles in the other plays.

It is noteworthy that in these plays Stoppard exploits the medium of radio to write tightly-constructed plays, in which he effectively uses different characters' voices and sound effects in order to create different layers of meaning and to enhance aurally the experiences in a way which distinguishes them from works for the stage. In *'M' is for Moon*, Stoppard misleads his listeners several times. Constance: (*Thinks*):...I think enough for tonight-I wish the print wasn't so small...Have you seen my pills anywhere?(p.61) and her counting off months in her head lead some listeners to think that the dates and pills are related to contraception, but later on we know they are not. This kind of deception has served to shed light on Constance's loneliness and her unhappy married life with Alfred.

In all these plays, Stoppard largely succeeds in drawing his listeners' attention closely to his characters' worlds, by using condensed plots, interior monologues, shorthand dialogues, sound effects, and by moving rapidly from one scene to another, thereby forcing us to deduce much of what is happening, to participate and to share in their little lives, and in their dilemmas. His writing in these plays proves to be extremely deft. He wastes no sound, and many serve a double function. By using these techniques, the listeners are drawn more intimately to the action, since it is our responsibility to imagine what is going on. Jenkins (1987) points out that "in these scripts, Stoppard finds his own voice and his own vision of life's puzzling uncertainty." (p.8)

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Biography

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DEVELOPING DATABASES-DRIVEN WRITING FOR WRITING ACADEMIC PAPERS BY IRANIAN ACADEMIC MEMBERS

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ABSTRACT

Iranian academicians cannot usually express their own findings within particular discipline domain because there are particular gaps between what is traditionally known and what is expected in the academic writing situation. This paper has been developed to help Iranian academic members, who are nonnative speakers of English, regularly find the writing of English paper a very challenging affair. On the other hand, candidates in this study are adults, fully occupied and workshops/overseas presentations have proved to be not enough effective instruments to shift them toward authentic writing, database-driven writing seems to work. Therefore, it seems databases for Iranian academicians in English for academic purposes should be developed to help individual academic members to know musts and musts not in their academic writing. These searchable databases must be designed in such a way that satisfies the constructivists' requirements for learner- autonomy and learner- orientation. Data elicited based on online interview and corpora analysis in form of CBDTS (corpus based descriptive translation studies) - on micro and macro levels, are put into matrices and their analyses are supportive of academicians' reliance on different types of mental translation use and their shift toward authentic writing after receiving feedback from searchable online databases.

KEYWORDS: Academic writing; CBDTS; Searchable online databases; Learner autonomy; Learner orientation

INTRODUCTION

Academic members are introduced with their papers and expertise in writing scholarly articles by accurate and effective language use. Due to the cultural and educational distance between native and nonnative writers, some researchers have suggested that there may be more differences than similarities between L1 and L2 writing (Grebe & Kaplan, 1996). Assuredly, Academic writing is an intricate activity that needs academicians have the declarative knowledge about how to organize different parts of paper writing and the procedural knowledge of how to follow the values and goals of community in order to communicate

information to a particular audience. This study is useful and valuable, because it intends to provide a chance for academic members to have consciously use databases, which lead them to reliable success and prestige in writing academic papers.

On the other hand, in spite of the great progress made through the second language writing model in previous studies; little attention has been paid to how make databases, which academicians use practically them during academic writing in second language. Therefore, by considering that the Iranian academicians aren't socially and culturally familiar with audience expectations, rhetorical patterns and genre in English academic writing necessitate this study, specifically by representative documented databases, to deal positively with the needs and concerns of non-native writers and to provide genre and discourse pattern for Iranian academic members. Within the framework of writing research, this study first of all has a survey on existing scholarly literature review, and for eliciting data, the researcher relies on two methods; the former is an online interview and the latter is corpora analysis. Qualitative Survey and online interview technique for data collection will be favored; corpora analysis will also be used to find the necessitate elements for second language writing for Iranian academicians. The researchers believe that new finding of this study will be appealed to board audience, particularly Iranian academic member for writing their papers in English language.

Designing these online databases is becoming increasingly significant because they can be accessible and intentionally have been designed to help Iranian academicians succeed in the writing scholarly tasks by giving needed and applicable information. Clearly, Iranian academicians don't enough time to search every beneficial guideline for writing an authentic academic paper. Therefore, designing available electronic databases to illustrate an approach how to write scientific paper for most multidiscipline Iranian academic members are required. In each case, these electronic databases will let Iranian academicians access available a list of tips, which are required to be considered, for writing an international scientific paper. These databases cause to speed up their work and allowing them to produce better quality research. Surely, academic writing has its perfect and rational body, which makes it model as a self-study and reference guide for academicians needing to work independently. Consequently, the researcher tries to reach a situation in which all kinds of information are freely available to every Iranian academic member, while dealing academic writing.

RESEARCH QUESTION

Are archived academic, stereotyped, cliché expressions effective and promoting means for academic members in their paper writing?

THEORETICAL AND METHODOLOGICAL ISSUES

In spite of basic similarities between L1 and L2 composing process, recent studies have disclosed that there are also important differences such as fundamental cognitive, linguistic, discourse, genre and audience related issues between L1 and L2 composing systems. Paying attention to the differences between first and second language writing, L2 learners compel themselves to match with the adoption of writing instruction to suit the special needs of L2 writing. Kroll argues that “we [still] have very little information on how people actually learn to write in second languages or how teaching might influence this” (Kroll, 2003, p.6). ESL teachers and SLA researchers have long been aware that ESL learners often have difficulties with academic writing in English (Lieber, 1980; Reid, 1989).

According to Raimes, “all of us who have tried to write something in a second language ... sense that the process of writing in an L2 is startlingly different from writing in our L1” (Raimes, 1985, p.93). Likewise, Aliakbari (2002) argued that L2 writing ability had no meaningful relationship with L1 writing. L2 writing ability and L1 writing ability were two separate tasks; that is, writing in L2 is a language-specific phenomenon, not a writing problem. These studies suggest that learners, especially those with inadequate proficiency in L2, rely on their L1 to achieve their goals and to solve any problems they encounter when composing in a new language. Thus, a major problem for these learners is how to overcome the negative effects of “transfer, or interference, of their L1 writing conventions in L2 writing” (Kubota, 1998, p.69).

Iranian academicians cannot usually express their own ideas and findings within a particular discipline domain because there are particular blanks between what is traditionally known and what is expected in the essay writing situation. Subsequently, they need to develop their knowledge about linguistic competence in terms of appropriate vocabulary and writing style and familiarity with the writing modes and skills required in the academic culture.

Kaplan (1966) contends that many students in ESL programs write texts which are significantly different from those written by native speakers of English. He notes that the writing problems, which L2 learners encounter, are not merely a byproduct of structural interference from their native languages; rather, they are result of transfer of rhetorical strategies and rhetorical patterns from their native cultures. Undoubtedly, culture affects the use of language in writing because each culture has its own patterns of discourse. L2 writer’s text is intuitively recognized from that of an L1 writer by native speakers because L2 writers are likely to convey their native schemata to L2 writing position and they present written ideas in different ways from native speakers. The link between rhetorical features and writers’ educational and cultural background can also be an important consideration in writing L2 papers because rhetorical features are culture-dependent.

Similarly, Kaplan (1966) asserts that differences in L2 writing might reflect different writing conventions that are learnt in L1 culture and may interfere with L2 writing. In contrast, some researchers (e.g., Cumming, 1989; Matsumoto, 1995) have claimed that L1/L2 writers may oscillate between the two languages whenever the need arises. L2 writers may bring their own sets of culturally and cognitively defined criteria to writing based on their L1 disciplinary, cultural and cognitive experiences internalized as different writing patterns.

Since, writers from different cultures present written ideas in different ways, L2 writer audience sense may be culturally different from L1 writers (Silva & Matsuda, 2001). In fact, the focus is on how a community defines writers and writing; how texts represent that community; how the community, its discourse, and disciplinary knowledge are constituted and reconstituted; and how participants in discursive practices form and are formed by these practices and the disciplinary and professional formations in which they participate (Kennedy, 1998).

In general, proficient L2 learners do not depend heavily on the L1 to drive the writing process because they have a sufficient level of L2 automaticity and knowledge to think and plan in the L2 (Jones & Tetroe, 1987). However, lower L2 proficiency writers rely more heavily on their L1 during the writing process in order to sustain the process and prevent a complete breakdown in language (Arndt, 1987; Cumming, 1989; Raimes, 1985; Uzawa & Cumming, 1989).

Concluded L2 writing research has indicated that L2 writers use their first language (L1) while writing in L2 (some researchers such as, Friedlander, 1990; Krapels, 1990; Uzawa, 1996; Woodall, 2002). Investigations have clearly shown that through organizing a text, L2 writers use their L1 strategies (Beare, 2000; Jones & Tetroe, 1987; Krapels, 1990; Uzawa & Cumming, 1989; Wang, 2003; Woodall, 2002), create ideas or expand text (Beare, 2000; Beare & Bourdages, 2007; Knutson, 2006; Krapels, 1990; Qi, 1998; Roca de Larios *et al.*, 1999; Uzawa & Cumming, 1989; Wang, 2003; Whalen and Me'nard, 1995; Woodall, 2002), or for overcoming linguistic problems such as vocabulary and grammar difficulties (Beare, 2000; Centeno-Corte's & Jime'nezJime'nez, 2004; Cumming, 1989; Jones & Tetroe, 1987; Lay, 1982; Wang, 2003; Woodall, 2002).

A translator must be aware of genre, since language features will often vary depending on which genre is being translated. Culture affects the use of language in many ways and contrastive rhetoric research has discovered that each culture has its own patterns of discourse. Therefore, L2 writers are likely to transfer their native schemata to L2 writing situations (Hyland, 2002). ESL teachers and SLA researchers have long been aware that ESL learners often have difficulties with academic writing in English (Lieber, 1980; Reid, 1989).

Therefore, these theoretical and methodological problems show that because L2 writers are likely to be less fluent, less accurate and be less effective writers than L1 writers, they transfer subconsciously writing conventions of their L1 into L2 writing when confront with difficulties in L2 writing. Subsequently, academic writers become aware of the rhetorical differences in discourse and genre through exposure to academic essays and receiving feedback from online databases.

RESEARCH METHOD

Introduction

Iranian academic writers usually know how to cope with specific writing format in their native language but when the demand of writing task changes in the English language, unfortunately they cannot cope with new situation because they do not have sufficient cognitive and metacognitive skills for new writing tasks.

Participants

The participants in this qualitative survey consisted of 30 Iranian academicians that were selected based on the index of their progressive presentations and publications to show their progress in academic paper writing, majored in Science and Engineering, from different disciplines, either from state or non-state funded Iranian universities; all have received their Ph.D. degree from Iranian Institutions. The number and level of their paper presentations are key factors in their selection. Possibility of their being connected to on-line system is another prominent factor in their participation to the study.

Instrument

To elicit reported strategy use from the target population, a 30 item semi-opened on-line interview, with five open-ended questions, in synchronous L1/L2 format was designed, including biographical questions, their attitudes toward English as well as questions concerning their use of communicative strategies.

On the other hand, because think-aloud writing study has limited generalizability, the other method as corpora analysis is used for documentation in this survey. The rationale behind using interview in this survey as one of the instrument is to help the researcher unmask the writers' requirements in terms of academic writing task (introspection) and pave the path to develop their own specific databases, e.g. archived End- note database format to avoid trial and error technique in future English academic paper writing.

Hence, corpora analysis was used as a second method in this survey, which is based on CBDTS (corpus based descriptive translation studies); in order to confirm the construct validity of the interview. For corpus analysis, parallel texts are needed for text analysis; therefore, academicians were asked to furnish us two papers: one was their first published paper in English and the other one was their latest published paper in English after learning new conventions of style, referencing and formation in second language through databases in order to provide an overall idea about their writing progress in the L2.

RESULTS

On-line interview, as it appears in the (Table: 1) was analyzed. The qualitative data were converted into numerical matrices and they were analyzed. The analysis proves that 93 % of the candidates did not have a clear understanding of writing academic papers in their first writing academic paper but 67% of them have learned the meaning of authentic writing in their latest writing academic paper. Results taken from corpora analysis confirm authentic writing for 69 % of the candidates through using online searchable databases for academic writing.

Table 1: The frequency and percentage of qualitative data from answered questionnaire. Each cell represents the number and percentage of people that have chosen the desired question.

	No idea	Perfectly disagree	disagree	agree	Perfectly agree		No idea	Perfectly disagree	disagree	agree	Perfectly agree
Q 1	1 3.3%	26 86.7%	2 6.7%	0 0.0%	1 3.3%	Q 5	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	3 10.0%	18 60.0%	9 30.0%
Q 2	0 0.0%	27 90%	2 6.7%	0 0.0%	1 3.3%	Q 6	3 10.0%	3 10.0%	10 33.3%	12 40.0%	2 6.7%
Q 3	0 0.0%	18 60.0%	3 10.0%	9 30.0%	11 36.7%	Q 7	3 10.0%	7 23.3%	7 23.3%	11 36.7%	2 6.7%
Q 4	0 0.0%	11 36.7%	15 50.0%	1 3.3%	3 10.0%	Q 8	3 10.0%	0 0.0%	2 6.7%	14 46.7%	11 36.7%
Q 5	0 0.0%	8 26.7%	18 60.0%	2 6.7%	2 6.7%	Q 9	2 6.7%	5 16.7%	6 20.0%	12 46.7%	5 16.7%
Q 6	0 0.0%	24 80.0%	5 16.7%	0 0.0%	1 3.3%	Q 10	4 13.3%	3 10.0%	6 20.0%	11 36.7%	6 20.0%
Q 7	0 0.0%	18 60.0%	7 23.3%	5 16.7%	0 0.0%	Q 11	3 10.0%	3 10.0%	9 30.0%	13 43.3%	2 6.7%
Q 8	0 0.0%	14 46.7%	4 13.3%	4 13.3%	8 26.7%	Q 12	3 10.0%	1 3.3%	4 13.3%	21 70.0%	1 3.3%
Q 9	0 0.0%	24 80.0%	5 16.7%	0 0.0%	1 3.3%	Q 13	4 13.3%	6 20.0%	10 33.3%	8 26.7%	2 6.7%
Q 10	0 0.0%	20 66.0%	6 20.0%	3 10.0%	1 3.3%	Q 14	2 6.7%	1 3.3%	1 3.3%	14 46.7%	12 40.0%
Q 11	0 0.0%	13 43.0%	13 43.0%	2 6.7%	2 6.7%	Q 15	1 3.3%	0 0.0%	2 6.7%	18 60.0%	9 30.0%
Q 12	0 0.0%	0 66.07%	2 6.70%	26 86.7%	2 6.70%	Q 16	1 3.3%	0 0.0%	1 3.3%	13 43.3%	15 50.0%
Q 13	1 33.3%	20 0.0%	4 0.0%	0 13.3%	5 63.3%	Q 17	3 10.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	15 50.0%	12 40.0%
Q 14	6 20.0%	0 0.0%	8 26.7%	10 33.3%	6 20.0%	Q 18	3 10.0%	0 0.0%	4 13.3%	16 53.3%	7 23.3%

^a Q1 to Q30 refers to question 1 to question 30 in online interview

Paired Samples Statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	mean1	2.8952	30	.43579	.07956
	mean2	3.9576	30	.42972	.07846

Mean 1: shows the questions in the questionnaire which easily reflected translation style used by academicians in their first writing academic paper

Mean 2: shows the questions in the questionnaire which related to authentic writing style used by academicians in their latest writing academic paper

Paired Samples Correlations

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	mean1 & mean2	30	.085	.653

The correlation between mean 1 and mean 2 is 0.85.

Based on paired samples test between mean 1 and mean 2 was done by degree of freedom=29 and p value= $0 < \alpha = 0.05$ showed that *proficient academicians have sooner shift to authentic writing.*

Paired Samples Test

	df	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		Sig. (2-tailed)	
					Lower	Upper		
					t			
mean1 - mean2	29	-1.06234	.58529	.10686	-1.28089	-.84379	-.9941	.000

DISCUSSION

Corpora analysis of the two parallel texts was done on the basis of CBDTS in two levels, micro level and macro level.

Micro level refers to surface structure of the text, in which elements such as grammar, vocabulary, punctuations and text, in general were focused.

Iranian academic members had low linguistic knowledge of L2 because they had experienced less implicit or explicit exposure to the target language. Accordingly, they have not enough experience for starting formal writing.

Grammar is checked to verify written text for grammatical correctness. Usually, grammar of each sentence will be checked in a text pursue using various rules, detecting various errors, such as agreement in tense, number and word order. Each word is checked and looked up in dictionaries, and then the attempt to parse the sentence into a form that matches a grammar was checked.

Punctuation marks are symbols that indicate the structure and organization of written language. To become a sound and a successful writer, using proper punctuation is necessary. Without putting punctuation marks, documents can easily become misread and incomprehensible. Unfortunately, for many Iranian academicians, putting proper punctuation mark in the text is a difficult task.

Cohesion is the grammatical and lexical relationship within a text or sentence. Cohesion causes a link among linguistic elements to make a text semantically coherent together. Low skilled academic writers express their own opinion alone in words without the ability to relate their thought to the main idea and with noted facts.

Macro level of CBDTS refers to deep structure of text such as style, genre, texture, utterance meaning and discourse analysis. Style refers to how to structure what you want to say. When you are writing an academic essay, it requires a reasonably formal style of writing. This does not mean that you use long sentences with multisyllabic, obscure and colloquial words for expressing your new idea and findings. As matter of fact, style of writing scientific papers is different from literary essays; i. e. in academic essay, the writer expresses his/ her main idea firstly and then a series of details are added to support the main idea. Its logical progress will be covered just to support the main idea, but the style of literary essays is exactly the reverse.

Non-native speakers may need explicit instruction of what is socially and culturally appropriate in terms of the writers' roles, audience expectations, rhetorical patterns, stylistic conventions and contextual features in L2 written discourse (Silva & Matsuda, 2001; Leki, 1992).

Firstly, with regard to the Table 2, Iranian academicians undoubtedly made errors at the sentence level, which refers to grammar and sentence structure, (articles, modifiers, wordiness, passive voice use, conjunctions, nouns, incorrect use of numbers, incorrect use of prepositions, pronoun agreement, use of adjectives and adverbs, comparing two or more things, faulty parallelism, incorrect use of negatives, use of qualifiers and quantifiers, subject and verb agreement, verb agreement, verb form use, modal verbs and conditional sentences.), that were expected to overcome these grammatical and sentence structure errors by themselves as soon as possible. Poor grammar will undermine the writer credibility more swiftly than any other

single problem because readers become frustrated and prevent them from gleaning desired information.

Table 2: Frequent Errors at the Sentence Level by Iranian Academic Members

The number of eggs were estimated by Peters' chamber and adjusted to 100 eggs per ml.	The number of eggs was estimated by Peters' chamber and adjusted to 100 eggs per ml. (Explanation)
The recent spread different kinds of diabetes is often thought to be the result of a lack of exercise and eating the wrong food.	The recent spread different kinds of diabetes are often thought to be the result of a lack of exercise and eating the wrong food. (Explanation)
Take a saturday night's drinking: at midnight you may have 200 mgs per 100 mls of blood in your system.	Take a saturday night's drinking: at midnight you may have 200 mg per 100 mL of blood in your system. (Explanation)
Applications of different isolates were approximately between 16 to 77% fewer in soil treated with the fungus than in untreated soil.	Applications of different isolates were approximately between 16 to 77% fewer in soil treated with the fungus than in untreated soil.(Explanation)
Criterion , which do not meet agreed, are stopped, in favor of others with higher possibilities of success.	Criteria , which do not meet agreed, are stopped, in favor of others with higher possibilities of success.(Explanation)
Data suggests the effect of all extracts on inhibition of egg hatching persisted even after the egg masses were transferred into distilled water (Table 4).	Data suggest the effect of all extracts on inhibition of egg hatching persisted even after the egg masses were transferred into distilled water (Table 4).(Explanation)
They must also evaluated against different species of Meloidogyne and other economically important genus like Heterodera and Globodera.	They must also be evaluated against different species of Meloidogyne and other economically important genus such as Heterodera and Globodera.(Explanation)
The leaf extract of Olea europaea had the lowest level of inhibition on hatch of nematode eggs (14 and 16% after 24 hr and 72 hr, respectively).	The leaf extract of Olea europaea had the lowest level of inhibition to hatch of nematode eggs (14 and 16% after 24 hr and 72 hr, respectively).(Explanation)
IRAN 1119 C and IRAN 1129 were another two best isolate (isolates) for reduction in multiplication rates of nematode.	IRAN 1119 C and IRAN 1129 were other two best isolate (isolates) for reduction in multiplication rates of nematode.(Explanation)
This report is an overview of the processes involved, the problems encountered, and how they were solved .	This report is an overview of the processes involved, the problems encountered, and the solutions devised .(Explanation)

Secondly, Likewise as show in Table.3, punctuation, act of placing punctuation marks (such as !, ?, ", etc.) within text in order to divide or clarify text, is not major academic problems. Surely, this weakness will be disappeared through reading more scientific notes and more writing performances.

Incorrect sentences	Correct sentences
However other products appear to require personal inspection and approval and in addition many people enjoy the activity of shopping, so, it seems unlikely that the internet will completely replace the shopping center.	Other products however , appear to require personal inspection and approval, and in addition many people enjoy the activity of shopping, so it seems unlikely that the internet will completely replace the shopping center.(Explanation)

The economy is strong but there are frequent strikes.	The economy is strong, but/ yet there are frequent strikes. (Explanation)
For instance a few inventions, television, have had a major impact on everyday life	A few inventions, for instance television, have had a major impact on everyday life. (Explanation)
Certain Masters courses especially American ones take two years.	Certain Masters courses, especially American ones, take two years. (Explanation)
Four hundred people were interviewed for the survey then the results were analyzed.	Four hundred people were interviewed for the survey, then the results were analyzed. (Explanation)

Genre

Genre (sometimes called text genre) refers to a distinctive type of discourse. It is best defined as a set of patterns/forms/styles/structures, which transcend individual films besides texts, and which supervise both their construction by the film-maker plus their reading/viewing by an audience. They are also part of the "frames of recognition", which govern the institutional production, marketing and distribution of texts, besides the selection as well as consumption of those texts by viewers or readers.

Some [common genres](#) in languages of the world are

- Narrative (recounts events)
- Hortatory (suggests or commands actions)
- Expository (explains or argues)
- Procedural (details how to do something)

A translator must be aware of genre, since language features will often vary depending on which genre is being translated. Culture affects the use of language in many ways and contrastive rhetoric research has discovered that each culture has its own patterns of discourse. Therefore, L2 students are likely to transfer their native schemata to L2 writing situations (Hyland, 2002).

L2 writing tends to be a more laborious process for most non-native students with more attention paid to sentence construction and less to generating ideas, planning and goal setting (Wang and Weng, 2002). Since, writers from different cultures present written ideas in different ways, the L2 writer audience sense may be culturally different from L1 writer (Silva & Matsuda, 2001).

A second language academic writer must be aware of specific genre (patterns/forms/styles/structures) relating to text who wants to write. Unfortunately, many academicians without considering genre, which is confined to that specific essay, write down on paper what comes to their mind with translation through their first writing paper. Subsequently, Iranian academic members become aware of the rhetorical differences in discourse and genre through exposure to academic essays and receiving feedback from online searchable databases.

Style

There are no rules for academic style that apply to all situations. The following styles (Table.4) are guidelines that should help academicians develop style of their own writing.

TABLE 4: Standard Styles for Writing Academic Papers

Incorrect	Correct
Avoid using two-word verbs such as go on or bring up.	Use continue or rise.
Avoid using etc. or and so on.	Insert and before the last item
Do not use question forms such as Why did war break out in 1914?	use statements: There were three reasons for the outbreak of war . . .
Good / bad are simplistic.	Use positive / negative
Do not use “I think” in your article writing	It is too personal
Do not use “are ok” in your article writing	It is too informal
Do not use “When we think about this”	It is too personal
Do not use idiomatic or colloquial vocabulary: kids, boss.	Instead use standard English: children, manager.
Be as precise as possible when dealing with facts or figures. Avoid phrases such as about a hundred or hundreds of years ago.	If it is necessary to estimate numbers use approximately rather than about.
Conclusions should use tentative language. Avoid absolute statements such as unemployment causes crime.	Instead use cautious phrases: unemployment may cause crime or tends to cause crime.
Do not contract verb forms: don’t, can’t.	Use the full form: Do not, cannot.
Avoid use of like for introducing examples.	Use such as or for instance .
Avoid use of thing and combinations nothing or something.	Use factor, issue or topic.
Avoid use of lots of.	Use a significant / considerable number.
Avoid use of little / big.	Use small / large.
Avoid use of ‘get’ phrases such as get better / worse.	Use improve /deteriorate.
Do not use of good / bad.	Use positive / negative, e.g. the changes had several positive aspects.
When writing lists, avoid using etc. or and so on.	Insert and before the last item
Do not use of past tense for expressing facts and hypotheses.	Use of present tense for known facts and hypotheses.
Do not use of first person pronounce.	Use of third person instead of first person
Avoid express your result in past tense.	Results description in your paper should be expressed in present tense because your results are not yet accepted as “facts”

CONCLUSION

In fact, neglecting the Iranian academician’s needs to publish in international publications for academic audiences without accurate and effective language use is not desirable. This survey indicates that Iranian academicians greatly got more writing feedback from online databases than alternative feedbacks, such as oral presentations, workshops and editors’ feedback. Oral presentations in conferences do not provide opportunities for face-to-face Iranian academic writers’ individually attention and discuss their writing problems and needs. By comparing the first written essay with the latest written essay by Iranian academicians after learning new conventions of style, formation and the other aspects of second language writing paper through designed online databases, they positively and clearly use all valuable comments for their writing developments.

One of the most efficiency of designing searchable database in this study is that the researcher of this study mostly focuses on repeatedly errors, which are mainly seen in the Iranian academicians' papers, in order to lead and encourage Iranian academic members to authentic writing papers. It is important to claim that most of feedbacks on second language writing in the previous studies were dedicated to limited time that causes to reduce lexical and grammatical errors in following writing. Therefore, one of the highly significant factor in this research study is that online searchable databases, which demonstrate information in order to choose the appropriate language and style, make a reference for every Iranian academic member to improve his/her academic writing for long-term period.

The other significant factor in this research is that it encourages Iranian academicians to receive constructivism instructions through their second language academic writing. Thus, when Iranian academicians directly use online/off line writing databases cause to save themselves from destructive effect of critical comments and suggestions. However, these searchable online databases lead indirectly Iranian academicians to learner-autonomy and learner-orientation to develop both manuscript and their writing abilities.

Online databases make Iranian academic members a chance to respond to the diverse cultural and educational backgrounds, and their writing needs by clarifying examples for resolving ambiguities in detailed explanations marking of papers by saving their time. In fact, searchable databases give Iranian academic members clear idea of their strengths and weaknesses in order to push them to autonomy on the base of written feedbacks.

Databases can not only lead to revisions in subsequent drafts but also have lasting effects on improving writing in later assignments.

Through the use of questionnaire and the think-aloud protocol in this study as first instrument, which is based on self-reporting because respondents cannot imagine the full context of situation therefore, they may read differently into each question and reply based on their own interpretation, it may have limited the enough information on writers' source use accurately or confidently when they are engaged in writing. Consequently, the researchers confronted with limited reliable and valid results from questionnaire.

The design of this study is process-oriented academic writing through using designed online searchable databases and few studies have been done on a process- orientation basis in writing academic writing subsequently, any study in this field is valuable to increase the reliability and viability of this research.

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CRITICAL READING AMONG COLLEGE STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT

Critical reading is an important component of developing literacy. It is commonly described as involving higher order thinking skills. The challenge for instructors is to activate students' awareness of this skill. Critical reading plays a central role in university study, yet how to develop this skill is not often discussed. Problems arise when adult learners are confronted with testing situations that require specific responses to text. The purpose of this study is to help you develop the skills to read, think and write more critically. The procedure involved several interventions: 1) reviewing current research on metacognition, critical thinking, and critical reading; 2) probing student awareness of critical thinking by a questionnaire; 3) adjusting teaching strategies to address the needs for critical reading skills. Results of pre- and post-questionnaires, analysis of quiz and tests, and a review of written reflections by students and instructor reveal learners' awareness and application of higher level critical thinking and critical reading skills. This research project was beneficial to both students and instructor in several areas; activating prior knowledge of critical thinking, reviewing of major aspects of critical reading, and increased focus on text structure and test question- and-answer relationships.

KEY WORDS: critical thinking, critical reading, metacognition

INTRODUCTION

Critical thinking is also claimed to be important in the acquisition of language skills particularly writing and reading (Moore et.al, 2003). Two indispensable language skills that can help undergraduates secure, their academic success. However, studies on the relationship between critical thinking and these two language skills, especially those which use second language learners as the sample are still not sufficient. Similarly, there are not many studies conducted on the relationship of the aforementioned construct with general language proficiency. Research on critical thinking in relation to second language learning is still in its infancy stage. Scholars such as Carpenter & Johnson (2001) and Gordon (2004) consider critical thinking as a form of western cultural thinking and they hold the view that Asians students are not able to think critically because such nature of thinking is a form of cultural thinking that is alien to Asians. Nevertheless, two studies carried out on Japanese students Lipson & Wixon (1991) produced results which are able to refute the claim that Asians are deficient in critical thinking skills. The findings of the studies did not only show that Japanese students had critical thoughts but also indicated that critical skills could be taught to these students in an English language class. However, more researches need to be conducted in other Asian contexts. The importance placed on the need for university students to be critical in thinking and proficient in English is partly attributed to the problem of high unemployment rate in many countries. Several studies done to

determine the causes of high unemployment rate produced findings which indicate that competency in critical thinking and English language are among the abilities highly sought after by employers. A study involving 2,274 graduates who graduated in 2001, Meyers (2000) revealed communication skills as one of the main skills needed by the graduates to secure a job; i.e., most of the unemployed graduates in the study were found to have low proficiency in English. Another study on 241 employers' view on requirements sought in the graduates, Kurland (2000) confirms the finding of the former study indicating communication skills, particularly English communication skills, as one of the main six competencies required of the graduates; in addition, thinking skills were also rated to be important competencies by the employers who were interviewed. Similar results were found in a survey study on the perceptions of fifteen human resource personnel of national and multi-national organization in Malaysia. Weiner & Bazerman (2002) Proficiency in English was a quality that the personnel sought after when hiring new employees and was perceived to be an important contributing factor to an individual's success in the related organizations. These studies have raised awareness among many relevant parties on the crucial need to improve the standard of English and thinking skills among undergraduates to enable them secure a job upon completing their studies at the university. Critical thinking ability has been identified as one of the constructs which has been proven to be a good predictor of academic performance (Barnes, 1992). Hence, it is important for relevant university authorities to be informed of the critical thinking ability level of their undergraduates. To non-critical readers, text provides facts. Readers gain knowledge by memorizing the statements within the text. Critical readers thus recognize not only what a text says, but also how that text portrays the subject matter. They recognize the various ways in which each and every text is the unique creation of a unique author. A non-critical reader might read a history book to learn the facts of the situation or to discover an accepted interpretation of those events. A critical reader might read the same work to appreciate how a particular perspective on the events and a particular selection of facts can lead to particular understanding.

GOALS OF CRITICAL READING

Text books on critical reading ask students to accomplish certain goals:

1) to recognize an author's purpose, 2) to understand tone and persuasive elements, 3) to recognize bias. Notice that none of these goals actually refers to something on the page. Each requires inferences from evidence within the text. Critical reading is not simply close and careful reading. To read critically, one must actively recognize and analyze evidence upon the page.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

How can a teacher more effectively teach critical reading skills? What strategies can a teacher implement to increase students' critical reading skills? How much practice in simulated tests do students need to increase their critical reading skills, so they can pass a standardized reading comprehension test at the end of a developmental reading course? The problem is that students did not make accurate judgments on the questions that were given in the reading comprehension test. This was especially difficult for adult learners who had not been in school for awhile, and who function on the literacy level of a junior high school student. The students need the knowledge of specific reading comprehension strategies.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

With regard to what has been presented above, the present research will address five major questions:

1) Is there any relationship between text structure and critical reading?

- 2) Is there any relationship between learners' knowledge of selected vocabulary, key ideas in sentences, paragraph patterns and critical reading?
- 3) Is there any relationship between the comprehension of denotation, connotation, the meaning of the text and critical reading?
- 4) Is there any relationship between stated or implied ideas, ordering of ideas, questions about a paragraph and critical reading?
- 5) Do learners benefit their metacognition in critical reading?
- 6) Do learners feel they had improved their critical reading?

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Students benefit from critical reading skills because it increases their abilities to respond to, evaluate, and remember text. The students benefit from a modeled step-by-step process of critical reading. Both students and instructor benefit from synthesizing, organizing, and interpreting ideas as presented in well-written texts on a variety of subjects. By responding to a questionnaire, students benefit by thinking critically and clarifying their perceptions. The instructor benefits by creating better analogies that address the students' diverse learning styles. Students also benefit by a review of the rudimentary terms of instruction; story grammar, expository text structure, metacognition, figurative language, controlled inference, assumption, deduction, and interpretation. The ultimate benefit is efficiency in reading and how to pull out of the material what you need.

METHODOLOGY

Participants

The participants of this study ranged from 20 to 25 year-old students selected randomly from 25 female students studying English as a foreign language (EFL) where the researcher is an instructor of a General English course. They were in the second year when learners exposed to a kind of learning to develop their critical thinking. A Nelson test was administered to the students to select and homogenize the intended number of students for the study. Next, 16 students, whose scores were between one standard deviation above and one standard deviation below the mean in Nelson test, were selected to answer these tests, questionnaire, quizzes and learning logs. Cooperative learning groups were randomly formed and remained stable until the end of the research project. In groups, they could discuss their thinking and answers to reading selections from reading textbook. Learners discussed their responses in their cooperative learning groups. They listened to the reasons their fellow students chose other answers, argued, re-examined the text. The focus was on arriving at the best answers to the questions, but the learning groups prompted the students to appreciate the diversity in thinking that was evidenced by their answers.

Instruments

1) A Nelson test Dadkhah (2002). It consisted of 40 multiple-choice items on grammar and vocabulary to estimate the proficiency level of the learners. The validity of the test was established by consulting with three experts. Its reliability was measured via cronbach's alpha that was 0.75.

- 2) The nine reading passages that are from one to three paragraphs long on diverse topics and dense with information. Three to five questions follow each passage and test readers' ability to discern main ideas, sentence relationships, conclusions, point of view, author's tone, and controlled inference.
- 3) Pre -questionnaire distinguish among the various expository text structures; enumeration/description, chronological order, comparison/contrast, and cause/effect. Students answered that they could identify relationships among main ideas and details.
- 4) A Quiz that followed several classes where learners discussed main ideas, significant details, sentence relationships and paragraph patterns.
- 5) Test 1 focused on denotation and connotation of words in sentences. Critical reading questions related to a short reading passage and a longer essay on how news is reported.
- 6) Test 2 focused on stated or implied ideas in paragraphs, key ideas in sentences, ordering of ideas in sentences, questions regarding a paragraph on classification, and critical reading questions related to an essay.
- 7) Learning Logs that is about seven students wrote responses to critical reading assignments. This seemed to benefit their metacognition because they extended the reading topic by relating to it personally.
- 8) Post- Questionnaire that is used at the end of Test 2, students responded to questions related to how they felt they had improved their critical reading.

Procedure

Data were collected through the following stages: At first, the participants of this study selected randomly from 25 female students studying English as a foreign language. Then, via the administration of the Nelson test, 16 students were selected as the participants of the study. Also, the procedure involved several interventions. All interventions focused on critical thinking and critical reading skills. The first one involved explaining the problem to the students. The researcher discussed critical thinking/critical reading skills; how they related to daily situations, testing situations, and college course reading requirements. The second intervention was a questionnaire that helped to focus the role of critical thinking in their daily lives. The third one was metacognitive modeling by the instructor using reading comprehension test passages and other text. Carmen (1994) calls this process *thinking aloud*, and by using specific reading passages with questions the instructor can detect sentence relationships and model analytical processes involved in comprehension.

RESULTS OF PRE- QUESTIONNAIRE

The students generally expressed great confidence in their knowledge of text structure. Most answered that they could sometimes distinguish among the various expository text structures; enumeration/description, chronological order, comparison/contrast, and cause/effect. Students answered that they could identify relationships among main ideas and details nearly all of the time; only a few answered that they did not need clarification on this aspect. But most of the students answered that they needed clarification of the elements of grammar and examples that demonstrated the differences between narrative and expository text. The students appeared to be confident and knowledgeable about text structure, yet they needed support and review of the terms of instruction with examples of sophisticated text generally regarded as at college level. Students answered six questions related to metacognition; purpose for reading,

self-questioning, monitoring comprehension, use of strategies, and constructing meaning. Most students answered that they were generally aware of the purpose of their reading and consciously adjusted their speed and attention to suit the task. The students answered less confidently about the process of continual self-questioning to help determine if they were following the author's message, yet most answered that they understood what they were reading and stopped when they did not understand. Most students felt they could recognize statements of fact and opinion and about half answered that they sought answers for their questions when reading difficult text. Two students responded that they needed clarification of these terms and strategies. Students responded with less confidence to the ideas regarding their critical reading skills. The majority of students answered that they sometimes could detect source credibility, author's mood, and techniques. Many answered that they did not know how to establish evaluation criteria before making judgments about information they read.

RESULTS OF QUIZ

Quiz followed several classes where learners discussed main ideas, significant details, and detected sentence relationships and paragraph patterns. Students had by then read several selections and answered critical comprehension questions. Also, the researcher had modeled critical reading comprehension test passages and reasoned the process of understanding question-and-answer relationships. Quiz tested their knowledge of selected vocabulary, key ideas in sentences, and paragraph patterns. An analysis of their scores revealed fourteen of the sixteen students passed with 78% or higher. An analysis of responses revealed errors in vocabulary comprehension as well as in detecting key ideas in sentences. Almost all students scored well on recognizing paragraph patterns. The students were required to outline a paragraph on a given topic according to their choice of a) chronology, b) place order, c) order of importance, d) listing of details, e) classification, f) comparison and contrast, or g) cause and effect. Then they wrote out the paragraph according to the outline. Two students were on the edge of failing; they claimed they did not know there would be a quiz and therefore hadn't studied.

COMPARISON OF TEST 1 AND TEST 2

Test 1 focused on denotation and connotation of words in sentences, a related section on the shades of meaning, and critical reading questions related to a short reading passage and a longer essay on how news is reported. Test 1 was given three weeks after the treatment. Eleven out of sixteen students achieved 80% or better and two students failed. Test 2 focused on stated or implied ideas in paragraphs, key ideas in sentences, ordering of ideas in sentences, questions regarding a paragraph on classification, and critical reading questions related to an essay on auto sales practices. Test 2 was given six weeks into this research, and three weeks after Test 1. Eight out of sixteen students had improved their scores. Of those, the most dramatic improvement came from two students who had consistently written in their learning logs in response to critical reading prompts in class. In addition, they had received help through the researcher. But there was not a marked improvement in everyone's scores.

LEARNING LOGS

About seven students wrote responses to critical reading assignments. This seemed to benefit their metacognition because they extended the reading topic by relating to it personally. Also they clarified their thinking by writing, and reinforced the meaning of what they had read. Because many of students were also workers and the lack of time were the reasons cited for not writing in the learning logs.

RESULTS OF POST- QUESTIONNAIRE

At the end of Test 2, students responded to questions related to how they felt they had improved their critical reading. All of the sixteen students answered that they felt they had improved their understanding of critical reading. Two students remarked that they had never read critically before this course. One attributed her increase in comprehension to the vocabulary development. Another wrote that he had always read critically and that the strategies discussed in class helped his reading. Six students felt a slight improvement, and expressed the need for more practice in getting main ideas, concentration, retention of material, and distinguishing fact from opinion.

CONCLUSION

The findings of the present study imply that more work needs to be done towards upgrading the standard of English language and critical thinking ability. The observed facts showed that the undergraduates did not have critical thinking ability level. So, further inquiry needs to be made regarding the low percentage of students who pass the test of reading comprehension. Increased communication with other instructors is recommended, and structured opportunities to share ideas about teaching strategies and critical reading materials would be helpful. Finally, the students had developed a tension concerning the subjective and objective elements of their critical reading. This was revealed by their answers to questions that were in some cases clearly ambiguous. It is important for instructors to recognize the subjective beliefs, values, and emotions behind learners' arguments. An atmosphere of anxiety, disequilibrium, and even discomfort is to be expected, and perhaps encouraged, because the process of developing critical reading mental structures will eventually challenge old ways of thinking and lead to an acceptance of new perspectives. Also, Ministry of Higher Education to upgrade the standard of English at the university, include critical thinking in the curriculum and promote assessments with emphasis on higher order thinking. At present, due to insufficient amount of empirical evidence, the general critical thinking ability of undergraduates is still not that transparent. Relevant information on the matter will help the university authority to both improve the academic performance of the students and better prepare them for future work.

LIMITATION OF THE STUDY AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

No study is complete by itself and cannot take every detail into consideration. Therefore, there are always aspects which are not accounted for. This research is no exception. There are some issues which were not controlled in this study and can be topics for further research by other researchers.

- 1) This study was done only in one city with a limited number of students. It is suggested that another study be performed with large numbers of students from more cities.
- 2) In this study only female students were questioned. Some other studies can be performed on both genders.

3) In this study, the participants were adolescents; in other studies adult language learners can be the focus of attention to see whether the same results will be obtained.

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THE EFFECT OF PRE-TASK PLANNING THROUGH SPLIT-INFO AND BRAINSTORMING ON LEARNING AND RECALL OF LEXICAL ITEMS BY IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS

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ABSTRACT

In recent years, research on the role of pre-task planning and its effect on vocabulary performance of learners has grown galore. In the same line, this study examined the effect of employing pre-task planning through split information and brainstorming activities on learning vocabulary of intermediate Iranian learners of English. To this end, six intact classes (N=42) were selected: Four experimental groups and 2 control groups. Oxford Solution Test scores revealed the homogeneity of learners. During 4 sessions of instruction, two classes practiced the vocabulary items through split information activity as pre-task planning; the other two classes worked on words through brainstorming; and the control groups learned the words through a traditional method of instruction without any pre-task planning. The results of *t-tests* indicated pre-task planning through split information and brainstorming activities enhanced vocabulary learning of the experimental groups; moreover, the experimental groups outperformed in vocabulary learning compared to vocabulary recall. According to the results of One-way *ANOVA*, although there was no significant difference between the experimental groups, a significant difference was observed between the experimental groups and the control groups in vocabulary learning and recall. Implications are for teachers, students, and materials developers.

KEY WORDS: Brainstorming; pre-task planning; split information; task; vocabulary learning

INTRODUCTION

Vocabularies are foundation of each language; language is our basic tool for transferring messages. Importance of vocabulary can be seen from the researches that have been recently done. As the practitioners, we have to know the best ways of approaching teaching vocabulary, strengths and weaknesses of methods to be dominating in their application and to be effective in our purpose. Since, acquiring vocabulary through traditional method is a very problematic and difficult process, the most of language teachers and learners want to know which method or activity is more beneficial.

Lewis (1993) for the first time proposed the lexical approach and argued the lexis as the basis of language and necessary part of effective communication. He based this approach on grammaticalized lexis, not lexicalized grammar. He also states that the mastery of lexical relations is the key element of successful native-like performance in a foreign language.

Nation (1980) describes two strategies for learners to deal with new vocabulary. The first is learning words in a list and the second is approaching words using context clues. He also states that once learners know about three thousand words they can use the second strategy. By this point, he restricts the second approach (using context clue for learning vocabulary) to the more advanced learners.

Step by step, the trend of teaching and learning language slowly moved toward task- based approach. A quick literature review shows that task- based learning (TBL) has become a noticeable approach in the last decade. In a TBL context, students are free of language control and natural context is developed. Also, there are much more exposure to language and language arises from learner's need that is very enjoyable and motivating in the way of being learner-centered. According to Bowen (2012), the main advantage of TBL is using language for communication purpose and its main aim is to integrate all four skills and to move from fluency to accuracy; whereas, the main aim of traditional model is to move from accuracy to fluency.

Oxford (2006) introduced many types of well known tasks including problem-solving, decision – making, opinion gap, picture stories, and etc, which are employed in different situations to different purposes for activating different skills. The outstanding factor to designing of a task is making decision about its difficulty level. Ellis (2003) suggests that teacher can adjust the difficulty of a task by incorporating a pre-task and ensure that students have necessary abilities and strategies to engage in that task. According to this fact, the wide range of available activities are restricted to split information and brainstorming in this study.

Newton (1993) investigated superiority of communication tasks such as split information over shared information on the basis of how much negotiation of meaning in each type of task is available. Qualitative analyze of negotiations in Newton's study (1993) shown split information produce more negotiation than shared information task. However, qualitative analysis of negotiation suggested that more negotiation does not necessarily provide superior condition for language development. Also, the result of Yuan and Ellis (2003) study on pre-task and on-line task planning show that pre-task planning has positive influence on grammatical complexity. Their results shown that pre-task planner produce more fluent and lexical varied language than on-line planner. Newton (2001) suggests that dealing with new words during task performance by negotiation results not only rich language achievement, but longer retention.

Keating (2012) states that as Laufer and Hulstijn (2001) proposed, word learning and retention in a second language are contingent upon the amount of need, search and evaluation, in short, task's involvement that is impose. de la Fuente (2006) also states that different pedagogical (traditional vs. task-based) has no impact on immediate retrieval of learning vocabulary, but it has an impact on long term retrieval. In this respect, task-based lesson seemed to be more effective than traditional approach.

One of the noticeable theories in task-based teaching is that of Foster and Skehan (1996). They state that pre, mid and post task activities can help learners pay a balanced attention to both form and meaning and improve their learning. Since planning in pre-task stage is one of the task condition factors that largely affect second language production, there have been plenty of studies

that have focused on the interaction of planning and task performance (Ellis,1987; Foster & Skehan, 1996 ; Robinson, 1995; Yuan & Ellis, 2003). Although, these studies mostly concern oral task performance, still more researches are needed to explore its other areas.

In this study, focus is on examination of effect of pre-task planning through split information and brainstorming on vocabulary learning and recall of EFL learners. According to the some studies empirical task-based implementations show strong effect on learning language and task is an effective way of conceptualizing and learning (e.g. Ellis,1987; Foster & Skehan 1996). Even though, the researches to date provides general support to the claim that pre-task planning impacts positively on language production, especially in the case of fluency and complexity (Housen & kuiken 2009), the case of this design has not been touched before.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

In this study, it has been tried to find answer to some questions that have been raised about the already mentioned pre-task planning methods (brainstorming and split information activity) and its effect on learning and recall of vocabulary which is rarely investigated before. In this means, answer to the follow research questions is the main concern of this study:

- 1-Does pre-task planning through split-info activity have any effect on learning vocabulary of the Iranian EFL learners?
2. Does pre-task planning through brainstorming have any effect on learning vocabulary of the Iranian EFL learners?
3. Do different types of pre-task planning activities have any effect on long-term recall of the EFL learners?

To be shortened, this study is focused on the possible effect of pre-task planning with split information and brainstorming on learning and recall of vocabulary. Actually, comparison between these methods and traditional one in a similar context with the variables under the control can throw the light on the issue and the questions which are under investigation.

METHODOLOGY

Research design

The study employed a quasi-experimental design. The main purpose of the study was to examine the effect of independent variables on participants learning vocabulary. Another purpose of study was to investigate delay effects of mentioned strategies and to do more exact judgments for pedagogical purposes. Independent variables were pre-task planning through split information and brainstorming while dependent variable was learning vocabularies. There were 6 classes involved in the research, 4 of which belonged to the experimental group and 2 belonging to the control group. All classes were in intermediate level on the basis of test of proficiency at the beginning of term.

Participants

Total number of participants was 42 Iranian English as a foreign language (EFL) learners (all female between 14-26 years old in Tehran's Shokoh and Simin institutes). The selection of 6 classes was based on intact group selection, and to make sure of the homogeneity of the learners a version of Oxford Solution Test was administered by the institutes at the beginning of the new term. All the participants were in intermediate level according to the proficiency test. Six

participants were in class A and 8 in class B. with mean age of 19.53 and age SD of 3.94. These two classes were assigned to the split information group. There were 7 and 8 people orderly in Class C and D. With mean age of 17.84 and age SD of 4.14; they were assigned to the brainstorming group. Six participants were in class E and 7 in class F. These two classes randomly were assigned to the control group. Mean age of control group was 17.85 and their age SD was 4.46.

Material

Teaching material:

The intermediate *Oxford Word Skill* book written by Gairns and Redman (2008) was used as teaching vocabulary material. Since the mentioned book was the common and necessary supplementary teaching material in Shokuh institutes, instructors preferred to utilize it. Target vocabularies were 100 words from 4 topics of this book. Selected units were 5, 19, 21 and 23 in which new words were introduced in the context of short readings plus a glossary section. Following each unit, there were at least 3 exercises in different styles requiring blank spaces to be filled in: true or false, spelling, and writing.

Unit 5 encompassed the two sub-topics of discussing both male and female appearance. Unit 19 included four sub-topics of talk about before, during, after sleep and sleep habits. Unit 21 involved sub-topics of car parts and driving tips. Unit 23 encompassed talking about fashion with two sub-topics of cloths and fashion. Material in pre-task planning sessions for split information groups was made up of 2 pictures and their related word/definition on separate papers.

Testing material:

An Oxford Solutions Placement Test in the form of 50 multiple choice questions was used to assess the knowledge of grammar, vocabulary of participants, and homogeneity of prior knowledge in the classes which were selected to be involved in the study. In addition to the proficiency test, there were 3 sets of thirty-item multiple choices tests as pre-test, post-test, and delay test. Calculated reliabilities for pre-test were about 0.53. The reliability of post test and delay test were 0.69 and 0.65 respectively.

Procedure

At the beginning of the term and a week after conducting the pre-test, instructors had started to apply the methodology. Participants in all groups had received 4 sessions of 40 minutes. Four topics and 100 words were already determined as material and each topic was covered in a session with a week interval from the next one. Control groups received no treatment (pre-task planning) with the same time as the experimental groups.

For experimental groups, around ten minutes of each session were allocated to pre-task planning and 2 to 3 minutes before starting new topic were spent reviewing of last session vocabularies. There was not any pre-task planning in the control groups; they just did the task. Instructors first introduced related topic to act upon it in pre-task. In the remaining time, participants conducted the main tasks which were actually reading, glossary section, and answer to follow up exercises.

At the end of session answers were checked with classes. For keeping the condition unify and preventing halo effect, the same instructor was employed for classes with the same method.

Pre-task planning through split information activity

In all split information sessions, participants worked in pair and materials were divided into two parts: words plus definitions (word/definition) and pictures. Common characteristic of this planning was division of materials. It means each student received just a part of materials. In other words, half of the words/definitions and pictures were put in charge of one and the rest was put in charge of the partner. They had to take turn for asking their partner for the information they did not have. The pace in all split information planning sessions was the same: students were asked to interact for exchange of idea just in English and in certain time line (7 minutes for first subtopic and another 7 minutes for other subtopic).

Pre-task planning through brainstorming activity

There was an outline in all brainstorming sessions. Students sat on their seats which had been put around a table. Before beginning, instructor explained to them about the challenge they were due to face. To start the session, the topic was introduced and sub topics were made and written on board with students' participation. After introducing and categorizing, each student was given an index card. Participants were told that they had around a minute to record their ideas on an index cards and then had to pass it to the person on their left and continue until all the cards were written on.

The instructor asked students to write their ideas on each subtopic just in English. In the case that they didn't know the word and couldn't write an explanation instead, they were allowed to insert their word in Persian. Each session also had a certain time line that was told to the participants before beginning. There was, for example, just a minute for each index card and totally 8 minutes for all, depending on the number of participants and subtopics.

Traditional method

As with the other two previous methods, in traditional method there were 4 sessions and in each session one of the topics was covered. The primary difference between this and two previous methods was the absence of pre-task planning. The students were asked in the first session to study the reading section and related glossary from their book and then do the following exercise. At the end, the answers were checked with the class. At the beginning of each session, about three minutes were allocated to reviewing the vocabularies of the last session. All of 4 task topics in split information and brainstorming methods were covered with the same pace.

RESULTS

Statistical analysis

To test the research hypotheses, descriptive statistics of each test (measures of central tendency and measures of dispersion) were run. Then the related normality tests were applied to decide upon the type of statistical tests to examine the research hypotheses. For more assurance, we used both numerical and graphical methods of testing normality to prove that data in this survey were normal. Since the obtained data were normal, and other assumptions of parametric techniques were met, the parametric statistics were utilized. The selected tests in accordance with research questions and hypotheses were independent paired *t-test*, paired *t-test*, and One Way *ANOVA*.

Testing normality

Initially, for examining the normality of each group three factors of skewness, One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (K-S), and Q-Q plot were used and it has been concluded that distribution of scores for all group was normal to a large extent.

Reliability of tests:

In addition to Oxford Solution Test which was used as the proficiency test, there were three more tests in this study that their reliabilities have already been calculated using KR- 21 formula. According to this formula, reliability of the pretest is about .53. This value is .69 for the posttest and .65 for the delayed test.

Findings of the study:

Findings of hypotheses one and two:

H0 1: Pre-task planning with split information activity method has no effect on learning vocabulary of the Iranian EFL learners.

H0 2: Pre-task planning with brainstorming activity has no effect on learning vocabulary of the Iranian EFL learners.

The first and second hypotheses were tested through two different methods: independent sample *t-test* and paired sample *t-test*. 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 groups and the control group in their performance on the posttest. Also, observed value (.00) of 2- tailed test for the experimental groups in 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). With a quick review of these findings we can figure out that the experimental groups out performed both in comparison to its own pretest and in comparison to the control group's posttest. Since, all the variables were constant and groups were homogeneous; it can be inferred that the higher performance of the experimental groups was as result of employing split information and brainstorming activities as pre-task planning. The null hypotheses, thus, were rejected.

(See Table 1, Table 2, Table 3, and Table 4 for the results of testing hypothesis one and hypothesis two)

Table 1: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)	MD	SED	Lower	Upper

Independent test: Split	t- posttests of variances assumed	.661	.424	5.213	25	.000	4.720	.905	2.855	6.584
	Equal variances not assumed			5.160	22.390	.000	4.720	.915	2.825	6.615

Table 2: Paired Samples Test

Paired Differences				95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	
	M	SD.	SEM	Lower	Upper				
Pair 1	Paired t-test: pre & posttest of Split	12.929	10.081	1.905	9.020	16.838	6.786	27	.000

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)	MD	SED	Lower	Upper	
independent posttest Brainstorm & Control	t-test: Equal variances assumed	1.782	.194	4.99	26	.000	4.210	.843	2.478	5.943
	Equal variances not assumed			4.85	20.381	.000	4.210	.868	2.403	6.018

Table 4: Paired Samples Test

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

Pair 1	Paired t-test: Brainstorm – Group				Lower	Upper			
		12.900	9.553	1.744	9.333	16.467	7.396	29	.000

Findings of hypotheses three and four:

H0 3: there is no difference between groups that received split information and brainstorming activities as pre-task planning and control group in learning vocabulary.

H0 4: there is no difference between groups that received split information and brainstorming activities as pre-task planning and control group in delayed recall of vocabulary.

We inferred from the test of homogeneity of variance that the groups were homogenous; so, One Way ANOVA was employed to test these hypotheses. Based on the results of this test, significant observed value (.00) for between group and within group was less than .05. So, it can be concluded that there was a significant difference between the groups that received split information and brainstorming activity as pre-task planning and the control group in learning and recall of vocabulary.

In multiple comparisons among the groups, the split information group had no significant difference with the brainstorming group, but it had significant difference with the control group in both learning and recall of vocabulary. The brainstorming group had also a significant difference with the control group, but no significant difference with the split information. Obviously, the experimental groups achieved the better results than the control group in recall and learning of vocabulary. For making a concluding remark according to the observed results of this study, we can say that learning and recall of vocabulary through different pre-task planning strategies are more effective ways than the traditional method. Therefore, the third and fourth null hypotheses were rejected and concluded that there is a significant difference between the groups which received split information and brainstorming activities as pre-task planning and the control group in learning and recall of vocabulary.

(see Table 5, Table 6, and Table 7 for the results of testing hypothesis three and Table 8, Table 9, and Table 10 for hypothesis four)

Table 5: Test of Homogeneity of Variances(One-Way ANOVA)

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
1.018	2	39	.371

Table 6: One-Way ANOVA

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	180.129	2	90.065	19.313	.000
Within Groups	181.871	39	4.663		
Total	362.000	41			

Table 7: Multiple Comparisons

	(I) Group	(J) Group	MD(I-J)	SE	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval		Sig.
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound	
Scheffe	group1	group2	.510	.802	.802	-.818	2.55	
		group3	4.720*	.832	.000	2.60	6.84	
	group2	group1	-.510	.802	.818	-2.55	1.53	
		group3	4.210*	.818	.000	2.13	6.29	
	group3	group1	4.720*	.832	.000	-6.84	-2.60	
		group2	-4.210*	.818	.000	-6.29	-2.13	

Table 8: Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
.048	2	39	.953

Table 9: One-Way ANOVA

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	420.707	2	210.353	36.029	.000
Within Groups	227.698	39	5.838		
Total	648.405	41			

Table 10: Multiple Comparisons

	(I) Group	(J) Group	MD(I-J)	SE	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Scheffe	group1	group2	1.929	.898	.113	-.36	4.21
		group3	7.621*	.931	.000	5.25	9.99
	group2	group1	-1.929	.898	.113	-4.21	.36
		group3	5.692*	.916	.000	3.36	8.02
	group3	group1	-7.621*	.931	.000	-9.99	-5.25
		group2	-5.692*	.916	.000	-8.02	-3.36

Findings of hypotheses five and six:

H0 5: Pre-task planning through split information activity has no effect on delayed recall of the Iranians EFL learners

H0 6: pre-task planning with brainstorming has no effect on delayed recall of the Iranian EFL learners.

Selected statistics for the hypotheses five and six was paired samples *t-test* between the posttest (time 2) and delayed test (time 3) of the experimental groups separately. Although, there was a significant difference between scores of the experimental groups from time 2 to time 3, based on the posttest and delayed test means, mean score of posttest had a decrease. So, the null hypotheses were accepted and concluded that pre-task planning through split information and brainstorming activities had no effect on recall of vocabulary of EFL learners in this study. (see Table 11 and Table 12 for the results of testing hypothesis five and Table 13 for hypothesis six)

Table 11: Paired Samples Test

Paired Differences	t	df	Sig. (2-
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		95% Confidence Interval of the Difference					tailed)	
		M	SD	SEM	Lower	Upper		
Pair 1	Paired t-test: posttest of Split Information - Group	20.786	3.635	.687	19.376	22.195	30.260	27 .000

Table 12: Descriptive Statistics

	Posttest:	Delayed:
Mean: Split information group	24.64	19.93
Mean: brainstorming group	24.13	18.00

Table 13: Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences							Sig. (2- tailed)	
		M	SD	SEM	95% Interval of the Difference Lower	Upper	T	df		
Pair 1	Paired t-test: posttest & delayed posttest of Brainstorm - Group	19.567	4.174	.762	18.008	21.125	25.673	29	.000	

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

There are some researches that support the findings of this study and are focused on examination of the effect of pre-task planning and split information activity on learning vocabulary. Newton (1993), for instance, examined the superiority of communication tasks including split information over tasks which involve shared information. He claimed that negotiation of meaning while performing task has a deterministic role on the learning. His study's results showed that split information has more repetition and negotiation of meaning and these negotiations result in measurable learning of new words.

Foster and Skehan (1996), also, found that pre-task planning and task-based activities have positive effect on complexity and fluency of learners' language. In a study, Hall (1992) found that acquisition of vocabulary through split information activity was greater than reading activity. Hall (1992), likewise, found that vocabulary learning of students through interactive activities was greater than that of teacher fronted arrangement with a reading focused activity.

Even, we can claim that the results of this study are in the line with Nation (1990), Foster and Skehan (1996), and Hall's (1992) findings who believe that pre-task planning and split information have positive effect on learning vocabulary. 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 shown that pre-task planner produce more fluent and lexical varied language than on-line planner.

Notwithstanding all, some researcher's findings are against that of this study. For example, Nassaji (2012) suggest that collaborative task (cloze task) did not lead to greater learning vocabulary than individual task (editing task) and the latter was more successful in promoting negotiation and learning. Also, Mullen, Johnson and Salas (1991), and Diehl and Strobe (1987) show that people who work in isolation outperform both in quality and quantity of generated idea than who work in group. de la Funte (2006) also discusses that different pedagogical (traditional vs. task based) has no impact on immediate retrieval of learning vocabulary.

Long (1996), however, stated that the negotiation of meaning facilitates acquisition. Also, Fuente (2002) and Branden (1997) stated that negotiation of meaning has positive effects on learning lexical items. On the basis of a meta-analytic research, Mullen, Johnson and Sala (2010) reported a great deal of productivity loss in brainstorming group in comparison with nominal group, in terms of both quality and quantity. Although, everyone thinks working in group is always more efficient than working in isolation; recent researches (Mullen, Johnson & Salas, 1991; Diehl & Strobe, 1987) show that people who work in isolation outperform both in quality and quantity of generated idea than who work in group. Therefore, Mullen, Johnson, and Salas (1991), and Diehl and Strobe (1987)'s findings support this study's findings.

According to the obtained results, we might conclude that pre-task planning through split information and brainstorming activities have positive effect on vocabulary learning of EFL learners in this study, but no effect on delayed recall of vocabulary. By examining the results, subjects who received split information and brainstorming activities as pre-task planning have no significant difference in learning and recall of vocabulary. However, they have significant difference with the control groups in learning and delayed recall of vocabulary.

Despite the fact that these activities have no effect on delayed recall of vocabulary according to our findings, the performance of the subjects who received them as pre-task planning was higher than those in the control groups in recalling vocabulary. By examining the results of this study, one can see that the experimental groups' achievements are about the same in learning and recall of vocabulary; however, they are significantly different with the control group. To sum up, we can say that pre-task planning through split information and brainstorming activities enhanced

vocabulary learning of the experimental groups; moreover, the experimental groups outperformed in vocabulary learning compared to vocabulary recall.

LIMITATIONS

In fact, one of the limitations of the study which has to be highlighted here is reliability of tests; with the values of .53 for pretest, .69 for the posttest and .65 for the delayed test that all are below .70, we can hardly claim that our tests are strongly reliable. Moreover, sampling from the same background, limited age and sex who are at the same context (available institutions) and using the small number of participants (42 people) have an influence on generalization of the results. The other issue is possibility of remembering the test items. Although there is enough interval time (a week) between pre-test and instruction, there is still the possibility of remembering the test items by the students and this means that recall of vocabulary may not be totally as a result of teaching methods. Besides, making decision about the target words which finally have to be tested and how of testing is also controversial.

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HOW TO IMPROVE COLLEGE STUDENTS' AUTONOMOUS?

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ABSTRACT

Studies on autonomous learning based on different theories show new ideas for teaching English. This study investigated 60 college students taking English reading course. A Nelson test was used to homogenize learners. For Group A, four periods of computer-aided learning were offered per week in order to strengthen the students' autonomous learning competence. The students in Group B were taught in a traditional way, working in classrooms for eight periods. The independent t-test was used to determine whether the means of the two groups were statistically different from each other or not. The most significant findings are that the new method promoted students' English language much better than that of traditional methods. The findings of this study are useful for teachers to apply motivative methods to improve learners' motivation. Also, students who take responsibility for their learning enjoy the freedom and power to make decisions in their learning. Knowing that learning is a product of one's own activities, a student feels more rewarded and enhances his/ her courage to get involved in an active learning process.

KEY WORDS: autonomous learning, traditional methods, motivative methods

INTRODUCTION

Jenus and Lens (2005) believe that teaching a foreign language has problems to which teachers must pay attention in order to improve the learning process: 1) Language teaching requires not only skillful teachers but also innovative teaching techniques. 2) Teachers have to find practical ways to motivate students to learn the language and at the same time to sustain students' interests in the language learning process. According to Armstrong et al. (2009), teaching is a complex act because it deals with human beings. In fact, in a teaching class which consists of thirty students, teaching is a more complex job because these students usually come with varying needs, abilities, motivation and prior experiences. According to Biggs (1999) engaging with preferred individual learning styles is regarded as an important aspect for promoting the learning process. Many foreign researchers studied autonomous learning through classroom case studies such as Lee (2000) and Spratt et al. (2003). However, according to Gao (2005) case studies are not adequate for a long period of time. Still, the studies on autonomous English learning were focused on traditional college English education program. The development of college education, the special curriculum requirements of the program and the needs of students made it necessary to study the proper and effective way of English teaching and learning in college education.

LITERATURE REVIEW

For a definition of autonomy, we might quote Holec (2000: 3, cited in Benson & Voller, 1999: 1) who describes it as 'the ability to take charge of one's learning'. On a general note, the term autonomy has come to be used in at least five ways (Benson & Voller, 1999: 2):

- for situations in which learners study entirely on their own;
- for a set of skills which can be learned and applied in self-directed learning;

- for an inborn capacity which is suppressed by institutional education;
- for the exercise of learners' responsibility for their own learning;
- for the right of learners to determine the direction of their own learning.

It is noteworthy that autonomy can be thought of in terms of a departure from education as a social process, as well as in terms of redistribution of power attending the construction of knowledge and the roles of the participants in the learning process. The relevant literature is riddled with innumerable definitions of autonomy and other synonyms for it, such as 'independence' (Sheerin, 2006), 'language awareness' (Lier, 2005; James & Garrett, 1991), 'self-direction' (Candy, 2003), 'andragogy' (Knowles, 1988; 2000) which testifies to the importance attached to it by scholars. As has been intimated so far, the term autonomy has sparked considerable controversy, inasmuch as linguists and educationalists have failed to reach a consensus as to what autonomy really is. For example, in David Little's terms, learner autonomy is 'essentially a matter of the learner's psychological relation to the process and content of learning--a capacity for detachment, critical reflection, decision-making, and independent action' (Little, 2000: 4). It is not something done to learners; therefore, it is far from being another teaching method (ibid.). In the same vein, Leni Dam (1990, cited in Gathercole, 1990: 16), drawing upon Holec (1998), defines autonomy in terms of the learner's willingness and capacity to control or oversee her own learning. More specifically, she, like Holec, holds that someone qualifies as an autonomous learner when he independently chooses aims and purposes and sets goals; chooses materials, methods and tasks; exercises choice and purpose in organizing and carrying out the chosen tasks; and chooses criteria for evaluation.

To all intents and purposes, the autonomous learner takes a (pro-) active role in the learning process, generating ideas and availing himself of learning opportunities, rather than simply reacting to various stimuli of the teacher (Boud, 2002; Kohonen, 2001; Knowles, 2000). As we shall see, this line of reasoning operates within, and is congruent with, the theory of constructivism. For Rathbone (2000: 100, 104, cited in Candy, 2003: 271), the autonomous learner is a self-activated maker of meaning, an active agent in his own learning process. He is not one to whom things merely happen; he is the one who, by his own volition, causes things to happen. Learning is seen as the result of his own self-initiated interaction with the world. Within such a conception, learning is not simply a matter of rote memorization; 'it is a constructive process that involves actively seeking meaning from (or even imposing meaning on) events' (Candy, 2003: 271). Constructivism is a philosophical orientation in teaching theories. According to the theory, learning is constructed by the brain as it seeks to relate new knowledge to prior knowledge. Therefore, each student will have a unique construction. Such "inventories" of characteristics evinced by the putative autonomous learner abound, and some would say that they amount to nothing more than a romantic ideal which does not square with reality. This stands to reason, for most of the characteristics imputed to the "autonomous learner" encapsulate a wide range of attributes not commonly associated with learners. For instance, Benn (2000, cited in Candy, 2003: 102) likens the autonomous learner to one '[w]hose life has a consistency that derives from a coherent set of beliefs, values, and principles--[and who engages in a] still-continuing process of criticism and re-evaluation', while Rousseau (1999, cited in Candy, 2003: 102) regards the autonomous learner as someone who 'is obedient to a law that he prescribes to

himself. Within the context of education, though, there seem to be seven main attributes characterizing autonomous learners (Omaggio, 2003, cited in Wenden, 2002: 41-42):

1. Autonomous learners have insights into their learning styles and strategies;
2. take an active approach to the learning task at hand;
3. are willing to take risks, i.e., to communicate in the target language at all costs;
4. are good guessers;
5. attend to form as well as to content, that is, place importance on accuracy as well as appropriacy;
6. develop the target language into a separate reference system and are willing to revise and reject hypotheses and rules that do not apply; and
7. have a tolerant and outgoing approach to the target language.

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

In this research, the English language level of the students had faced even greater challenges. As a whole, the college English language teaching has some problems. Specially speaking, the traditional college teaching method does not take the special needs of individual students into account and pays little attention to the learning strategies of the learners. Zhao (2008) found that many College students spend as many as twelve years studying English, but students who are just taught in the classroom environment by teachers are more likely to hold a somewhat passive attitude, and low motivation, towards what is being learnt. Just because students have not been exposed to the actual communicative environment for so many years, they are not able to communicate in English with a real target language community. In sum, the problem with them was that their English language learning habits needed great improvement since they had been less able to manage their English learning effectively in their English learning activities for several years in middle school. It was important to consider how best to improve the teaching and learning styles in order to qualify them to an adequate degree in English language competence.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

It was expected that students would learn to manage their English language learning activities and become independent of teachers which would make a better preparation for their future study abroad.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

With regard to what has been presented above, the present research will address two major questions:

- 1) Could the new teaching and learning model save classroom teaching time? If so, how much time could be saved in our experiment?
- 2) What were the psychological benefits that the experimental students would get from the new learning model?

METHODOLOGY

Participants

The participants of this study ranged from 19 to 21 year-old students selected randomly from 100 female students from the University of Najafabad. The learners were freshmen and their major was computer science. A Nelson test was administered to the students to homogenize the intended number of students for the study. Next, 60 students whose scores on the Nelson test were between one standard deviation above and one standard deviation below the mean were selected to take part in the study. The students were from four teaching classes: two classes (Group A, 30 students) were involved in the experiments while the other two classes (Group B, 30) were taught in the traditional way.

Instruments

Data in this study were collected through using instruments as follows:

- 1) A Nelson test (1999, as cited in Dadkhah's thesis, 2002). It consisted of 40 multiple-choice items on grammar and vocabulary to estimate the proficiency level of the learners. The validity of the test was established by consulting with three experts. Its reliability was measured via cronbach's alpha that was 0.78.
- 2) The teaching book was *Concepts and Comments* by Patricia Ackert.
- 3) A questionnaire checklist to find out the future developments of their computer-aided autonomous English learning skills and their learning attitudes.
- 4) An interview checklist to show learners' autonomous learning process and their self-evaluation during it.

Data Analysis and Procedure

In this paper, the first comparison was via the administration of the Nelson test to show the two groups were at the same level in their English competence when they were admitted to the college. In the second semester, the classroom time of Group A was shortened to six periods, but another four periods of computer-aided learning were offered per week in order to strengthen the students' autonomous learning competence. The students in Group B were still taught in a traditional way, working in classrooms for eight periods and in computer-room for two hours each week. The independent t-test in SPSS software was used to determine whether the means of the students' English scores of the two groups were statistically different from each other or not. In our research, the two groups were compared on the first school year. The students' English scores of Group A and B in the examinations during the study were compared by using t-tests. At the same time, the relationship of autonomous learning time spent by the experimental group and the learning effectiveness would help to find out how much classroom teaching time was saved by adopting autonomous learning model.

THE RESULTS OF THE ANALYSIS

The teacher's role and Teaching Methods in both Settings

The teacher's role and Teaching Methods in this study varied according to different teaching and learning settings. Teachers made use of the texts to warm up students for the new teaching and learning model. In this sense, this part was also used as a good training of English learning skills as well as to make students aware of the new learning process. Students were asked to discuss questions related to learning strategies in English to perceive the differences between the traditional learning model and the computer – aided learning model. Generally speaking, students were encouraged to make best use of the learning materials selected via Internet in exploring each topic, which is offered in each unit in their course books. Teachers also forced them to analyze and re-organize these materials for their classroom presentation to check their language level. After evaluating the students' learning outcome, further suggestions from the teachers would be given to individual student for their future learning. The teachers also encouraged students to raise questions if they have any. Teachers also asked more questions to check and promote their learning. Therefore, questioning acted as an important step in developing and ensuring students' autonomy.

Student Assessment

Generally, student assessment is divided into two parts: one is by examination scores and the other is to measure students' daily working performance. However, the former has been too much emphasized in the traditional education system. Stiggins et al. (2004) pointed out that assessment is an important dimension of the learning process and should also be defined as assessment for learning. That is to say, sound assessment procedures become a learning experience eventually. Besides, learners usually desire indications of success and data gathered from fair and appropriate assessment procedures can provide these affirmations. Stiggins (2000) also claimed that evidence of success motivates learners to continue working and creates an expectation of future success. Performance assessment is especially useful in evaluating learner behaviors associated with such tasks as working with others, giving oral presentations, participating in discussions and using computers.

Although many important education objectives require performance assessment, the more important point is that in our experiment, the purpose of assessment was not to judge a student's once and for all, but to help her to develop her autonomous English learning competence.

OUTCOMES AND FINDINGS

Post-tests and Scores Comparing between Group A and Group B

At the end of the first semester and the second semester, all the first-year students took the final examination in English reading, listening and writing using the same papers. Score compared were conducted in reading scores, between group A and B were showed in table.

Group	cases	mean	St.d	Standard error mean	variances	T	Sig (2-tailed)
A	60	70.41	9.74	1.21	Equal variances assumed	3.95	.000
B	60	63.71	9.36	1.17			
A	60	23.08	6.70	.83	Equal variances assumed	.538	.592
B	60	22.47	6.00	.76			

From the table, it was found that, at the end of the first semester, the reading scores of group A were significantly different from those of Group B, with the former group having higher scores than the latter one in the two courses. This suggests that the English language level of Group A, the experimental group, was higher than Group B after three months 'computer-aided autonomous learning. Equally important, at the end of the second semester, the scores of the two groups had no significant difference, which suggested that the advancement of Group A was the same as Group B during the whole year's learning. Given two hours 'decrease of classroom teaching time and 2 hours 'increase of computer-aided autonomous each week in the second semester, it meant the higher effectiveness of English learning of Group A.

Interviews of the Students

At the end of the second semester, 12 students from Group A were chosen at random to be interviewed about the autonomous learning process and their self-evaluation during it. The questions asked in the interview were:

- 1) Have you realized the differences between computer-aided autonomous English learning and traditional learning in terms of your responsibility?
- 2) Have you fully got involved in computer-aided autonomous English learning up till now?
- 3) Have you applied the autonomous learning strategies into your daily learning activities? If so, how to?

From the interview, it was noted that 90% of the students who were involved in the experiments claimed that they had gained knowledge about the responsibility of themselves in college English

language learning and had been trying to apply more and more of the strategies into their daily learning activities. Each student perceived and told about their different advancement in English level and English learning skills, with most of who felt satisfied with the whole years 'English learning process and outcomes. All the experimental students showed an active and expecting attitude towards the future language learning and using. On the other hand, the students in Group B, who experienced the traditional learning process, showed much less awareness and tended to be less proactive in their English learning.

Questionnaires

In the second semester, the second questionnaire was given to Group A to find out the future developments of their computer-aided autonomous English learning skills and their learning attitudes, with 60 copies of the questionnaire being available.

From the students' answers to the questionnaire, it was noticed that most of the students understood more about autonomous English learning and the majority of the students got more involved in it.

CONCLUSION

It is found that the classroom teaching became more and more active and efficient. Experimental students learned more about each unit before class and they could explore further during the classroom learning and co-working. Teachers found it easier to achieve the teaching purposes working with the experimental students since both teachers and students have enjoyed class with the new teaching and learning model. According to the above mentioned data, the answers to research questions 1 and 2 are:

- 1) The teaching experiments also suggest that the new teaching and learning model saved classroom time. Specifically speaking, two periods 'time was saved each week, which would up to thirty -two periods in the whole semester.
- 2) According to the time spent on autonomous English learning and activities taken part in by the students during the time, the findings of the interviews and questionnaires, the experimental students felt quite positive about computer-aided autonomous English language learning and got more motivated during the first year. After the students found that they had learned a lot they eventually became proactive not only during the process, but also in future English learning.

LIMITATION OF THE STUDY AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

No study is complete by itself and cannot take every detail into consideration. Therefore, there are always aspects which are not accounted for. This research is no exception. There are some issues which were not controlled in this study and can be topics for further research by other researchers.

- 1) This study was done only in one city with a limited number of students. It is suggested that another study be performed with large numbers of students from more cities.
- 2) In this study only female students were questioned. Some other studies can be performed on both genders.
- 3) In this study, the participants were adolescents; in other studies adult language learners can be the focus of attention to see whether the same results will be obtained.

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IMPERSONALIZED SUBJECT “WE” IN UNIVERSITY BUSINESS ENGLISH LETTERS WRITTEN BY NON NATIVE ENGLISH SPEAKERS

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ABSTRACT

In the developing quality of knowledge that university expands to each other's the cooperation and collaboration, especially in academics programs. They communicate to each others in written business English Language so that they use linguistics units in their communication. This writing explains one of the functions of negative politeness strategies in university business English letters, impersonalized subject “we” as a sender of the letters that belongs to sender not to impinge the receivers. University business English letters are represented or focused on cooperation where impersonalized “we” as a leader in the project who signed the letters, as team of power university authority and asking cooperativeness with the partners. Iimpersonalized subject “we” in the university business English letters are found out as many as 72 words from 30 letters. They are analyzed not only by combining of opening section, propositional section is the biggest portion and closing section as part of University business letters but also by inclusive dual, inclusive plural is the biggest portion, exclusive dual, and inclusive dual as part of referential.

KEY WORDS: Negative Politeness Strategies, Impersonalized Subject “we”, University Business English Letters and Referential

INTRODUCTION

The most rapidly developing trend in higher education is a doing corporation between universities all around the world. They are not only joining the programs but also sending the students to each others, making contract with companies to apply their knowledge, asking some recomendations for passport and visa from the embassy. The international officer of university expands the reach of its partner institutions and gives them access to get an outstanding international program. This is a benefit for university and partner institutions so that they make it higher and better in academic knowledge.

In the joining program, they send their program and proposal to each other and they use English language as foreign languages. They use spoken and written language. In the written language, they send letters to each others. Thus it is not only necessary for the sender and receiver to know gramatical rules and large number of vocabulary of words but he or she must also know how to use language in various situations and cultures have also different norm concerning communication. The users of language must know not only structure, grammar rules but also all of the linguistic units.

Three are many definition of politeness. Brown and Levinson's (1987). Lakoff (1973). Smith (1992). Brown (1993). Holmes (1995). Christie (2002). Mills (2003). Fukushima (2000) Günthner (2000). Ide et al (1992).

There is a definition of Politeness is the sign of human civilization in social activities.

“Politeness is the attitude of one party to another party. It comes to both parties. It called the two parties "self " and "other". In letters, "self” usually means to the writer, and "other" may be the receiver, or a third party who has been mentioned or not mentioned in the letter”. (Leech: 1983, cited by Ya, S., 2011).

Impersonalize the Speaker and Hearer is the way of indicating reluctance to impinge on the hearer is to phrase the FTA as if the agent were other than the speaker. They consist in the omitting of the ‘I’ and ‘You’ pronouns.

The analysis of the university business English letters is based on the term of inclusive and exclusive. Inclusive or exclusive category is independent of number pronouns. The number distinct such as dual and plural (Scheibman., , 2004:379) for languages that make such four way distinctions, the inclusive dual refer to the speaker and one addresses (I+You singular). The inclusive plural includes the speaker and more than on addressee (I + You plural). Exclusive form refers to speaker and others who are not directly addressed – one other person in the case of dual (I + She, He, it) and more than one for the plural (I+ They). In Table 1 we can see the referential and patterning.

Table 1: Referential of Subject subjects “we” and Patterning

Referential of Subject subjects “we”	Patterning
The inclusive dual refer to the speaker and one addresses	I + You singular
The inclusive plural includes the speaker and more than one addressee	I + You plural
Exclusive dual form refer to speaker and others who are not directly addressed Singular	I + She, He, it
Exclusive plural form refers to speaker and other are not directly addressed Plural	I + They

Adapted from Scheibman., J (2004:379).

University Business English letters are formal letters. Every university business English letter is written communication that it has many functions such as not only persuade, influence, invite, inform answer but also reply the receiver or reader to do something. University Business English letters will give us next steps or programs in the next time. Every organization, institution and university must manage out going letters and incoming letters. Business English Letters in presenting a formal letter.

All the business letters have heading, addressee, salutations, date line, the messages and closing. (Gartside: 1981) In the part of business letter that three are “Opening section is contains the salutation, the opening line of the letters and secondary illocutionary as well as propositional elements which locate the letter in the discourse –dynamics perspective and pave the way for subsequent requests. Propositional section is the central part of the letter. It contains the primary proposition of the text and the central communicative aims and core of illocutionary program. The closing section contains elements external or secondary to the illocutionary and propositional program of the text”. (Pilegaard: 1997)

LITERATURE REVIEW

There are literature reviews in business letters field. The first is “Toward Business Pragmatics” (Ya, 2001). The Paper discussed about business pragmatics based on the literature review of business discourse research relevant to pragmatics. Business pragmatics is usually evaluative the factors determining successful business interactions, and on how to find out which strategies or behaviors are associated with success. Successful business communication is determined by language use, business people who are pragmatically competent in business contexts and the most important in business pragmatics are business context and business pragmatic competence.

The second is “Discourse Analyses of Business Letter in Iranian and Native speaker” (Arvani, 2006). The paper discussed discourse analysis of business letters that they were written by native English speakers and non-native Iranian communicators. There are as many as 25 follow up letters were written by Iranians and there are 25 letters were written by Native English Speakers. All the letters were analyzed by notion of lexical density and grammatical words was studied. They were analyzed and studied not only notion lexical density, grammatical words, basis of model schematics structure, move and steps but also politeness strategies. The result of the research showed that the letters were written by Iranian In generally that politeness strategies were ignored

The third is “Business Linguistics and Business Discourse” (Daniushina, 2010). The paper suggests that applied linguistics and Business Linguistics were separated. Language used in the business communication and they are explored in linguistics aspect, practical purposes and functional typology of business components in business communication so that the definitions of applied linguistics and functional typology of business component in business communication are found out.

The fourth is “Politeness in Written Business Discourse: A Text Linguistic Perspective on Request”. (Pilegaard.1997). The paper tells us that the principles of business letters and practices of politeness strategies in business communication are analyzed. In the business such as sales letters, inquires letters, quotations letters order letters and others. They are divided into tree categorizes such as making contact, negotiating and in conflict. The senders of letters are correlated to sender status and business letters. Positive and negative politeness strategies were applied into business letters so that monitoring politeness strategies on the text level gives and makes valuable insight into the norms that govern British business communication.

THE SURFACE OF THE FEATURE IN UNIVERSITY BUSINESS ENGLISH LETTERS

In this research that observes in University Business English Letters Written by Non-Native English speakers in presenting as formal English letters. Those formal English letters have heading, addressee, salutations, date line, the messages and closing. Researchers study as many as 30 in University Business English Letters The smallest business English letters are 57 words and the largest are 209 words and business English letters contains at least 2 paragraphs and the largest are 6 paragraphs.

According to those research in business English letters writing above that we focus on analyzing pragmatics, especially in negative politeness strategies of impersonalize subject “we” in University Business English Letters Written by Non Native English speakers. We are going to discuss impersonalize of subject “we” that are found out in the opening section, propositional section and closing section in university business English letters written by non-native English speakers and will be related to referential of inclusive dual, inclusive plural, exclusive dual and exclusive plural

METHODOLOGY

The required data are taken from university business English letters. The letters are taken from Directorate of Partnership and International Relations Bandung Institute of Technology (ITB) West Java Indonesia. The university business English letters are from many universities and many countries Non-Native English Speakers. The Data are out going and in coming university business English letters from 2011 to 2013. The writers of the letters are from Directorate of International Affair’s universities, Dean and Rector of university.

There are as many as 30 letters. There are 16 letters from Japan, 3 letters-from Taiwan, 1 letter from Malaysia, 2 letters from German, 1 letter from Finland, 5 letters from Indonesia, 1 letter from Thailand, and 1 letter from ASEAN University Network AUN/SEED-Net. The corpus in this study comprised 30 university business English letters. See in table 2

Table 2: of impersonalized subject “we” is based on Pilegaard’s theory: Opening Section, Propositional Section and Closing Section. In the contents of opening section that salutation and opening line of the letter are deleted.

No	Impersonalized subject “we” in university business letters	Paragraph	Name of Institutions	Referential of Inclusive and exclusive
1	We would greatly appreciate it if you could distribute our web address (http://io.tmu.edu.tw/) among your family, friends, and students.	Opening	Taipei Medical University	Exc P
2	We wish you harmony, health, and happiness for 2011	Closing	Taipei Medical University	Inc D
3	We would like to encourage the students of your university to take a part		Southern	Inc

	in one of the most prominent technological universities in Taiwan	Opening	Taiwan University	P
4	We started recruiting international students since 2005;	Propositional	Southern Taiwan University	Inc P
5	Now we have 207 international students from 21 different countries.	Propositional	Southern Taiwan University	Exc P
6	Not only do we offer various assistantships that cover that covers both tuitions and dormitory fees,	Propositional	Southern Taiwan University	Exc P
7	We also offer free Chinese classes that equip our international students our international students with a language skills that will give them a distinct advantage in a world where the Asia Pacific economy and the mandarin is becoming increasingly important.	Propositional	Southern Taiwan University	Exc P
8	We invite you to join us by helping your students not to miss out on this unique chance	Propositional	Southern Taiwan University	Exc P
9	We would be most appreciates if you could post them on the notice boards at your campus so that your students can purse this opportunity to continue their studies overseas	Closing	Southern Taiwan University	Exc P
10	Happy New Year! We are glad to introduce you our three summer schools 2013. These are three programs will be held by summer university of international office at Technische Universitat Munchen.	Opening	Technische Universitat Munchen	Inc D
11	We would be grateful, if these flyers could be posted and announced at your university.	Propositional	Technische Universitat Munchen	Exc P
12	For any further questions we would like to help you and.	Closing	Technische Universitat Munchen	Exc D
13	We are happy to see your students in Munich	Closing	Technische Universitat Munchen	Inc P
14	Last but not least, we, the whole Summer University Team wish you Happy New Years 2013!!!	Closing	Technische Universitat Munchen	Inc D
15	We are pleased to present to you the minutes 17 th Steering Committee Meeting and year 2012 Annual meeting of the AUN/SEED-net, as well as the latest issue of the SEED-Net News.	Opening	ASEAN University Network	Inc D
16	We would appreciate it if you could distribute both publications to any concerned person, and kindly not that can subscribe or view our news letters on line at:...	Closing	ASEAN University Network	Exc P
17	We look forward to embarking upon or continuing our exchange relationship with you over the coming year.	Opening	NUPACE Nagoya University	Inc D
18	We very much appreciate your continued co-operation with this endeavour.	Propositional	NUPACE Nagoya University	Inc D
19	We, at Aarhus University, have recently reorganized activities with focus on the four areas research, education, talent development and knowledge exchange with society in general.	Propositional	Aarhus University	Exc P
20	We regretfully inform you that your application toward Post Graduate program at Institut Teknologi Bandung is denied	Opening	ITB	Inc D
21	We do hope that this would not disappoint and discourage you from pursuing advanced education somewhere else.	Closing	ITB	Inc D
22	We wish you the very best	Closing	ITB	Inc D
23	We would like to send you the documents of the successful candidates as follows:	Propositional	ITB	Exc P
24	In the relation to the Frontier Lab@OsakaU and Osaka University Short-Term Student Exchange Program (OUSSEP) 2012-2013 Program at Osaka University, Japan, We would like to send you our prospective	Opening	ITB	Exc

	candidates as follows:			D
25	We would like to kindly request you to please grant Mr. X Type B-211 Visa (VKSB) valid for 60 days.	Opening	ITB	Exc D
26	We would greatly appreciate any assistance you could provide us in expediting this process	Propositional	ITB	Inc D
27	We kindly ask Visa Section of the Embassy of the Republic of Indonesia in Singapore to assist Ms. X in obtaining Necessary visa and permit to enter Indonesia gain	Closing	ITB	Exc D
28	We are looking forward to continuing cooperation with you	Closing	University of Turku	Inc D
29	We currently offer allied health sciences courses such a pharmacy, physiotherapy and nursing at diploma level	Opening	Allianze University	Exc D
30	We are delight to express our intention to collaborate with your esteemed in institution in various academic effort especially in the field of pharmacy	Propositional	Allianze University	Exc P
31	We plan to explore the possibility of sending our diploma in pharmacy graduates to pursue a degree pharmacy in your university.	Proposition al	Allianze University	Exc. P
32	We would like appreciate very much if you could accept a visit from our university in the very near future to introduce our university and discuss matters further.	Closing	Allianze University	Exp P
33	We would like appreciate it if you display and hand out the brochures to prospective student, who would like study at University of Groningen	Proposition al	Groningen University	Exc P
34	We are delighted to send you the latest edition of our promotional degree-seeking students	Opening	National ChiaoTung University	Inc D
35	We hope to attract talented international students to pursue advance studies in our wide-range program.	Proposition al	National ChiaoTung University	Exc P
36	We would be very grateful to have your assistance in sharing the enclosed information to student in Vietnam.	Proposition al	National ChiaoTung University	Exc P
37	We wish to thank you that you sent application(s) to our Exchange Program of Japanese University Study in Science & Technology” (JUSST) a couple month ago	Opening	University of Electro Communication Japan	Inc D
38	We need to confirm the final intention of your student(s). whether or not each applicants will actually take up this study opportunity at UEC	Proposition al	University of Electro Communication Japan	Exc P
39	We will send you this “Form D” by facsimile to your international education office today.	Proposition al	University of Electro Communication Japan	Inc D
40	We will issue the Official Acceptance Advice for these successful, and start processing official paper work for visa and enrollment at UEC, but only after we receive your acknowledgement by “form D”.	Proposition al	University of Electro Communication Japan	Exc P
41	We receive your acknowledge by “ form D”.	Closing	University of Electro Communication Japan	Inc D
42	We hope that this exchange study will further develop our international friendship between your university and our university.	Closing	University of Electro Communication Japan	Exc P
43	We would like to thank you again for your warm friendship.	Closing	University of Electro Communication Japan	Inc D
44	We are sending two sets of transcripts in English and Japanese, one is for your records and the other is for the students	Opening	Kanazawa university	Exc P
45	We apologize for the inconvenience it might cause and thank you for		Kanazawa	Inc

	your understanding.	Closing	university	D
46	We would like to express our sincere thanks to announce you that for your continued support	Opening	Meiji University	Inc D
47	As one of the feature of the project, the SGJS will start a unique undergraduate program focusing on Cool Japan in April 2011, and now we are happy to announce you that we will also offer fall admission this year.	Propositional	Meiji University	Inc D
48	Now we are happy to announce you that we will also offer fall admission this year.	Propositional	Meiji University	Exc P
49	We will see the further strengthening of our valuable partnership.	Closing	Ritsumeikn University	Exc P
50	We publish this newsletter semiannually to provide people around the world with updates on research and other activities at Tokyo Institute of Technology	Opening	Tokyo Institute of Technology	Exc P
51	We hope that these brochures and CD are successful in sharing with you at present status and result of Osaka University's education and research efforts, and provide you with an expanded perfectives of the university's activities.	Propositional	Osaka University	Exc P
52	As we have already informed you by email,	Opening	Shibaura Institute of Technology	Inc D
53	We now start the acceptance of the application for the Hybrid Twinning Program 2012/2013.	Opening	Shibaura Institute of Technology	Exc P
54	We have been receiving excellent students from your university	Propositional	Shibaura Institute of Technology	Inc P
55	We are looking forward to receiving application again this year.	Closing	Shibaura Institute of Technology	Exc P
56	We would deeply appreciate it if you could inform your students of the programs described at the url's below and in the accompanying materials.	Propositional	Meiji University	Exc P
57	We are delight to enclose herewith official letter and application form for the International Graduate Program 2011.	Opening	Gunma University	Exc P
58	We sincerely hope that you will recommend some promising students for our program for their future study.	Propositional	Gunma University	Inc P
59	We would appreciate your assistance by providing us with your best judgment.	Propositional	Gunma University	Exc P
60	We would also very happy if you could pass this letter to others within your departments and organization.	Closing	Gunma University	Exc P
61	We highly recommended him to be inserted among your foreign languages teachers.	Propositional	Italia language Center	Exc D
62	At the same time, we also wish that together with the restart of Italian language teaching program there, fully managed by your esteem institution, the cultural- educations exchange programs between both countries will grow better in the near future.	Closing	Italia Language Center	Exc P
63	We would appreciate your kind cooperation in circulating this information within and outside your institution.	Closing	Keiko University Medical Science fund	Exc P
64	We hope this guide book will help further your interest in TUAT	Propositional	Tokyo University of Agriculture and Technology	Exc P
65	If we can be of any further help or you have any question, please do not hesitate to contact us	Closing	Tokyo University of Agriculture and Technology	Inc D
66	We are pleased to inform you that students below was selected as an exchange students for 2013/2014 in accordance with the agreement between ITB and Tokyo Institute of Technology	Opening	Tokyo Institute of Technology	Exc P

67	We would like to ask you to send us an application package for exchange students,	Propositional	Tokyo Institute of Technology	Inc D
68	or indicate where we can find your exchange students application from in your webpage	Propositional	Tokyo Institute of Technology	Inc D
69	we would like to continue the fruitful and friendly corporations between our universities	Closing	Tokyo Institute of Technology	Exc P
70	We have enclosed brochure and poster about the division of economics	Opening	Kanazawa University School of Economic	Exc P
71	We would like therefore appreciate if you could distribute the enclosed brochures and posters to students interested in the division of economics.	Closing	Kanazawa University School of Economic	Exc P
72	We are now setting a briefing schedule. For further details, please refer to attached page	Closing	Keio University	Exp P

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The result of impersonalized subject “we” based on Pilgaard’s theory: Opening section, Propositional section and Closing Section. We can see in table 3.

Table 3: The result of impersonalized subject “we” in the part of university Business English letters

No	Part of University Business English Letters	Total of Impersonalized subject “We”
1	Opening Section	19
2	Propositional Section	29
3	Closing Section	24
Total		72

Based on the result statistics above, there are as many as 30 letters from many universities. The letters were written by Non-Native English speaker. We can see that the letters are analyzed by opening section, propositional section and closing section and there are as many as 72 impersonalized subject “we”. See table 3. Those opening section, propositional section and closing section are analyzed and the result them, we can see in figure1. Researcher found out that in the propositional section is the most usable of impersonalized subject we as many as 29 or 40%. It is because there is the central part or main messages in communicative aims of letters and in the closing section there are 24 or 33% because it elements external or secondary to the main message what will be done in the future time. In the opening section there are as many as 19 or 27% because it is a dynamics perspective and pave the way for subsequent requests or main message. We can see in figure 1.

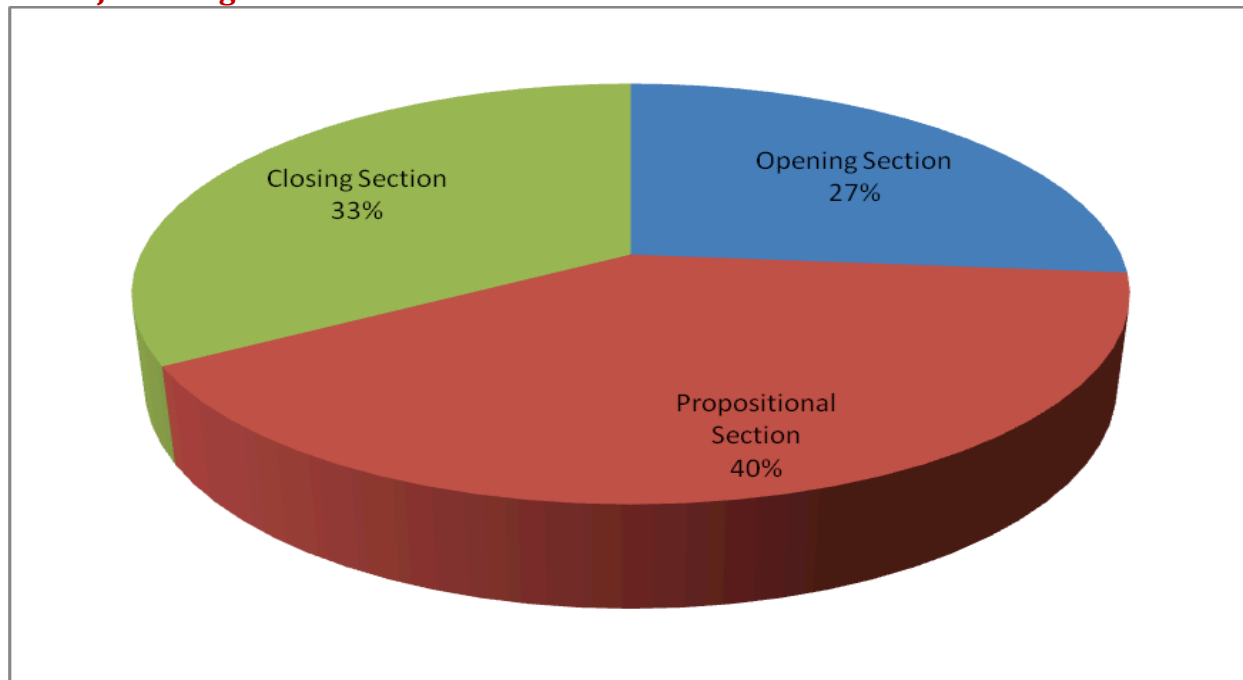


Figure1: The procentage of impersonalized subject “we” in university business Englis letters.

We can see in table 4, Impersonalized subject “we” divided into referential and part of university letters in university business English letters.

Table 4: Impersonalized subject “we” and Part of University Business English Letters

No	Part of University Business English Letters	Impersonalized Subject “we” and Referential			
		Inclusive		Exclusive	
		Inclusive Dual	Inclusive Plural	Exclusive Dual	Exclusive Plural
1	Opening Section	8	1	3	7
2	Propositional Section	6	3	1	19
3	Closing Section	9	1	2	12
Total		23	5	6	38

Based on the result statistics of referential in university business English letters, The referential of Inclusive dual (ID) and Exclusive Plural (EP) are more than Inclusive Plural (IP) and Exclusive Dual (ED). There are as many as 72 impersonalized subject “we” in university business letters that researcher found out the referential of Exclusive Plural 38 or 53% and referential of Inclusive Dual as many as 23 or 32%. In the referential of exclusive dual is 6 or 8 % of impersonalized subject “we”. Referential of Inclusive Plural is 5 or 7%. We can see in figure 2

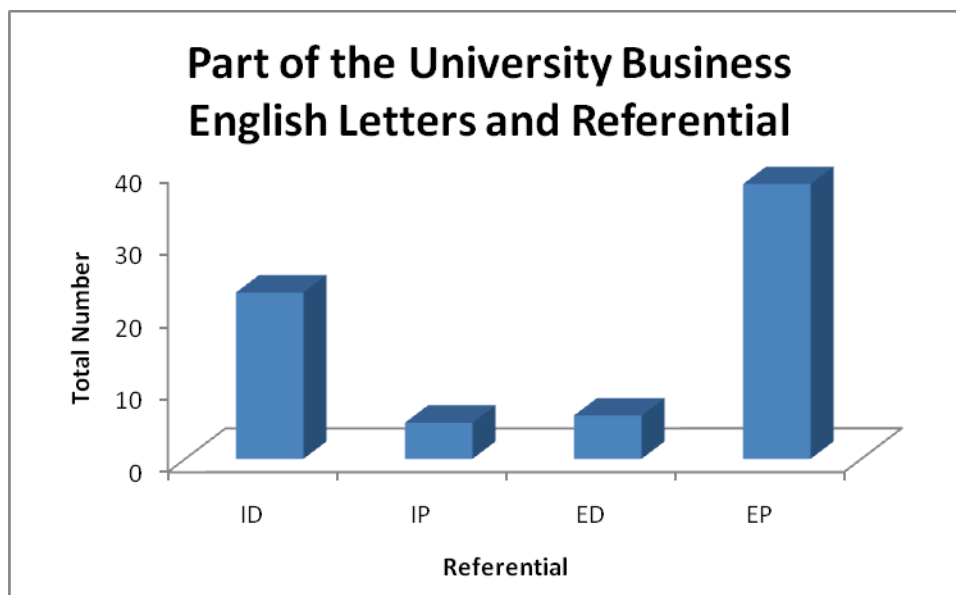


Figure 2: Impersonalized subject “we” divided into referential and part of message in university business English letters

The Referential of Exclusive in university business English letters is almost half more in the part of propositional section than in the opening section and closing section. In the Referential Inclusive is found out that in the propositional section is half more than opening section and closing section. But, in the Referential of Inclusive Dual and Exclusive Dual are found out that impersonalized subject “we” is less in the propositional section than opening and closing section.

In Figure 3, We can see in the opening section that Referential of Exclusive Inclusive dual is 42 % it mean that in the opening section of the letters sender and receiver is more powerful in the leading of the cooperation between universities. In referential Exclusive Plural is 37 %. It means that in the opening section refers to the importance of the corporation program is not only for the receiver but also for public in university.

In the exclusive dual is 16 % it means that in the opening section sender want to send the message is not only for receiver but also for students or are not mentioned in the letters specifically. in the Referential Inclusive Plural is 16 % it means that sender want to give the message not only personally but also for the institution.

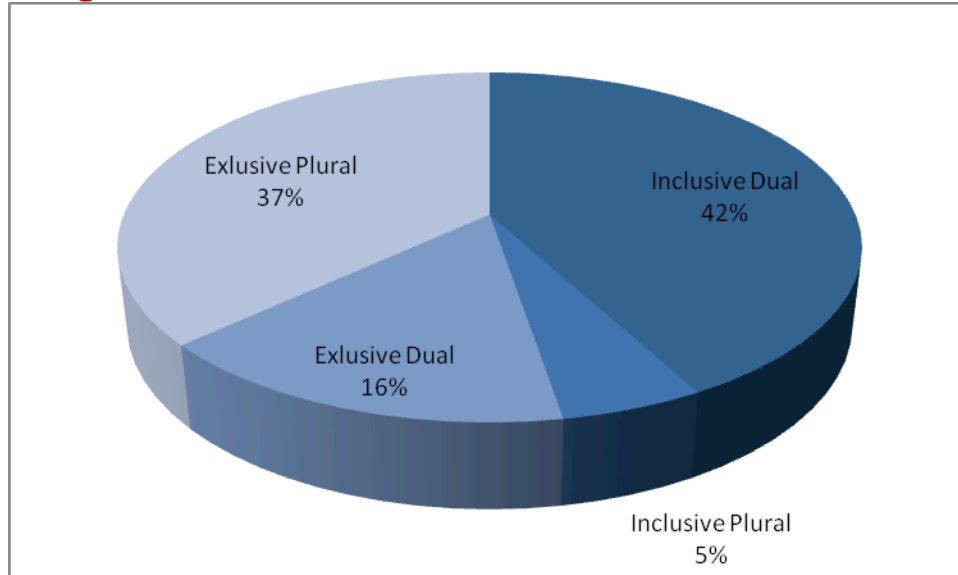


Figure 3: Opening section and Referential

In the propositional section that referential Exclusive Plural is 66% it means that in the main message of the letters that sender wants to give and informs as much and clear as possible the receivers. The university business English letters is not only for the sender and receiver personally but also receiver and sender are represented as part of the profit of the team of the institution or university but also in making contact is for students and people are not mentioned in the letters. The smallest result referential is exclusive dual. It logically means that the sender and receiver are not involved personally in the main message of the university business English letters. Inclusive dual is 21 % and inclusive personal is 10%. We can see in figure 4.

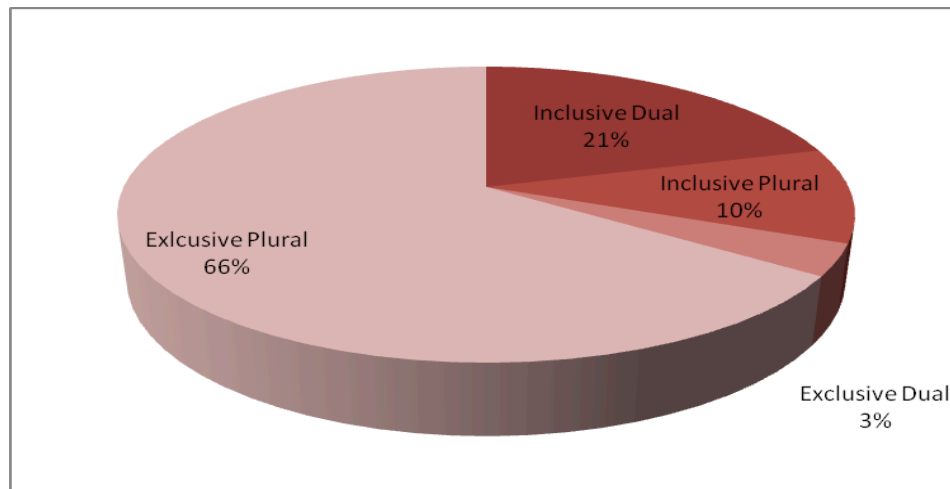


Figure 4: Propositional Section and Referential

In the referential of Exclusive plural is 50% in closing section in and Inclusive Dual is 30% and Exclusive is 8% and inclusive plural is 4%. See in Figure 5

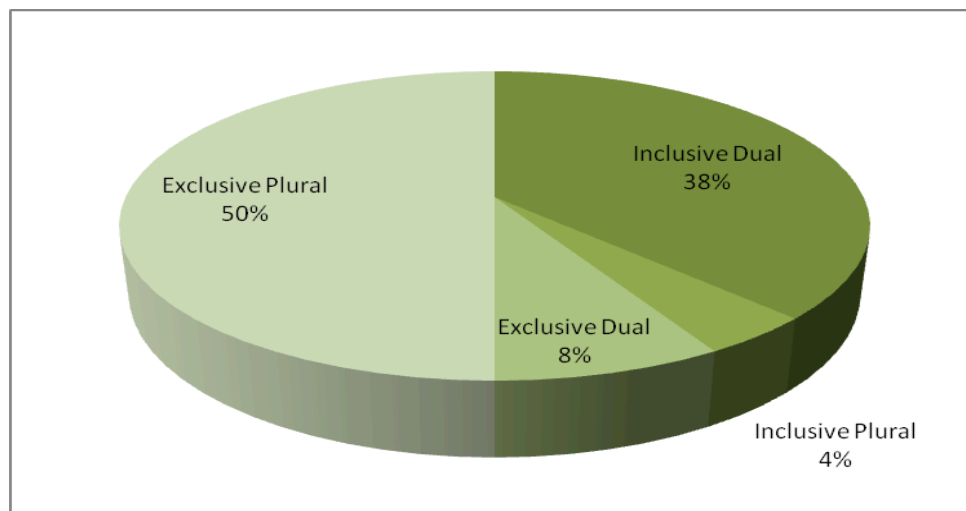


Figure 5: Closing Section and Referential

CONCLUSIONS

According to the result above that there are three conclusions. First negative politeness strategies impersonalized subject “we” in the university business English letters are found out as many as 72 words from 30 letters. Second negative politeness strategies of impersonalized subject “we” are found out that it is biggest portion in propositional section. Third according to the referential that Exclusive Plural are found out as a bigger portion in part of the message university business English letters.

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THE EFFECTS OF PERIPHERAL TEACHING ON IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS' WRITING SKILL IN CYBER ENVIRONMENTS

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ABSTRACT

This study aimed to find out the effects of peripheral teaching on Iranian EFL learners' writing skills in cyber environments. After administrating a Nelson (Fowler and Coe, 1976) test, a group of 80 homogeneous students at language institute were selected from a total population of 120 at the intermediate level in Dehdasht, Kohgiluyeh and Boyer Ahmad province, Iran. Then, they were randomly assigned to control and experimental groups. While experimental A was assigned to cyber environment and received instructions regarding peripheral teaching, B was selected as the control group. A t-test was conducted to compare the subjects' means and to determine the effect of peripheral teaching. The results depicted that peripheral teaching in cyber environments had a significant effect on improving Iranian EFL learners' writing skills, ($P < .05$).

KEYWORDS: Peripheral teaching, Cyber environments, Writing skill

INTRODUCTION

Creating and supporting learning environments that result in students achieving at the highest levels is a teacher's primary responsibility. To do this well, teachers must engage in professional self-renewal, which means they regularly examine their own and each other's practice through self-reflection and collaboration, providing collegial support and feedback that assures a continuous cycle of self-improvement. This kind of professional learning results in discovery and implementation of better practice for all. As professionals, teachers also contribute to practices that improve teaching and learning consistent with their school's mission and in collaboration with colleagues, school leaders, parents, guardians and other adults significant to students. They demonstrate leadership by modeling ethical behavior and by contributing to positive changes in policy and practice around activities that connect school, families and the larger community.

Scholars are looking for methods rather than the conventional ones to solve the teaching problems of the people living in the modern world, and they prefer to use the modern techniques of the world. Not only these researches verifies the first original findings, but also they say that other stimuli such as spoken words, faces and pictures can facilitate the following decisions as they are introduced under conditions that make it difficult to differentiate one stimulus from the other. Though there are questions about whether the observers will be able to differentiate one stimulus from the other or not, the prevailing conclusion is that noticeable information will be got when the observers experience little or no awareness of the things they perceived as indicated by their difficulty in differentiating one stimulus from the other.

Peripheral training has many applications in different sciences. According to Cracker (1998, P. 121), in weightlifting, "peripheral training is referred to as training the muscles acting on the joints that are farther from the spine". Examples of some muscles would be Biceps, Triceps, Forearms, lower leg muscles, etc. Some examples of exercises would be Leg extension, Hammer curls, Bicep Curls, Calf exercises, etc.

New times require new approaches to education. Today's context presents a complex combination of factors impacting learning. Global economic realities have created an imperative to build systems in which young people graduate high school with an array of skills that prepares them for college, work, and life. The persistence of differences in student experiences and outcomes, combined with high dropout rates create a need to act. And a strong focus on accountability and how to measure teacher and system effectiveness continue to drive the education reform discourse nationally.

Most diverse learning needs can be met in the general classroom when two guidelines are kept in mind by the classroom teacher: (1) Student performance is the result of interaction between the student and the instructional environment and (2) teachers can reasonably accommodate most student needs after analyzing student learning needs and the demands of the instructional environment. In fact, the adaptations made for a specific student's learning needs may be beneficial to many other students in the same classroom. Adaptations are simply good teaching techniques put to use.

Another thing that may have had relation to peripheral teaching is games. Teachers need to be careful that games include peripheral language that is not too difficult for the children. This is especially true when we use a game that was originally designed for native speakers of English. However, one of the wonderful things about games is that "they provide opportunities for children to come across natural chunks of language and use them interactively" (Crenshaw, 1977, P. 78).

LITERATURE REVIEW

Despite its wide acceptance in applied linguistic research, TESL/TEFL curriculum has not adequately integrated techniques for developing communicative competence or sociolinguistic instruction on form- function mapping, which enables speakers to use language properly according to social expectations. Many current TESL/TEFL programs require courses in traditional grammar (or transformational grammar), communicative language teaching (CLT), and second language acquisition (SLA), all of which have significant shortcomings which require integration of new techniques for language analysis and teaching methodology to be included in future TESL/TEFL programs.

Teaching programs need to focus on not only novice teaching methodologies, but giving tools to practicing teachers to deal with the variety of issues presented in modern classrooms around the world. One problem currently facing institutions which teach EFL learners is the ability to meet the demands and the needs of potential learners. Additionally, many students drop out, because

the course books overloads their English skills, or they have personal challenges, or time management issues. Thus, TEFL programs are not as accessible or student supportive as they need to be. Indeed, because information/communication technology gives such quick and easy access to large amounts of information, it has become important for accredited institutions to critically review curriculum in terms of both accessibility (to learning) and accountability (of skills and knowledge). It is the need for TEFL programs to be more accessible, more instructionally effective and accountable, and more students supportive that motivates the current paper, whose purpose is to propose solution strategies for contemporary TEFL curriculum development (Smith, 2009).

Retaining core teachings serves to preserve the religious capital accrued and valued by existing members. Religious capital refers to members' degree of mastery of an attachment to a particular religious culture (Stark and Finke 2000). Members master their religion by learning the teachings and rituals necessary to comfortably interact with others in their religious group: when to say Amen, how to follow the liturgy, and interpretations of key religious stories (Iannaccone 1990). The core teachings also serve as the foundation for religious activities (e.g., prayer, rituals, miracles, and mystical experiences) that build up emotional ties to a specific religious culture and provide a certainty for the religious claims of the religion. Indeed, the more actively and the longer people practice a religion, the stronger their preferences for that religion (Sherkat 1997). Over time, this religious capital becomes intrinsic to how members experience religion. Revising core teachings, however, can reduce a member's religious capital in at least three ways: decreasing their mastery of the religion, eroding their emotional ties to a unique religious culture, and threatening the certainty of their faith.

Smith (2009), said that " peripheral teaching can compensate for the lack of information that is caused by the limitation of attention and working memory during core teaching" (P.32).

Rich (2009), also said that "young children see auras much easier, because their central vision is not yet damaged" (p. 36). Once they go to school they are told to use their vision in a certain way, and gradually they lose their natural auric sight.

Rich said that for any of you out there who are doing speed reading or trying to learn it may already know of this. For those who are trying and having a bit of difficulty, or even people who have bad vision, this is a way to greatly improve your peripheral vision (looking out the corner of your eye) that will cost you nothing but a few minutes every day. This skill will help you with things like reading, driving, sports activities, even just looking out your window will feel so different because of the range of your vision.

The online learning resources used to support asynchronous learning include email, electronic mailing lists, threaded conferencing systems, online discussion boards, wikis, and blogs. Course management systems such as Campus Cruiser LMS, Blackboard, WebCT, Moodle, and Sakai, have been developed to support online interaction, allowing users to organize discussions, post and reply to messages, and upload and access multimedia (Bourne,1998).These asynchronous forms of communication are sometimes supplemented with synchronous components, including text and voice chat, telephone conversations, videoconferencing, and even meetings in virtual spaces such as Second Life, where discussions can be facilitated among groups of students (Angelo, 1669). Online learning requires a shift from a teacher-centered to student-centered environment where the instructor must take on multiple new roles. The constructivist theory that supports asynchronous learning demands that instructors become more than dispensers of knowledge; it requires that they become instructional designers, facilitators, and assessors of both grades and their teaching methods McQuiggan (2007).

Yet, some researchers have described inconsistencies between teachers' beliefs and their classroom practices (Calderhead, 1996; Kane et al., 2002). For example, Fang (1996), described a number of studies in which researchers found little relationship between teachers' beliefs and their instructional reading practices and suggested that "contextual factors interfered with teachers' ability to consistently apply their beliefs in practice" (p. 8). Results from a study of technology-using teachers supported this as well. Ertmer et al. (2001, P. 75), reported that "teachers' visions for, or beliefs about, classroom technology use did not always match their classroom practices. Despite the fact that most of the teachers described themselves as having constructivist philosophies, they implemented technology in ways that might best be described as representing a mixed approach, at times engaging their students in authentic, project-based work, but other times asking their students to complete tutorials, practice skills, and learn isolated facts". Teachers' explanations for these inconsistencies often included references to contextual constraints such as curricular requirements or social pressure exerted by parents, peers, or administrators. Scott, Chovanec, and Young (1994), observed a similar pattern in their study of the beliefs and classroom practices of 14 college professors. These results, then, point to the need for both researchers and practitioners to be aware of, and to account for, the potential influence of these types of contextual factors when examining teachers' beliefs or promoting teacher change.

Online exchange has also facilitated a greater connection between 'classroom' and 'fieldwork' in foreign language education as learners are now able to engage in 'semi- authentic' interaction with members of the target culture while still benefiting from the guidance and support of their tutors and classmates (Robert, 2010). While extensive periods of study abroad in the target culture continue to be seen as the ideal way to develop linguistic fluency in foreign language learners, online intercultural exchange is now increasingly being considered as an important tool for preparing students for study abroad as it allows them to experience intensive interaction with members of the target culture from the relative 'safety' of their own classroom. The European Commission's recent Green Paper on promoting the learning mobility of young people refers to online exchange as a tool for preparing physical mobility or as a second-best alternative for those students and young people who are unable to engage in traditional mobility programmes (European Commission 2009: 18).

Preliminary results suggest that these types of electronic models can be effective in increasing pre-service teachers' ideas about and self-efficacy beliefs for implementing technology in their classrooms. For example, Roehrig (2011), found that "pre-service teachers, who interacted with a set of multimedia problem-based scenarios in which practicing teachers discussed possible solutions to technology issues, showed significantly greater increases in their self-efficacy for teaching with computers compared to a control group" (P. 202). Other data supported the contention that users had changed their conceptions of how to integrate technology into their teaching. Ertmer and her colleagues (2003), found similar results with 69 pre-service teachers who explored Vision Quest, a CD-ROM that featured six classroom teachers who used technology effectively in their classrooms. Significant increases were noted in participants' ideas about and self-efficacy for technology integration. Although pedagogical beliefs were not specifically addressed in these studies, there is some indication that it may be possible to address teacher beliefs using similar strategies. Additional research, on the effectiveness of these and other methods for changing and/or refining pedagogical beliefs, is needed.

McQuiggan (2007), noted that "teachers' practice is more likely to change as they participate in professional communities that discuss new materials, methods, and strategies and that support the risk taking and struggle involved in transforming practice" (P. 3). "The establishment of a professional

learning community as a means to renew both teachers and schools is a common recommendation in the professional development literature" (Lave & Wenger. 2010).

O'Dowd (2010), stated that "Online exchange has also facilitated a greater connection between 'classroom' and 'fieldwork' in foreign language education as learners are now able to engage in 'semi-authentic' interaction with members of the target culture while still benefiting from the guidance and support of their tutors and classmates" (P. 22). While extensive periods of study abroad in the target culture continue to be seen as the ideal way to develop linguistic fluency in foreign language learners, online intercultural exchange is now increasingly being considered as an important tool for preparing students for study abroad as it allows them to experience intensive interaction with members of the target culture from the relative 'safety' of their own classroom. The European Commission's recent Green Paper on promoting the learning mobility of young people refers to "online exchange as a tool for preparing physical mobility or as a second-best alternative for those students and young people who are unable to engage in traditional mobility programmes" (2009, p. 154).

RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

On the basis of the assumption that writing skill can be enhanced through peripheral teaching in cyber environments, the following hypotheses are formed:

1. There is a noticeable difference between Iranian EFL test-takers' performance across peripheral teaching method.
2. Knowledge gained through peripheral teaching remains longer in learners mind.

METHODOLOGY

Participants

The subjects participated in this study were 80 learners of English as foreign language who were chosen from 120 students studying English at Navid Language Institute in Dehdashat, Kohgiluyeh and Boyer Ahmad province, Iran. All the population of students attending the Institute was administered a Proficiency Test (Fowler and Coe, 1976). Those whose marks fell between +1 SD above and -1SD below the mean were selected as intermediate level. Then, they were randomly divided into two homogeneous groups known as one experimental and one control group. Each experimental and control group (A and B) consisted of 40 subjects, respectively.

Instruments

The instruments used in this study to collect, estimate and analyze the data were a thirty-item test of Nelson English Language Proficiency Tests (Fowler and Coe, 1976) in addition to students' course books in language institute, Paragraph Writing. In fact, the afore-mentioned proficiency test was used to sieve the participants in terms of their proficiency levels. The rationale behind adopting this test for the purpose of the study was that it is one of the rare available standardized tests compatible with Iranian students to decide on the proficiency level. Two TV sets and a CD player were used as the educational technological devices to show the peripheral aspects of teaching in physical environment. To make the environment or the context of teaching in such a way that contribute to learners' core and peripheral teaching (Hofer, 1997). The cyber teaching representing an IBC constituted both on-line and off-line communication, live and corresponding through email with students. In order to compare the results obtained from the post-tests of the experimental and controls groups, a t-test was used to determine the potential differences between these two groups.

Procedure

From a population of 120 students studying at Navid Language Institute in Dehdashat, Kohgiluyeh and Boyer-Ahmad province, Iran, 80 subjects were selected in terms of Nelson Language Proficiency Test (Fowler & Coe, 1976) as the subjects of the study. Those whose scores fell 1SD above and 1SD below the sample mean on a proficiency test were considered as the intermediate level. The rationale for choosing the intermediate level was that there weren't enough students at other proficiency levels in the aforementioned Institute. Then, the intermediate ones were randomly divided into two homogeneous groups, experimental and control groups (A & B). So A was assigned to experimental group and B to the control group. First, the proficiency test was administered to both experimental sub-groups considered as the pre-test.

In the experimental group A consisting of 40 subjects, peripheral teaching were done in cyber environment, internet. Teacher was frequently in an on-line communication with students. He taught writing skills, and students were required to write passages based on the given topics and sending them back to the teacher through e-mail. The teacher read and corrected them, but at this time, as peripheral teaching, he added some phrases at the bottom of their writings without any explanation about them.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this section, the collected data is analyzed, using paired T-tests for all comparisons related to the effect of peripheral teaching methodology. The collected data was subjected to statistical analysis, descriptively and inferentially. To find out whether or not the differences between the subjects' means at this stage were statistically significant, the data were run through both paired and independent T-tests. To verify or nullify the stated hypotheses, the data obtained through Nelson language test (Fowler and Coe, 1976) as the homogeneity test and the post-test, tables 4.1 through table 4.3 all show different analytical procedures and phases. The early step used in analyzing data was to determine the homogeneity of the experimental and control groups regarding their levels of second language proficiency. So, the students' overall scores on Nelson language proficiency test were collected from their records. Table 4.1 shows the descriptive statistics, frequency, mean and standard deviation for each of the four groups in terms of Nelson language proficiency test. It shows that each of the four groups had approximately similar performance on Nelson language proficiency test, In effect, they show no apparent significant differences.

Table 4. 1: Sample Means and Standard Deviations for Homogeneity Test

Group	N	Maxi	Mini	Mean	Std. Deviation
Experimental Group (A)	40	16	5	11.67	2.20
Control Group (B)	40	16	3	10.80	2.60
Total	80	18	3	11.55	2.28

Results of T-test for methodology use

A T-test was carried out to compare the experimental groups' mean scores of methodology use. Based on these results, the hypotheses of inequality of means were approved, $p < 0.05$. Tables 4.2 and 4.3 show the mean scores were higher for peripheral teaching in cyber environment. Therefore, learners use peripheral teaching and the second hypothesis was verified. And also these tables show that there is a significant difference between the experimental groups' means and the first hypothesis was verified.

Table 4.2: The result of paired samples T-test for comparing mean of pre-test and post-test in cyber experimental group.

test	mean	Standard deviation	T value	Degree of freedom	significant
Pre-test	11.51	2.69	4.56	39	.001
Post-test	13.88	2.35			

Table 4.3 shows the mean of post-test scores for cyber experimental group and control group. The mean of the post-test scores of the cyber experimental group was 13.88, while that of the control group was 12.05. The t-value for the post-tests scores between the cyber experimental group and its counter-part control group was 3.05. The degree of freedom was 78. The significant difference between the post-tests scores of the cyber experimental group and control group was at the significance level of .05. This means that a significant difference was found between the cyber experimental group and its counter-part control group at $p < .05$. This result indicates that the cyber experimental group's mean was significantly higher than the control group's mean scores. Based on these data, there was a significant difference between the cyber experimental group and its counter-part control group with core teaching methodology and first hypothesis was approved.

Table 4. 3: the result of independent T-test for comparing mean of post-test in cyber experimental group control group.

group	mean	Standard deviation	T value	Degree of freedom	significant
experimental	13.88	2.35	3.05	78	.003
Control	12.05	2.97			

CONCLUSION

This study began with the assumption that peripheral teaching methodology could enhance the intermediate language learners' writing skills (Hofer, 1997). The instruction lasted for two months. In the course of this time, the researcher (teacher) employed the above-mentioned teaching methodologies and instructed the participants in the experimental groups how to use peripheral teaching in their writing skills. The participants in the control groups, on the other hand, did not receive any instruction on the use of these teaching methodology during their writing practice.

After the post-test, the results tables 4.2 and 4.3 indicated that the instruction of the peripheral teaching methodology did affect the intermediate language learners' writing skill. Namely, the writing ability of the experimental groups who had made use of peripheral teaching methodology surpassed that of the control groups in their groups' means.

The purpose of this study was to determine the effectiveness of systematic peripheral teaching methodology designed to assist students in writing skills. At the end of the course both the control and the experimental groups were administered the writing tests and the result of the T-tests were compared to find the effect of the peripheral teaching methodology. The results of the

study confirmed that the writing skills could be improved through peripheral teaching methodology (Tables 4.2 and 4.3).

The studies mentioned above revealed the fact that instruction of peripheral teaching methodology was pedagogically effective and precipitated the methodology use. If the teaching methodologies to enhance the writing skill are felt advantageous, it might be better to be limited to notifying intermediate language learners of peripheral teaching methodology which they have to be taught to make them better use writing skills.

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THE EFFECT OF EXPLICIT INSTRUCTION OF VERBAL CONSTRUCTIONS ON COMPOSITIONS OF IRANIAN EFL LEARNERS: USING MOODLE

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ABSTRACT

With the emergence of new computer technologies and computer-mediated language teaching, a host of research in recent years has been done on the effectiveness of Modular Object-Oriented Dynamic Learning Environment (MOODLE) in improving language skills of language learners. The aim of this study is to investigate the impact of explicit instruction of verbal constructions on compositions of EFL learners through MOODLE platform. The study attempted to examine the composition improvement by 84 students for the correct usage of structures: infinitive and participle constructions. The subjects were sampled from Islamic Azad University, Dezful, Iran from both girls and boys. Totally, 96 changes were traced and analyzed based on the degree to which students utilized teacher's revision. The resulting 96 changes showed that the participle comments were more influential on revisions than infinitive ones. The results of the study based on the given provisions may imply that language teachers should use more participle constructions than infinitive ones. Furthermore, the teacher's online revisions helped the students both learn in a relatively shorter period of time and reinforce their abilities and knowledge.

KEYWORDS: Verbal Constructions; English as a Foreign Language (EFL); Modular Object-Oriented Dynamic Learning Environment (MOODLE)

INTRODUCTION

Explicit instruction involves directing student attention toward specific learning in a highly structured environment. The instruction is focused on producing specific learning outcomes. It is highly teacher-directed and effective for providing information or developing step-by-step skills. It also works well for introducing other teaching methods, or actively involving the learners in knowledge construction. Topics and contents are not only taught in a logical order but also are

broken down into small parts and taught individually. It involves explanation, demonstration and practice. Providing with guidance and structured frameworks to the learners is one of its crucial factors. Another important characteristic of explicit instruction involves modeling skills and behaviors and modeling thinking. This involves the teacher thinking out loud when working through problems and demonstrating processes for students. The attention of students is important and listening and observations are keys to success. Moreover, explicit instruction is useful for introducing topics and specific skills. It provides guided instruction in the basic understanding of required skills, which students can then build on through practice, collaboration, repetition, hands on activities and developmental play.

Plus, it begins with **setting the stage for learning**, follows by a clear explanation of what to do, by **modeling** of the process, and by multiple opportunities for **practice** until independence is attained. Explicit instruction moves systematically from extensive teacher input and little student responsibility initially to total student responsibility and minimal teacher involvement at the conclusion of the learning cycle. In addition to that, in order to achieve high rates of success during explicit instruction, several design and delivery factors must be considered. Briefly, some of the factors that increase level of success include teaching material that is not too difficult or advanced for students to learn through more minimally guided teaching approaches, clear presentations, dynamic modeling of skills and strategies, supported practice, active participation, careful monitoring of student responses, and immediate corrective feedback. All in all, explicit instruction is an instructional strategy used by teachers to meet the needs of their students and engage them in unambiguous, clearly articulated teaching.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The teaching practice of explicit instruction has been available to classroom teachers since the late 1960s. The effective teaching practices research identified most of the components of explicit instruction as essential for positive student outcomes (Rosenshine & Stevens, 1986). Instruction (please see Archer & Hughes, 2011) should be overt, and students should have multiple opportunities to practice the strategy under quality feedback conditions before they are expected to use the strategy on their own. Ellis and Worthington (1994) voice their support for the fact that the students can become independent, self-regulated learners through instruction that is deliberately and carefully scaffolded. Kame'enui and Simmons (1990) also express that explicit instruction initially provides sufficient learning opportunities for students to get the verbal associations, concepts, rule relationships, and cognitive strategies being taught and later, during expanded instruction, it is used to help students apply knowledge.

Several recent studies and reviews in SLA research have shown that explicit second language instruction does make a difference in learners' acquisition of target language norms. Doughty (1991), for example, shows that attention to form, either via detailed analysis of structure or highlighting of target language structures in context, promotes acquisition of inter-language grammar (Doughty, 1991, p. 431). Ellis (1995) also argues that although much of the acquisition of language form is the result of implicit learning, explicit instruction particularly involving grammatical consciousness-raising is also conducive to second language acquisition. Lando (1998) found that explicit and intensive form-focused instruction encourages an increased and more accurate use of other features that are closely related to the targeted ones when they are combined with continuous meaning-focused practice of instructed features.

A structured, systematic, and effective methodology for teaching academic skills (Archer & Hughes, 2011), explicit instruction is one of the best tools available to educators to maximize students' academic growth. Rosenshine (1987) also describes it as a systematic method of teaching with emphasis on proceeding in small steps, checking for student understanding, and achieving active and successful participation by all students, specifically, when the instructed strategies are categorized in a simple schema that can be easily learned and remembered (Souvignier & Mokhlesgerami, 2006). In addition to that, the teacher's examples serve as the heart of the teaching experience since this is the only way we get the logical structures of verbal associations, concepts, rule relationships, and cognitive strategies by comparing and contrasting examples of them (Kame'enui & Simmons, 1990). Stevenson and Stigler (1992) also add that the more time is available for instruction the more teachers can teach, the more learners can be engaged in instruction, and the more they can learn, (specially Rosenshine & Stevens, 1986) when the students spend much of their time being directly taught by their teacher. Also, group instruction has been found to be the most effective and efficient approach to teaching basic skills, Paris (1986) asserts that students can learn about features of reading like declarative, procedural and conditional knowledge through direct instruction as well as by practice. Part of a teacher's job is to explicate strategies for reading so that students will perceive them as useful and sensible. Swanson, 1999; Swanson & Siegel, 2001 characterize explicit instruction by a series of supports or scaffolds, whereby the learners are guided through the learning process with clear statements about the purpose and rationale for learning the new skill, clear explanations and demonstrations of the instructional target, and supported practice with feedback until independent mastery has been achieved. Consistence with these findings, Mastropieri et al. (2003) identified a typical explicit instruction sequence that includes: (a) state the purpose, (b) provide instruction, (c) model, (d) provide guided practice, (e) give corrective feedback, (f) provide independent practice, and (g) deliver generalization practice. In a review of explicit instruction, during school-based instruction (Sterling-Turner, Watson, & Moore, 2002) suggest that direct training methods led to higher treatment integrity than indirect training methods.

Moodle

Nowadays the growth of technology has opened new possibilities for communication and information. The use of technology in classroom worldwide has changed the practices of teachers and students. Within many of these classrooms, the use of technological tools and resources supports not only students as they search for information, design products and publish results but also teachers for creating structure, providing advice and monitoring the progress. Researchers (e.g. Bransford, Brown, & Cocking, 2000) posit that a number of features of new technologies are consistent with principles of the science of learning and hold promise for improving education. They contend that new information and communications technologies (ICT) can bring exciting curricula based on real-world problems into the classroom, and provide scaffolds and tools to enhance learning.

The interactivity of technologies is cited as a key feature that enables students to receive feedback on their performance, test and reflect on their ideas, and revise their understanding (Roschelle, Pea, Hoadley, Gordin, & Means, 2000). Networked technology can enable teachers and students to build local and global communities that connect them with interested people and expand opportunities for learning. Indeed, one of the nowadays networked technologies is Moodle which has become a very popular among educators around the world as a tool for creating online

dynamic web sites for their students. It is a Course Management System (CMS), known as a Learning Management System (LMS) or a Virtual Learning Environment (VLE) and a “Free” web application that educators can use to create effective online learning sites (Moodle, 2013). Although Moodle can be used for many kinds of educational applications, it is based on socio-constructivist principles (Dougiamas, 1998; Dougiamas 2000) and most suited for an educational approach involving interaction amongst people rather than transmission of content. In spite of giving both teachers and trainers a powerful set of web-based tools for an array of activities, such as forum, messaging, quizzes, assignments, wikis, blogs, and databases (Cole & Foster, 2008), its positive impact of technology does not come automatically and it much depends on how teachers use ICT in their classes (Bransford, Brown, & Cocking, 2000).

Verbal Constructions

Since in this study the researcher wants to investigate the effect of explicit teaching of verbal constructions of participle”, and to + infinitives on the composition of EFL learners, he provides some information on these structures which are challenging and even problematic for the learners to grasp. First the definition of verbal; certain structures called verbal are derived from verbs but do not inflect for person and tense, nor combine with an auxiliary verb to form verb phrases. Verbals include “participles”, and “infinitives” (DeCpua, 2008). Participles are two types “-ing” and “-ed” which generally function as adjectives and sometimes as adverbs. They can indicate time and can be used in passive voice. Plus, the transitive verbs only can form “-ed” participles. Infinitives are the “to” + base verb which function as subject, object, adjective, adverb, and complement and can indicate time and can be used in passive voice, too.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS:

This study seeks to investigate, compare and answer the following questions regarding these two types of structures on the compositions of EFL learners in the Moodle context:

1. Does the explicit instruction of infinitive construction in traditional way have any effect on the compositions of Iranian EFL learners?
2. Does the explicit instruction of participle construction in the Moodle context have any effect on the compositions of Iranian EFL learners?
3. Does the explicit instruction of participle construction in the Moodle context outperform the infinitive construction in traditional way?

METHODOLOGY

Participants

The study was conducted in Dezful, Iran with 84 (N=84) intermediate Iranian EFL learners at Dezful Islamic Azad University including 43 males (N=43) and 41 females (N=41) with age range of 19-28. Not only were the participants university EFL students and had passed two semesters in English translation course but also they had the experience of studying English in junior high school and high school. Additionally, in order to guarantee the learners' proficiency level, they also took a TOEFL proficiency test. Then the learners were randomly assigned to two groups of 43 and 41 learners in each group. It should be noted that these two groups were taught by the same instructor; yet, the only difference was the type of given feedback treatment to each group. For this study, the students were asked to write a paragraph between 100 to 120 words on

verbal constructions. The first group (N=41) were reminded to provide some infinitive phrases in their paragraphs and the second group (N=43) to provide participle phrases in Moodle context. The instructor then evaluated the students' drafts. The first group received overt correction on the infinitive and the second on the participle phrases.

Instrument

In this study, a multiple-choice test designed by the researcher was used with the purpose of collecting quantitative data. Since the test used in this study was not previously tested or validated, it was necessary to check its validity and reliability before administering it. In order to check the validity, the researcher consulted one of the members of the thesis committee and a test designer who analyzed it for its validity. After assuring its validity, the test was administered once and the data was put into SPSS. Cronbach's alpha was used to check the reliability. The result showed the reliability of the test. The pre-test with the reliability of 0.86 and the post test with 0.80 reliability. The test was also pilot tested on 64 intermediate university EFL learners of English translation course at Dezful Islamic Azad University. As a result of pilot testing, a few of the items were modified and deleted. The multiple choice test used as the pre-test was developed to assess students' general vocabulary, grammar, listening and reading abilities.

Procedure

In order to accomplish the objectives of this study and also increase its validity, the use of randomization, pretest/posttest administration and treatment was essential. The following steps were taken to carry out the study:

In this study effort was made to select the samples randomly. For the samples to be homogeneous the multiple choice test comprising of four parts (listening, vocabulary, grammar and reading) was taken from 110 Iranian EFL learners at Dezful Islamic Azad University and the students' answers were marked from 10 to 0 (best to worst). 84 students with the scores ranged between 2.5 and 4 out of 10 were chosen as the main participants of the study with the mean scores of 3.0654 and the standard deviation of 0.71138. After the homogeneity test determined the level of participants' language proficiency, attempts were made to assign the participants in the two groups randomly. The 84 students were assigned to two groups of 41 learners (N=41) in infinitive + "to" group and 43 learners (N=43) in participle group. The controlled group (N=41) were taught in traditional way on the subject of 'Free Time' using infinitive section of verbal constructions and the other group, the experimental group (N=43) were trained in Moodle platform on the subject of 'Sport' using participle section of verbal constructions.

Before starting explicit instruction of verbal constructions, the researcher assured himself that the participants of the second group were computer savvy. He invited the participants in internet cafe and in a session or two explained activities such as uploading files, chat, forum, messages, wiki, SCORM packages, quiz, lesson, online text and offline activities. He also provided them the opportunity on how to physically navigate his Moodle site and gain confidence in posting and responding to that. Despite of the given information and clarification, some of the participants encountered few problems in Moodle context. But it didn't take long that they became Moodle savvy and knowledgeable in this regard. Then, this procedure went on throughout the following teaching sessions he had with them. As their confidence and their understanding of the options

available on the site on how to log on, maneuver the site, chat, upload files, and posting responses grew, the researcher asked them to register themselves as new users in his Moodle website and based on the given instructions on personalizing their accounts, they uploaded their profile pictures and personal details. Then, the researcher officially opened his Moodle class to his second group of the participants on 10 February 2013.

As the course progressed, the teacher started teaching each verbal construction to the participants of each group in fourteen sessions of sixty minutes twice a week (i.e. Saturday and Monday for the 1st group and Sunday and Tuesday for the 2nd one). During these sessions, the teacher step-by-step explained the participle constructions to the second group via a host of activities including online submission of texts, collaborations in a wiki, chat appointment and forum discussion accompanied face-to-face classes. Acquiring all the necessary information and feedbacks on the participle construction during the first ten sessions, the participants were asked to write a paragraph of 100 to 120 words on the “sport” topic using participle phrases of verbal constructions and then to post it. While doing this activity, the learners received not only the appropriate feedback on their writings but also they had the opportunities to review and improve their paragraphs by viewing the other learners’ postings and feedbacks. In the meantime, they engaged themselves in chat and message modules in both intra- and inter-class connection to exchange comments and interact with their teacher and every registered friend on the system and that helped them reflect on their responses and engage them in higher-order thinking processes. In the last session or two, the teacher asked them to review and revise their drafts and finalize them. Then, their paragraphs were given to two raters for analyzing and assigning marks from best to worst (10 to 0). At the end of the term, the participants were also asked on voluntary interviews to express their views and attitudes towards the virtual mode of instruction.

Statistical procedures

After collecting the data (i.e. the scores given to the participants by the raters), the mean scores and the standard deviations of experimental and control group, the degree of differences between pre-test and post-tests for each group were calculated. Then three independent samples *t*-tests were conducted, one is run to show the homogeneity of control and experimental groups and the other two are conducted to indicate the effect of explicit instruction on learner’s written paragraphs to examine both on topics of *Free Time* and *Sport* and also to see whether explicit instruction had the same effect on each groups independent samples *t*-test were conducted. The mean scores of each group were also calculated independently to see whether each group was equally affected by the explicit instruction or not.

RESULTS

The raw scores obtained from the pretest and posttest was analyzed through SPSS. The means, standard deviations and differences of means were computed for each group. Significance of difference between the mean scores of both the control and experimental groups were tested at .05level by applying independent sample *t*-test.

Table 1 reveals the descriptive statistics conducted to compare the mean scores of both control and experimental groups in pre-test and that shows the mean scores as 3.0610 and 3.0698 respectively. As the scores show, there is not any significant difference between the two groups and that proves the homogeneity between the control and experimental groups.

Table 1: The descriptive statistics of pre-test in both control and experimental group

Group	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
pre t-test Free Time	41	1.50	4.50	3.0610	.79996
pre t-test Sport	43	1.50	4.00	3.0698	.62280

Table 2 reveals the descriptive statistics conducted to compare the mean scores of control group in pre-test and post-test. The results indicate that the maximum average refers to the pre t-test Sport, this shows that the mean score of experimental group is higher than the control group.

Table 2: The descriptive statistics of control group in pre-test and post-test

Group	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
pre t-test Free Time	41	1.50	4.50	3.0610	.79996
Post t-test Free Time	41	3.00	6.00	4.4878	.72014
Valid N (listwise)	41				

Figure 1 shows clearly that the scores of post t-test Free Time are higher than the scores of pre t-test Free Time.

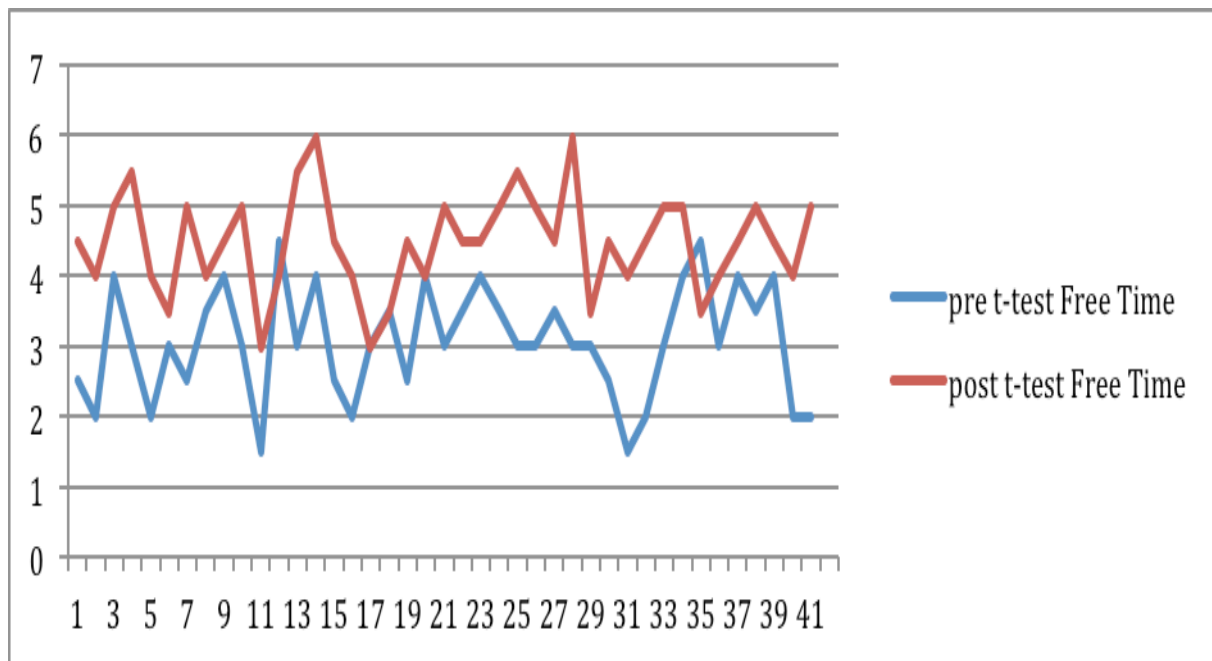


Figure 1: Patterns in pre t-test and post t-test Free Time

To find out whether there was a significant difference between pre-test and post-test in control group, an independent samples *t*-test was conducted. The results which are presented in table2 show that there is a significant statistical difference between pre-test Free Time and post-test Free Time. The significant levels are below the significant value $p < 0.05$. It is 0.00.

Table 3: The independent samples *t*-test of control group in pre-test and post-test

Group	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pair 1 pre t-test Free Time - Post t-test Free Time	-1.42683	.98464	.15377	-1.73762	-1.11604	-9.279	40	.000

Table 4 reveals the descriptive statistics conducted to compare the mean scores of experimental group in pre-test and post-test. The results show that the maximum average refers to post t-test Sport with a mean of 5.965.

Table 4: The descriptive statistics of experimental group in pre-test and post-test

Group	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
pre t-test Sport	43	1.50	4.00	3.0698	.62280
Post t-test Sport	43	4.50	8.00	5.9651	.94740
Valid N (listwise)	43				

Figure 2 shows clearly that the scores of post t-test Sport are higher than the scores of pre t-test Sport.

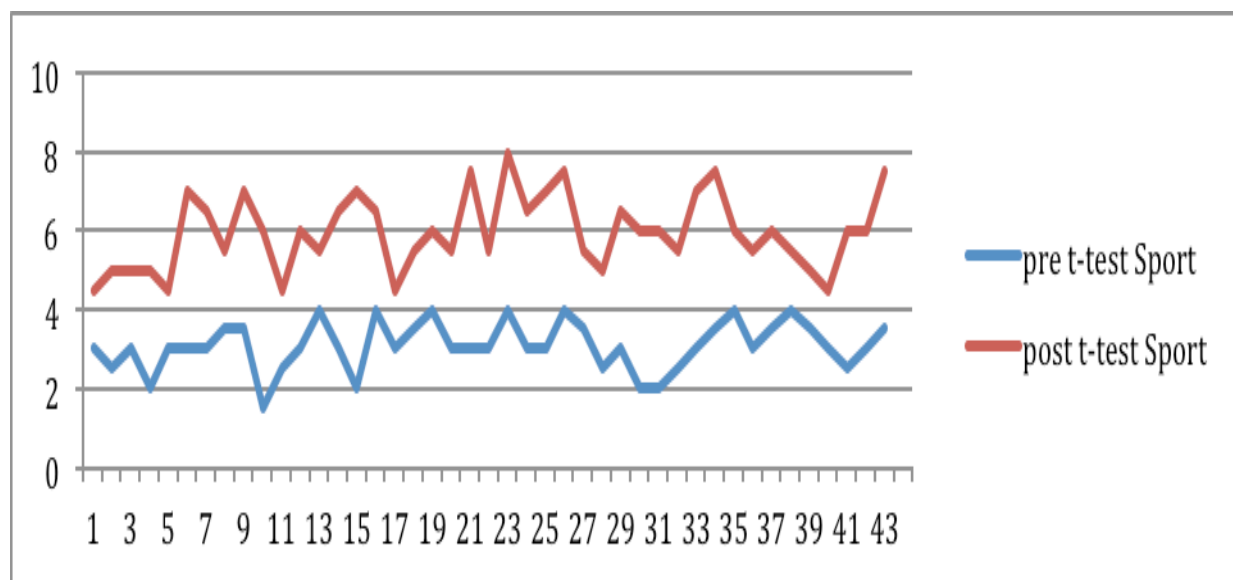


Figure 2: Patterns in pre t-test and post t-test Free Time

To find out whether there was a significant difference between pre-test and post-test in experimental group, an independent samples *t*-test was conducted. The results which are presented in table 5 show that there is a significant statistical difference between pre-test sport and post-test Sport. The significant levels are below the significant value $p < 0.05$. It is 0.00.

Table 5: The independent samples of *t*-test of experimental group in pre-test and post-test

Group	Paired Differences	t	df	Sig. (2-

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				tailed)
				Lower	Upper			
				Pair 1 pre t-test Sport - Post t-test Sport	-2.89535			

And also the post *t*-test of both control and experimental groups is compared through an independent samples *t*-test. The mean scores of both are 4.4878 and 5.9651 respectively. This shows that the mean score of experimental group is higher than the control group. And mean score of experimental group (i.e. post t-test Sport) is the highest mean among the other groups.

Table 6: The descriptive statistics of both control and experimental group in pre-test and post-test

Group	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
pre t-test Free Time	41	1.50	4.50	3.0610	.79996
pre t-test Sport	43	1.50	4.00	3.0698	.62280
Post t-test Free Time	41	3.00	6.00	4.4878	.72014
Post t-test Sport	43	4.50	8.00	5.9651	.94740

Figure 3 shows clearly that the scores of post t-test Sport are the highest among the scores of other groups. This indicates the superiority of post t-test Sport over the other groups.

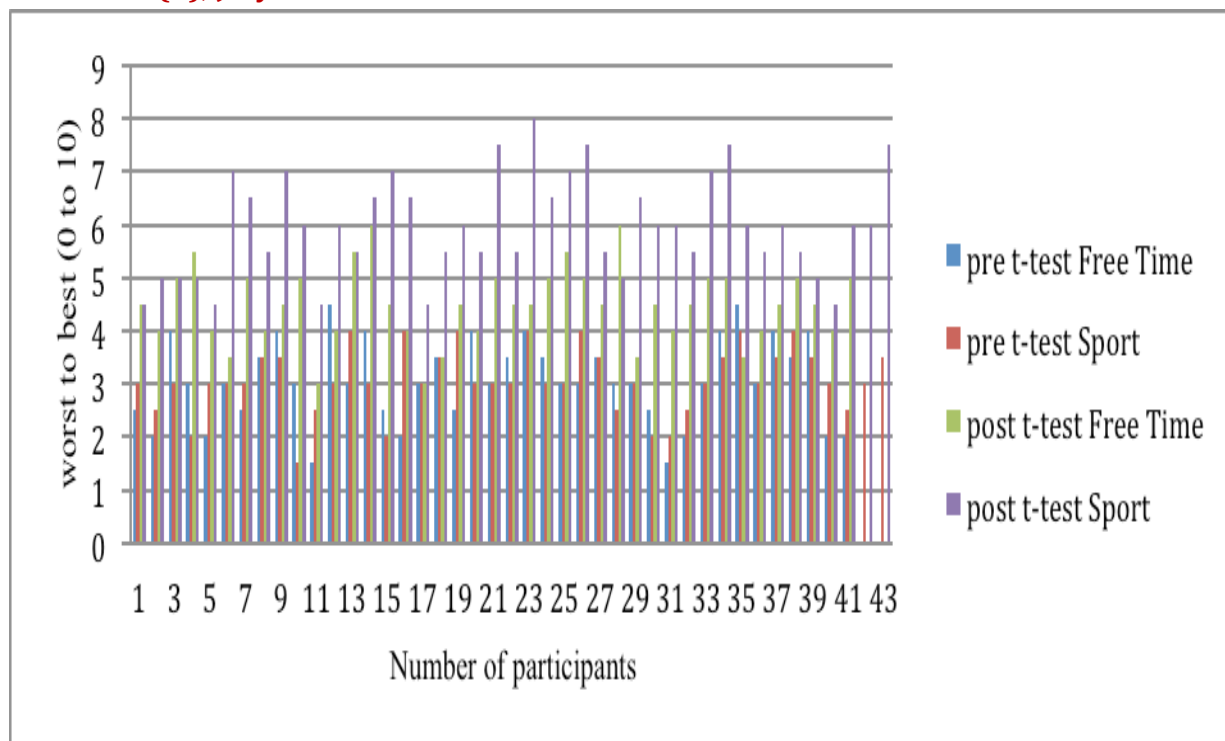


Figure3. Patterns in pre t-test and post t-test of both Free Time and Sport

DISCUSSION

The effect of explicit instruction of verbal construction on the learner's compositions can be shown by resorting to both mean scores of the control and experimental group.

The first hypothesis of the study asks whether the explicit instruction of infinitive construction in traditional way has any effect on the compositions of Iranian EFL learners.

To see whether this hypothesis is retained or rejected, we must look at the mean scores obtained from the infinitive construction in traditional way (i.e. Free Time). We see that the participants' mean score in the post t-test is 4.48 (SD=.72) while the mean score of pre t-test is 3.06 (SD=.79). This shows that the explicit instruction in traditional way has effect on the learning of infinitive construction. So, it can be concluded that the explicit instruction in traditional way can help learners to learn infinitive construction better. The results of the independent samples *t*-test also show that there is a significant difference between these two groups as the significant level ($p=.001$) is below the p value <0.05 . So, our conclusion is retained and the beneficial effect of explicit instruction in traditional way is again confirmed. The programs, needless to say, that are based on explicit instruction have proven effective for enhancing reading comprehension (Ross, Smith, Casey, & Slavin, 1995; Simmons, Fuchs, Fuchs, Mathes, & Hodge, 1995).

The second hypothesis wants to know whether or not the explicit instruction of participle construction in the Moodle context has any effect on the compositions of Iranian EFL learners. To retain or reject this hypothesis, we have to resort to the mean scores obtained from the pre t-test and post t-test of participle instruction (i.e. Sport). The mean of post t-test score of Sport group is 5.96 (SD=.94) while the mean of pre t-test score is 3.06 (SD=.62). As in the case of Sport paragraph learners, we see that the mean score of the participants taught through the Moodle context is higher and it reveals the positive effect of the results of the explicit instruction in Moodle platform. The results of the samples *t*-test also show that the significant value ($p=0.000$) is below the $p\text{-value} < 0.05$ and prove that explicit teaching of participle construction in Moodle environment has had an effect on learners' paragraph writing.

The last hypothesis asks whether or not the explicit instruction of participle construction in the Moodle context outperforms the infinitive construction in traditional way. Again to retain or reject this hypothesis we have to resort to the mean scores obtained from both the mean of post t-tests of participle construction (i.e. Sport) and infinitive construction (i.e. Free Time). The mean of post t-test score of Sport group is 5.96 (SD=.94) while the mean of post t-test of Free Time is 4.48 (SD=.72). As in the case of Sport paragraph learners, we see that the mean score of the participants taught through the Moodle context is higher and it reveals the positive effect of the results of the explicit instruction in Moodle platform. The overall analyses of the data release a definite superiority of the explicit instruction of participle construction in Moodle context over the infinitive construction in traditional way. So, our conclusion is retained and the outperformance of explicit instruction in Moodle context to its traditional one is also confirmed. These findings are in consistence with Moodle's many features which help to enhance the teaching and provide the students with a powerful learning environment (Cole & Foster, 2007, P.5).

CONCLUSION

This study reports a series of experiments regarding the effect of explicit instruction of verbal constructions on compositions of Iranian EFL learners in a Moodle context. The findings of the study are encouraging regarding the effect of explicit instruction of verbal construction on learners' paragraph writing. Therefore, we can conclude that providing the learners with explicit instruction in Moodle environment can effectively supply opportunities for learners to interact with instructors and fellow students, allowing learners to share ideas, build concepts based on existing knowledge, reflect on experiences and construct knowledge. Moodle provide collaborative tools like email, chat, discussion forums, virtual classrooms and reflective journaling features that assist student as they construct knowledge. Based on this conclusion, we suggest teachers of English using Moodle since it has more than 3,200 sites in more than 115 countries that help educators create online courses with a focus on interaction and collaborative interaction of content which is in a continual evolution. And, since the interest in Moodle is growing in the e-learning community with a user base of 83,008 registered and verified sites, serving 70,696,570 users in 7.5 million courses with 1.2 million teachers as a open source virtual learning environment, it's unwise to ignore its prominent role in today's learning community.

Furthermore, the researcher expects the teachers and educators to use Moodle as an awesome source of virtual learning, as its system is not only easier to use for both learning and teaching, but also it is more flexible to increase and develop its range of tools to meet needs of different groups in comparison to other online learning sites like Blackboard or WebCT. Moreover, the

other reason that the researcher places emphasis on using Moodle is the positive attitude that it will build towards virtual learning as it provides an exciting and interesting learning experience for the students and enables them to proceed at their own pace while having sufficient time to reflect on the learning materials.

LIMITATION OF THE STUDY

This paper is far from complete as the study is still in progress. However, sticking to this level of analysis the researcher found out that lack of learners' computer literacy and access to equipment to perform tasks was a major obstacle in doing this project. The low quality of internet connectivity and low internet speed were also a more hindrance than a help in the study. The other serious limitation which the researcher encountered was the low level of few participants' responsibility to set aside regular time study and to accompany in the research process with a full motivation despite of receiving adequate knowledge and training. And although the researcher found many supporting and convincing evidences to proceed with his research, further attempts, preparations and trainings should be made to escape these limitations.

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REPRESENTATION OF RACISM AND ETHNICITY IN AMERICAN BLACK SINGERS' TWEETS: A CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

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ABSTRACT

The typical media stereotypes American black singers as excessively racist and more ethnic than other singers. This study examines how three American black singers use twitter as an online social networking service to present their own personalities. The literature probes the spots of racism and ethnicity in the three singers' tweets. Fifteen tweets from each singer were collected, then coded, analyzed and described using critical discourse analysis. In addition, this study is a descriptive qualitative study on the representation of racism and ethnicity in American black singers' tweets involving (1) the themes of discourses that represent racism and ethnicity in American black singers' tweets, (2) the representation of racism and ethnicity in American black singers' tweet, (3) the meaning and values of American black singers' tweets. This study was conducted from September 2012 to May 2013. Based on the research findings, it was found that American black singers' tweets represent the maintenance of an existing group, and raising black people from the dominant of white class and the positions of power and stature in American society and they also have meaning and values of the concept of power to reflect the interests of the strength elite, online identity construction, and a place to counter the media stereotypes.

KEY WORDS: American Black Singers, Twitter, Tweet, Representation, Critical Discourse Analysis, Racism, Ethnicity, Power, Discourse

INTRODUCTION

Twitter is a social networking service which has emerged as a new medium in spotlight through latest happenings, such as a suicide bomber hits north Nigeria Catholic church and the portrait of Obama win the election. Twitter users follow others or are followed. Unlike on most online social networking sites, such as Facebook or MySpace, the relationship of following and being followed requires no reciprocation. A user can follow any other user, and the user being followed need not follow back. (Kwak, Lee, Park & Moon, 2010).

Kwak, Lee, Park, and Moon (2010) also define that Twitter and its power have new information for sharing. Moreover, there are two supplies on Twitter as the followers and followings, the relation between followers and tweets, reciprocity, degrees of separation, and homophile. Besides, the rank user by the number of followers, PageRank, and the number of retweets and present quantitative comparison among them. The ranking by retweets pushes those with fewer than a million followers on top of those with more than a million followers. Through our trending topic analysis we show what categories trending topics are classified into, how long they last, and how many users participate.

A twitter user keeps a brief profile about oneself. The public profile includes the full name, the location, a web page, a short biography, and the number of tweets of the user. The people who follow the user and those that the user follows are also listed. (Kwak, Lee, Park & Moon, 2010).

In addition, tweet is a post or status update on [twitter](#), a social networking service. Because Twitter only allows messages of 140 characters or less, "tweet" is as much a play on the size of the message as it is on the audible similarity to Twitter. (Nations, 2013).

A tweet is a post on [Twitter](#). Moreover, the act of writing a tweet is called tweeting or twittering. Tweets can be up to 140 characters long, including spaces, and can include URLs and [hashtags](#). The 140-character limit comes from the 160-character limit required by the short message service. (Rouse, 2009).

Talking about ethnicity and racism of American black singers related to twitter as a social networking service is that extremely visible, but often lack appropriate sites for personal expression of ideas and personality, unlike other public figures. In the interviews, as well as in-stage displays of emotion are highly analyzed, but rarely do singers have an opportunity to share or present other non-professional aspects of their lives. If Bond's (2009) analysis is correct, Twitter provides an opportunity for American black singers to present a realistic representation of the self.

As Goffman (1959) contends, the self-presentation aspect of an individual is similar to a stage drama, so a fair amount of "production value" should be expected in the form of identity exaggeration. This statement is grounded in the research by Grasmuck, Martin, and Zhao (2009), in the claim that individuals tend to present a more socially desirable image of themselves online; it is vital to note that American black singers' tweets in on-line may be a hyperbole of their true self.

American Black singers have an opportunity to present themselves in the way they choose and can challenge main narratives of black ethnicity presented by journalists, and other media members by tweets. This study opens the door for further exploration into how American black singers can contribute to their own representation by the mainstream media. Before there can be research claiming singers use Twitter and other social media to undermine main paradigms, it is appropriate to first investigate the ways singers are currently using this medium. This study investigates and analyzes the ways in which select three American black singers use twitter to perform their personalities, as they relate to stereotypical ideas of black ethnicity. (Stefanone et al., 2010).

A CDA outline reverberates with Twitter dialogic conversations because these dialogues incline to be complete with scheming tendencies of writers (knowledgeable learners, educators) aimed at influencing the psychology and social behaviour of readers / communicants (peers) through normalizing discourses. However, Twitter's dialogic complexity in the flexibility those communicants often have with respect to where to post their messages, who to engage with, and the language to use during interactions. Moreover, Twitter and other social networking services like

Facebook or MySpace particularity is predicated on its distorting between private and public discourse through 'imagined audiences' and 'collision of contexts' (Boyd, 2011).

Moreover, Twitter, Facebook and MySpace are also grounded in the connectives framework of knowledge production that values connected networks, co-generation of knowledge by novices and experts and use of complex, adaptive systems for knowledge generation (Siemens, 2006). Moreover, the informal and unregulated conversations on twitter raise critical questions about the exercise of academic authority and democratic expression of views when academics are involved.

A Critical Discourse Analysis framework resonates with social networking services like Twitter dialogic conversations by "tweet" something from those the user follows to receive the message and its mechanism empowers users to spread information of their choice beyond the reach of the original tweet's followers. These dialogues tend to be replete with manipulative tendencies of writers (knowledgeable learners, educators) aimed at influencing the psychology and social behavior of readers / communicants (peers) through normalizing discourses. However, twitter's dialogic complexity deceits in the flexibility that the communicants often have with respect to where to post their messages, who to engage with, and the language to use during interactions.

In addition, the purpose of this study is to analyze the racism and ethnicity of American black singers' tweets, as they related to black ethnic group in the social dimension of the text, namely, the function of the participants involved in the messages. In this work the researcher will use the critical discourse analysis (CDA) – an analytic method chosen to explore the social processes that (re)produce and reflect knowledge and power relations through discourses (Fairclough, 2003), rather than exclusively on the specific grammatical and linguistic use of language (Galasinski 2008; Hodges et al. 2008). CDA explores the ways in which social structures and practices constitute how specific topics (such as sexual health) are discussed (or not discussed) (Chouliaraki and Fairclough, 1999). CDA positions social structures (such as ethnicity and the social ordering of men and women) as systems of social relations that do not produce equilibrium but that are instead 'characterized by dominance, exploitation, struggle, oppression and power (Johnstone 2008:28).

The power of dominant groups may be integrated in laws, rules, norms, habits, and even a quite general consensus, and thus take the form of what Gramsci called "hegemony" (Gramsci, 1971). Class domination, sexism, and racism are characteristic examples of such hegemony. Note also that power is not always exercised in obviously abusive acts of dominant group members, but may be enacted in the myriad of taken-for-granted actions of everyday life, as is typically the case in the many forms of everyday sexism or racism. Similarly, not all members of a powerful group are always more powerful than all members of dominated groups: power is only defined here for groups as a whole. (Essed, 1991).

LITERATURE REVIEW

There are some studies which relevant with this reserch. They are related on the representation of black people in tweets. The studies used, among others, are, Rinkus's study, about an analysis of twitter usage by select black professional athletes presenting their online identities, as related to black hypermasculinity (2012). This study talks about the mainstream media stereotypes Black professional athletes as overly aggressive and more masculine than athletes of other ethnicities. In addition, it examines how three professional athletes use the micro-blogging service, Twitter, to present their own

identities through social media. The literature explores online identity formation, parasocial interaction, and masculinity in sports. Fifty tweets from each athlete were collected, then coded using critical discourse analysis, and deconstructed through impression management theory with a focus on the dramaturgical perspective. Results reveal that athletes portrayed more individualized identities when their sport was in the offseason, while athletes currently competing tweeted personal anecdotes less frequently.

Payne (2007) in his paper with title “How does the media portray black American”, he found that Many blacks seem to uphold their stereotypes. Many black rappers glamorize their lifestyle living only for material possessions, and bragging about being from the violent streets. Furthermore, many black reinforce other American’s view of them stereotypical by attacking white America whenever something goes wrong.

The power of dominant groups may be integrated in laws, rules, norms, habits, and even a quite general consensus, and thus take the form of what Gramsci called "hegemony" (Gramsci, 1971). Class domination, racism and ethnicity are characteristic examples of such hegemony. Note also that power is not always exercised in obviously abusive acts of dominant group members, but may be enacted in the myriad of taken-for-granted actions of everyday life, as is typically the case in the many forms of everyday racism. Similarly, not all members of a powerful group are always more powerful than all members of dominated groups: power is only defined here for groups as a whole. (Essed, 1991).

The relations between discourse and power are the specific forms of discourse, e.g. those of politics, the media, or science, is itself a power resource. Secondly, as suggested earlier, action is controlled by our minds. So, if we are able to influence people's minds, e.g. their knowledge or opinions, we indirectly may control (some of) their actions, as we know from persuasion and manipulation. (Van Dijk, 1993).

The process of data analysis in Critical Discourse Analysis is largely based on thematic analysis while also being highly situated in the context of text. (Phillips and Hardy, 2002). Moreover, Alvesson and Skoldberg (2009) describe a text is the object of study and the “ideation level” where the text is used as a means for exploring the underpinning ideas and beliefs of the participants. At both these levels, Alvesson and Skoldberg (2009) argue that the researcher should avoid seeking some form of ‘reality’ in terms of social relations, structures and hierarchies lying hidden within the text (a focus at what they describe as the social condition level).

FORMULATION OF THE STUDY

Based on background of the study, this study tries to answer the following questions:

1. What are themes of discourses that represent racism and ethnicity in American black singers’ tweets?
2. What is the representation of racism and ethnicity in American black singers’ tweets?
3. What are the meaning and values of American black singers’ tweets?

RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The Objectives of the study are to analyze the themes of discourses that represent racism and ethnicity in American black singers’ tweets and then describe the representation of racism and ethnicity in American black singers’ tweets and the meaning and values of American Black Singers’ tweets.

THEORETICAL OUTLINE

There are several theories used in this research. Some of them are based on Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) perspectives. The theories used, among others, are, Rinkus (2012) and Van Dijk's theory on CDA, especially in Critical Discourse Analysis (1998). The theory of themes of tweets related to discourse is taken from Eriksson and Kovalainen (2008).

METHOD AND TECHNIQUE

Method

This study focuses specifically on how select American black singers; Trey Songz, Nasir Jones, and, Anthony Hamilton use on social networking service to broaden their social worlds and identities as viewed by the general public. Taking a critical approach, a discourse analysis was performed on postings from three American black singers, each with more than one thousand followers. Data was collected from a specific starting date, with fifteen tweets from each singer in consideration for the study. Critical Discourse analysis is a tool used to expose implicit meaning not explicit within discourse; "a critical discourse consists of groups of related statements that cohere to produce meanings and effects...a critical discourse produces the 'truth' about objects" that are spoken of (Eriksson & Kovalainen 2008:230). Because this study used critical discourse analysis as its method, deep analysis was required from a contextual viewpoint.

Eriksson and Kovalainen (2008) caution those using critical discourse analysis as a method to avoid "non-analysis" by expecting "exhaustive" quotations from empirical data to stand alone without explanation; each post was given ample attention. The data included fifteen tweets from each singer as listed in the sample. It is specific, and will not necessarily allow a high level of generalization to other singers. However, as these singers have been purposively selected specifically for their probability to "talk about" issues that would remove notions of ethnicity, a critical discourse analysis of individual postings aimed to reveal a personality presentation consistent with the research question (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008).

In addition, this research is using a qualitative research with a descriptive method. Berg (2001:6) mentioned the qualitative research as. "*Qualitative research properly seeks answer to questions by examining various social and the individuals who inhabit these settings.*" He (2001:7) then continued his statements with. "*Qualitative researchers, then, are most interested in how humans arrange themselves and their settings and how inhabitants of these settings make sense of their surroundings through symbols, rituals, social structures, social roles, and so forth.*"

THE TECHNIQUE OF DATA COLLECTING

Each Tweet in the data set was read independently of the rest. Following this close reading, the researcher examined tweets from the American black singers separately and identified the themes of tweets that became present for each. By conducting a critical discourse analysis on the data, the themes of tweets were determined by exploring what the sample singers "talked about;" in which fields they entered into critical discourse analysis (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008). The themes of tweets were then compiled in a separate document, and given operational instructions for identification (as follows, alphabetically) from the table below.

Table 1: Themes of Tweets

Themes of Tweets	Explanation
Active Lifestyle	Any tweet indicating or referencing Exercise.
Declarative Statement	Any tweet with an “I” Statement, or statement professing a point or idea.
Event Attendance	Any time the singer attends or references attending a specific happening.
Expressing Excitement	Any tweet featuring multiple exclamation points, or words commonly used to express excitement.
Family & Friends	Any reference to family or friends. This includes pets, when referenced by name.
Humanitarian	Any tweet related to the interests of humankind.
Introspection	Any tweet related to the singers’ emotion, or self-examination.
Music	Any tweet referencing music or musical Artists of any kind.
Photoshare	Any time a singer Tweets a photo
Promotion	Any tweet referencing a specific brand or Product.
Question	Any tweet using a question mark, a rhetorical question, or asking followers for a response.
Request	Any time a singer asks his followers to “do.” something, including “retweet.”
Salutation	Any tweet using a greeting, or a valediction (Closing).
Spirituality	Any tweet referencing “god” or “prayer,” or anything related to religion or spirituality.
Sports	Any tweet related to “sport” of any kind.
Travel	Any tweet where the singer indicates he is intransit, outside of everyday routine.
World News	Any time a singer Tweets about something News worthy happening outside the US.

The process of data analysis in Critical Discourse Analysis is largely based on thematic analysis while also being highly situated in the context of text. (Phillips & Hardy, 2002). Moreover, Alvesson and Skoldberg (2009) describe a text is the object of study and the “ideation level” where the text is used as a means for exploring the underpinning ideas and beliefs of the participants. At both these levels, Alvesson and Skoldberg (2009) argue that the researcher should avoid seeking some form of ‘reality’ in terms of social relations, structures and hierarchies lying hidden within the text (a focus at what they describe as the social condition level).

However, tweets can be understood as systemic ways of groups of people talk about things together. Such repertoires a broadly based on the idea that there exists a range of language resources that a group or community draws on whose meaning is assumed to be commonly and unproblematically understood within that group. (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008).

In addition, Critical Discourse Analysis is particularly interested in the consistency and variance in language use (Alvesson & Skoldberg, 2009) and how such discursive devices can be used to ‘manage’, lead or influence discursive interactions. (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008).

By conducting a Critical Discourse Analysis on the data of tweets, themes of tweets were determined by exploring what the sample people “talked about.” (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008). Themes were

then compiled in a separate document, and given operational instructions for identification. They are (a) active lifestyle: any tweet indicating or referencing exercise, (b) declarative statement: any tweet with an “I” Statement, or statement professing a point or idea, (c) event attendance: any time people attends or references attending a specific happening, (d) expressing excitement: any tweet featuring multiple exclamation points, or words commonly used to express excitement, (e) family and friends: any reference to family or friends. This includes pets, when referenced by name, (f) humanitarian: any tweet related to the interests of humankind, (g) introspection: any tweet related to the peoples’ emotion, or self-examination, (h) music: any Tweet referencing music or musical artists of any kind, (i) photoshare: any time people tweets a photo, (j) promotion: any tweet referencing a specific brand or product, (k) question: any tweet using a question mark, a rhetorical question, or asking followers for a response, (l) request: any time people asks his followers to “do” something, including “retweet,” (m) salutation: any tweet using a greeting, or a valediction (closing), (n) spirituality: any tweet referencing “god” or “prayer,” or anything related to religion or spirituality, (o) sports: any tweet related to “sport” of any kind, (p) travel: any tweet where people indicates he is in transit, outside of everyday routine, and (q) world news: any time people tweets about something newsworthy happening outside the US. (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008).

DATA SOURCE

The data was statistically collected by a Twitter account created specifically for the purpose of this research; this newly created account followed the Twitter handle of each singer in the sample, so accumulating data automatically and instantaneously for analysis. Twitter is a free service, therefore the study was cost-free commercially; man hours spent were the main expenditure. The researcher had a laptop with Internet access; there were no fences in terms of data collection, aside from any unexpected web-page maintenance or similar downtime.

The writers took this research within 8 months (September 2012 – May 2013), that have relations to the subject taken in this research. These samples include three American black singers Trey Songz, Nasir Jones, and, Anthony Hamilton on Twitter. However, these three American black singers have created a stereotypical identity of the black male singer as overly dominance, racist, and ethnic in their tweets (Billings et al. 2002; Enck-Wanzer 2009; Lavelle 2010; Mercurio; Filak 2010). Goffman (1959) argues that when “an actor takes on an established social role; he (sic) finds that a particular front has already been established for it”. Focusing on the presentation of self through on-line identity allowed for sample data collection at a low cost. Due to the ease of access, researchers concerned with identity formation are turning more to social networking services, such as Twitter and Facebook (Bond, 2009).

These three American black singers; Trey Songz, Nasir Jones, and Anthony Hamilton are the great singers and so impressive. So, the media has created a stereotypical identity of them as overly racist and ethnic (Billings et al. 2002; Enck-Wanzer 2009; Lavelle 2010; Mercurio; Filak 2010). In addition, Goffman (1959) argues that when “an actor takes on an established social role; he finds that a particular front has already been established for it”. Focusing on the presentation of self through on-line identity allowed for sample data collection at a low cost. Due to the ease of access, researchers concerned with identity formation are turning more to social networking services, such as Twitter and Facebook (Bond, 2009). The data was numerically compiled by a Twitter account created specifically for the purpose of this research; this newly created account followed the Twitter handles of each singer in the sample, thereby accumulating data automatically and instantaneously for analysis. Twitter is a free service, so

the study was cost-free commercially; man hours spent were the main expenses. The writers had a laptop with Internet access; there were no barriers in terms of data collection, aside from any unexpected web-page maintenance or similar downtime.

WEIGHT AND RELEVANCE

The result of this study is expected to give contribution to the theory of Critical Discourse Analysis of racism and ethnicity of American black Singers in tweets. It also gives feedback to educators about the implementation of the themes of discourse that reflect racism and ethnicity of American black singers' tweets. This study is also expected to be useful for them as a reference to conduct further studies in Critical Discourse Analysis of racism and ethnicity in American Black Singers' tweets.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Results

This study focuses specifically on the representation of racism and ethnicity of American black singers' tweets in broadening their social worlds and identities as viewed by the general public. Taking a critical approach, a Critical Discourse Analysis was performed on tweets from three American black singers, each with more than two million followers. Data was collected from a specific starting date, with only fifteen tweets from each singer in consideration for the study. A Critical discourse analysis is a tool used to expose implicit meaning not explicit within discourse; "a Critical Discourse Analysis consists of groups of related statements that cohere to produce meanings and effects...a Critical Discourse Analysis produces the 'truth' about objects" that are spoken of (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008:230). Because this study used critical discourse analysis as its method, deep analysis was required from a contextual viewpoint. Twenty tweets from each singer was an appropriate amount to avoid becoming inundated with too much information, while still having substantial data for analysis. Eriksson and Kovalainen (2008) caution those using discourse analysis as a method to avoid "non-analysis" by expecting "exhaustive" quotations from empirical data to stand alone without explanation; each tweet was given ample attention. The data included all tweets made by singers listed in the sample, including any tweets deleted retroactively. "Retweets," when the singer posts the tweet of another user, were omitted. The sample is specific, and will not necessarily allow a high level of generalization to other singers. However, as these singers have been purposively selected specifically for their probability to "talk about" issues that would remove notions of ethnicity, a Critical Discourse Analysis of individual tweets aimed to reveal a personality presentation consistent with the research question (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008).

Though the study focused specifically on three American black singers, there are millions of other active Twitter users. Tweets outside of the data set provided a vocabulary database when understood meaning could not be derived from a specific unit of text. The characters of tweet are proposed for confronting when the coder was unable to decipher an implied abbreviation. Assuming "U R" is intended to read "you are" is not a complicated translation, however, converting more advanced Twitter "lingo" proved difficult. In cases as such, the coder consulted the Twitter lexicon. Using the Twitter search function allowed the coder to find tweets outside the data set using the same unknown abbreviation; where context clues then provided the appropriate definition for the unidentified term. If there was ever a question as to the meaning of an abbreviated word, the coder followed this process. Because Twitter has such a massive textual database, tweets within the data set needing interpretation had a high level of transferability to other Tweets in the Twitter universe.

After establishing the forms of Trey Songz, Nasir Jones, and Anthony Hamilton's tweets, the writers coded each tweet is maintained awareness of the time separating successive tweets which indicated a grouping in some cases. There was no limit on the amount of themes potentially present in any given tweet. For each tweet the writers established context through citation. This context allowed the researcher to make a more informed form choice when it was not explicitly clear what the singer was referencing. Tweets are presented verbatim from Twitter website and are followed by analysis from the researcher. They are presented literal from the twitter and followed by analysis from the writers. The following are examples of how each tweet was coded:

A. *TREY SONGZ*

1. 25th September, 2012: Obama

Themes of Tweets: Declarative Statement, Expressing Excitement, and World News

Trey Songz expresses his support to President Obama for the president election in the USA. He supports Mr. President because of the same ethnic with him as the black people. Moreover, this tweet represents racism and ethnicity. Through his tweet, he points out his stereotype about the power and existence of Obama as the Black people who is a great leader for the United States of America. He is also sharing his thoughts and entering into conversation with his fans about the president election.

2. 30th September, 2012: Some people are truly delusional

Themes of Tweets: Declarative Statement and Introspection

Trey Songz states his feeling to the people who are trusting in something that is not real. He is also giving out his point of view about the judgment. It represents racism and ethnicity.

3. 5th October, 2012: Don't you be scared!!!!

Themes: Declarative Statement and Introspection

Trey Songz just wants to show his good character to his fans and media by declaring his brave attitude. This tweet also bears the online identity, counter the media stereotypes, and sharing thought into conversation with his fans and media. This tweet represents racism and ethnicity.

4. 20th October, 2012: I used to drink Cristal them fuckers racists...

Themes: Declarative Statement, Introspection, Music and World News

Trey Songz posts one of the lyrics of Jaz-Z's song. He states about Jay-Z's references to Cristal champagne until 2006, the managing director of the Champagne house that makes Cristal told *The Economist* that he viewed his product's association with hip hop "with curiosity and serenity." In addition, this tweet represents racism.

5. 6th November, 2012: Obama - P.O.T.U.S

Themes: Declarative Statement and Expressing Excitement

Trey Songz declares his feeling about Obama wins the election for second term as president and he was so excited. Moreover, he points out his stereotype about the power and existence of Obama as the black people who is a great leader for the United States of America. Moreover, this tweet represents racism and ethnicity.

6. 4th December, 2012: Politics as Usual

Themes: Declarative Statement, Introspection, Music and World News

Trey Songz posts one of Jay-Z's song titles. Politics as usual means a disconnection from the people. It also means rich people keep on getting rich on the backs of the poor like black ethnic group. In addition, it makes easier for the upper-upper class to do whatever they want to increase their bottom line. This tweet represents racism and ethnicity.

7. 28th December, 2012: Birmingham lets get it!!!!!!

Themes: Declarative Statement, Travel and Expressing Excitement

Trey Songz is ready for his workout. He is so energized and happy for his stage. He uses an exclamation mark to the phrase "lets get it!!!!!!" It assumes a desire for motivation. In addition, he asks his fans of black ethnic group to watch his performance. Lastly, this tweet represents ethnicity.

8. 8th February, 2013: Back on American ground. LA never felt so much like home!!!

Themes: Declarative Statement, Introspection, and Travel

Trey Songz writes about his travel and feeling tough to going back to LA because of its horrible condition. Furthermore, it represents ethnicity.

9. 11th May, 2013: I'm me...everyday of my life.

Themes: Declarative Statement, Active Lifestyle, Introspection, and Photoshare

Trey Songz delivers his felling to fans and media about his personal life. This tweet represents ethnicity. Here, Trey Songz states that his life, personality, existence can represent black ethnic group in the world and counter the media stereotype, share thoughts, and enter into the conversation with fans. Moreover, it represents ethnicity.

10. 12th May, 2013: My favorite lady. I'd be nothing without you and the sacrifices u made for me. Happy Mothers Day to...

Themes: Declarative Statement, Expressing Excitement, Family and Friends, and Photoshare

Trey Songz tries to give love and care to his mother by delivering his feeling on twitter. In addition, it represents ethnicity.

11. 13th May, 2013: Hate it when they fakin

Themes: Declarative Statement and Introspection

Trey Songz implies his emotion to people who are basically not true to themselves and only do things to impress other people in an attempt to make friends. In addition, this tweet represents racism.

12. 14th May, 2013: I stole ALLL da kisses

Themes: Declarative Statement, Family and Friends, and Photoshare

Trey Songz implies the attention to his family's child. He tries to show off his well behavior. Moreover, it represents ethnicity.

13. 17th May, 2013: Extraordinary things... [@GreyGoose](#) [#CherryNoir](#)

Themes: Declarative Statement, Active Lifestyle, Expressing Excitement, and Photoshare

Trey Songsz shares a picture of what he did at an event by holding up a glass of vodka "Grey Goose – Cherry Noir" to his fans and media. Furthermore, he is more likely to engage with his fans by posting that picture. It delivers the online identity construction and counters the media streotype by showing his personality to his fans and media. It represents ethnicity.

14. 25th May, 2013: Today was a good day...

Themes: Declarative Statement and Photoshare

Trey Songz delivers his happiness to the media and posts his picture with a girl who is from black ethnic group. In addition, it represents the ethnicity.

15. 27th May, 2013: STORY...

Themes: Declarative Statement, Introspection, and Photoshare

Trey Songz states the journey of his life and he also wants to confirm to fans and media about his career path from the beginning until now as an American black singer. Furthermore, it represents ethnicity.

B. NASIR JONES

1. 9th September, 2012: Life Is Good / Black Rage Tour!!! Tickets on sale 9/21

Themes: Declarative Statement, Photoshare, Music, and World News

Nasir Jones brings "black rage" as the racial reality of America into the court by presenting "social context" or "social framework" evidence for his tour name. Haris (1999) has also described the black rage to judges as "social reality" or "racial reality" evidence. It describes a lawyer's gestalt, a theory of the case, an all-encompassing strategy that uses racial reality evidence to establish self-defense, diminished capacity, insanity, mistake of fact, duress, or other state-of-mind defenses allowed by the criminal law. Moreover, this tweet represents racism.

2. 2^{6th} September, 2012: Check this out! The kids of @ATLmusicproject performing I Can!
<http://youtu.be/9CmSwEAkqvc> #LifeIsGood #amplifyATL #ATL

Themes: Declarative Statement, Family and Friends, Humanitarian, Music, and World News

Nasir Jones posts a Video of the Atlanta Music Project's activity. He delivers his care and love for children who have passion for music. He also shares his concern to children from black ethnic group. It represents ethnicity.

3. 2nd October, 2012: Hey young world!! Go get my lil bro @MiguelUnlimite new album, out now!!
<http://smarturl.it/KD?iqID=t>

Themes: Declarative Statement, Family and Friends, and World News

Nasir Jones aims to give support to one of American black singers who have the same ethnic with him. In addition, it represents ethnicity.

4. 7th November, 2012: Me & Pops for The Gap. #LifeisGood

Themes: Declarative Statement, Expressing Excitement, Family and Friends, and Photoshare

Nasir Jones posts a picture of him and friends. They are from black ethnic group. In addition, they express their happiness after the show. This tweet represents racism and ethnicity.

5. 26th November, 2012: Happy Born Day Gov!!! @Jungle_QB

Themes: Declarative Statement, Expressing Excitement, Family and Friends, Salutation and Photoshare

Nasir Jones aims to a birthday greeting to his friend who is also from black ethnic group. In addition, he shows off a picture of him and friends of black ethnicity to fans and media. In addition, it represents ethnicity.

6. 30th November, 2012: If you missed it, here's me and @hamiltonanthony performing "World's An Addiction" on #CONAN: <http://bit.ly/UeHzmE>

Themes: Declarative Statement, Event Attendance, Family and Friends, Music, and Expressing Excitement

Nasir Jones delivers his happiness about his performance with one of American black singers. This tweet represents ethnicity. Nasir Jones also shows off his performance to his fans by posting a video.

7. 28th February, 2013: Proof that Michael Jackson is the Greatest Musician Ever..Just Listen 2 Baby Be Mine. Period.

Themes: Declarative Statement, Expressing Excitement, and Family and Friends

Nasir Jones expresses his pride to Michael Jackson. He is a legend in the entertainment world as a singer who is also from black ethnic group. In addition, this tweet represents ethnicity.

8. 27th March, 2013: Shout out to the legendary Arsenio Hall !!! HE'S HISTORIC

Themes: Declarative Statement, Expressing Excitement, and World News

Nasir Jones states his expression of gratitude to one of the American black actors "Arsenio Hall". He is a legend in the entertainment world. This tweet represents ethnicity.

9. 28th March, 2013: Bring Back @ArsenioHall!! Check out how I inspired him to bring his show back!! <http://nasirjones.com/news/140191> #Arsenio Much love brotha!!

Themes: Declarative Statement, Expressing Excitement, and World News

Nasir Jones expresses his happiness and love to Arsenio Hall after he inspired him. As people know that Arsenio Hall is a legend in the entertainment world as an actor who is also from black ethnic group. In addition, this tweet represents ethnicity.

10. 6th April, 2013. Alkebulan. So I've herd. I don't not kno if America had another name first. America sounds Fly tho. Africa to. I'm used to it.

Themes: Declarative Statement, Introspection, and World News

Nasir Jones writes information about America and Africa and their other names actually. He is also sharing his thoughts and entering into conversation with his fans who are from black ethnic. It represents racism and ethnicity.

11. 6th April, 2013: Africa's original name was

Themes: Declarative Statement, Introspection, and World News

Nasir Jones tries to communicate with his fans who are from black ethnic group. He shares the ethnicity topic such as an African history in his tweets in order to get along with them. It represents ethnicity.

12. 6th April, 2013: Knowledge & Power

Themes: Declarative Statement and Introspection

Nasir Jones describes his point of view about knowledge and power. He tries to convey that being knowledgeable is not just one quality, but is many and a process of learning, experiencing, knowing and understanding. When people have knowledge, they have to understand the truly of powerful itself. It also represents racism and ethnicity in this world, especially for black ethnic.

13. 8th May, 2013: Happy G'day to @GabeHeight !!!!! My nig G code!!

Themes: Declarative Statement, Expressing Excitement, Family and Friends, Salutation

Nasir Jones aims to a birthday greeting to his friend who is also from black ethnic group. In addition, he shows off his care and love in order to give the online identity construction. In addition, it represents ethnicity.

14. 14th May, Let's hang backstage at @GovBallNYC! <http://bit.ly/17KxhCa> Enter now at @omaze & help me support kids worldwide thru @unicefusa

Themes: Declarative Statement, Expressing Excitement, Music, and World News

Nasir Jones invites his fans especially from black ethnic group to join with his event at Governor's ball NYC. Moreover, it represents ethnicity.

15. 26th May, 2013: S/O the good homie @quietAZmoney!

Themes: Declarative Statement, Family and Friends, and Expressing Excitement

Nasir Jones states his love to AZ. He is an American black rapper. This tweet also contains the online identity construction and represents ethnicity.

C. ANTHONY HAMILTON

1. 2nd November, 2012: Set your DVRs Sunday 11/4 to see my @BlackGirlsRock performance. Honored to be one of their 1st male performers!

Themes: Declarative Statement, Expressing Excitement, Music, Promotion, and World News

Anthony Hamilton shares information about black girls' activity as dynamic young women with leadership potential to participate in the program, which offers lectures and workshops lead by world-class professors and other professionals across sectors. It represents racism and ethnicity.

2. 2nd November, 2012: Early VOTER?? I'm following YOU! Send me a pic (hide your address). #VoteEarly #Obama2012

Themes: Declarative Statement, Expressing Excitement, and World News

Anthony Hamilton expresses his support to President Obama for the president election in the USA. He also shows off his special vote to President Obama. In addition, he supports Mr. President because of the same ethnic with him as the black people. Moreover, this tweet represents racism and ethnicity. Through his tweet, he points out his stereotype about the power and existence of President Obama as the Black people who is a great leader for the United States of America.

3. 2nd November, 2012: NF these #EarlyVoters---> RT @NursePooka: @HamiltonAnthony me and my boo voted early! Obama2012 #Forward @BarackObama pic.twitter.com/heoCYUKK

Themes: Declarative Statement, Expressing Excitement, Request, and World News

Anthony Hamilton writes about his vote to President Obama.. Moreover, he points out his stereotype about the power and existence of Obama as the Black people who is a great leader for the United States of America. Moreover, this tweet represents racism and ethnicity.

4. 2nd November, 2012: RT @JESS3389: My daughter just said between voting @BarackObama & getting a follow from @HamiltonAnthony this is the BEST time of her life

Themes: Declarative Statement, Expressing Excitement, and Request

Anthony Hamilton retweets his fan's tweet about President Obama. His fan also states about her daughter who was voting for President Obama and getting a follow from him. Moreover, President Obama and Anthony Hamilton are American black public figures in the world. This tweet represents racism and ethnicity.

5. 4th November, 2012: Thanks to everybody who tuned in tonight to celebrate our women! Women of many shades, personalities (cont) <http://tl.gd/jt3e98>

Themes: Declarative Statement, Expressing Excitement, Humanitarian, Music, and World News

Anthony Hamilton expresses his gratitude to his fans who were attending in the black girls' event. This tweet represents ethnicity.

6. 4th November, 2012: Thank you Beverly Bond for giving us a platform to showcase our love you our sisters and our love (cont) <http://tl.gd/jt3f0g>

Themes: Declarative Statement, Expressing Excitement, Family and Friends, and Humanitarian

Anthony Hamilton expresses his gratitude to his friend “Beverly Bond” who supports the black girls in the world. He also tries to give the online identity construction in his tweet. In addition, this tweet represents ethnicity.

7. 4th November , 2012: And to all those who give kind words from the heart to me. I love you all sincerely! Thanks for (cont) <http://tl.gd/jt3fk2>

Themes: Declarative Statement, Expressing Excitement, Humanitarian, and Salutation

Anthony Hamilton writes about his gratitude to his fans always give kind words to him and support President Obama. He also expresses his special love to his fans who are black. This tweet represents racism and ethnicity.

8. 5th November, 2012: My friend our country need your vote. More than ever before we need to vote and get our family (cont) <http://tl.gd/jtaq0l>

Themes: Declarative Statement, Introspection and World News

Anthony Hamilton expresses his support to President Obama for the president election in the United States. Moreover, he supports Mr. President because of the same ethnic with him as the black people. This tweet represents ethnicity.

9. 5th November, 2012: RT [@BarackObama](#): The choice in this election is clear. Make your voice heard. Confirm where you (cont) <http://tl.gd/jtarib>

Themes: Declarative Statement, Expressing Excitement, Request, and World News

Anthony Hamilton shows his support to President Obama by retweeting President Obama’s tweet. In addition, this tweet represents racism and ethnicity. Through his tweet, he points out his stereotype about the power and existence of Obama as the Black people who is a great leader for the United States of America. He is also sharing his thoughts and entering into conversation with his fans about the president election.

10. 6th November, 2012: Use your Twitter influence to help turn out the vote. Follow/retweet [@Obama2012](#) and join the Twitter Team: <http://my.barackobama.com/twteam>

Themes: Declarative Statement, Expressing Excitement, Promotion, Request, and World News

Anthony Hamilton announces President Obama’s twitter team. He tries to persuade his fans to vote and join the Twitter team. It represents ethnicity as well.

11. 6th November, 2012: A beautiful family RT [@thecrimsoncouch](#): [@HamiltonAnthony](#) Excited to share this vote with parents! [#obamabiden2012](#) pic.twitter.com/ZIO1bFCs

Themes: Declarative Statement, Expressing Excitement, Request, and Photoshare

Anthony Hamilton retweets his fan’s tweet about her vote with family for President Obama. In addition, this tweet represents ethnicity.

12. 29th November, 2012: Don't miss my performance of "World's an Addiction" w/ [@Nas](#) tonight on Conan. TBS at 11PM!

Themes: Declarative Statement, Expressing Excitement, Music, Promotion, and World News

Anthony Hamilton gives information about his performance through Twitter, he asks his fans to attend the event. In addition, he would perform with Nas who is also an American black singer. This tweet represents ethnicity.

13. 23rd March, 2013: Me and Chuck Harmony! Mad talent!!
 Themes: Declarative Statement, Family and Friends, Expressing Excitement, and Photoshare
 Anthony Hamilton declares his friendship with one of American black public figures. This tweet bears the online identity and counter the media stereotypes about black people. Moreover, it represents racism and ethnicity.
14. 30th March, 2013: Austin it's you & me tonight. @urbanmusicfest <http://lockerz.com/s/288558967>
 Themes: Declarative Statement, Expressing Excitement, Music, Promotion, World News, and Photoshare
 Anthony Hamilton shares his picture for an event of Austin festival. This show would be performed by American black singers. Furthermore, it represents racism and ethnicity.
15. 25th April, 2013: Thanks in advance to every 1 who supports me my wife our family and the greater cause for us all. (cont) <http://t.l.gd/lll9en>
 Themes: Declarative Statement, Expressing Excitement, Humanitarian, and World News
 Anthony Hamilton expresses his gratitude to his fans who always support him and family. His special thanks go to his fans who are black. This tweet represents racism and ethnicity

Table 2: Themes in Trey Songz, Nasir Jones, and Anthony Hamilton's Tweets

Themes	Trey Songz	Nasir Jones	Anthony Hamilton	Totals
Active Lifestyle				
Declarative Statement				
Event Attendance				
Expressing Excitement				
Family and Friends				
Humanitarian				
Inspection				
Music				
Photoshare				
Promotion				
Question				
Request				
Flattery				
Spirituality				
Sports				
Travel				
World News				

The most common theme among three American black singers was “Declarative Statement,” which makes a common sense of power. Twitter was created on the basis of sharing thoughts and entering into conversation (McMillan, 2011). “Declarative Statement” occurred in forty-five tweets; the second most frequent theme was “Expressing Excitement.” It occurred in only twenty-eight tweets. In addition, “World News” theme was found in twenty-one tweets; “Event Attendance” was only one tweet and none of coded themes, occurring in “Question, Spirituality, and Sports.”

DISCUSSION

The research question asks themes of discourses that represent racism and ethnicity in the three American black singers' tweets, the representation of racism and ethnicity in American black singers' tweets, and the meaning and values of American black singers' tweet. They perform the concept of power to reflect the interests of the power elite, online identity constructions, and the media stereotypes, as they relate to racism and ethnicity. Literature suggests that mainstream media idealizes the racism and ethnicity as a characteristic of American black singers (Billings, et al., 2002; Hardin, et al., 2009; Trujillo, 1991). A Critical Discourse Analysis was used to detect themes present in the tweets of three American black singers. As the results of this study show, each singer in the sample uses Twitter to make declarative statements in a unique way. The 'talk' of the three American black singers shows racism and ethnicity as an overarching theme.

Using Twitter as a "front stage" for identity presentation, Trey Songz performs a personality showing declarative statement, active lifestyle, expressing excitement, family and friends, introspection and photoshare with his everyday life (Goffman, 1959). He also tweets about music and travel with his followers such as fans and media, expecting genuine care about his whereabouts and well-being. Nasir Jones presents declarative statement, expressing excitement, family and friends, introspection, photoshare with his followers to create the stereotypes of American black singers. He also shares his event attendance, humanitarian, music, salutation, and world news.

In addition, Anthony Hamilton performs his identity as a good singer. He always interacts on a personal level with his followers. He presents declarative statement, expressing excitement, family and friends, humanitarian, introspection, music, photoshare, promotion request, salutation, and world news. In addition, the most personal tweets pertain to "Expressing Excitement," and "Word News".

Moreover, the results of this study show that these three American black singers' tweets represent the maintenance of an existing group, and raising black people from the dominant of white class and the positions of power and stature in American society. These tweets also have meaning and values as the concept of power to reflect the interests of the strength elite, online identity construction, and a place to counter the media stereotypes. (Van Dijk, 1998).

CONCLUSIONS

The findings indicate a vigorous conversation surrounding the rebellion of a dominant media ideology of American black singers as racism and ethnicity; however, they show the American black singers presenting the concept of power to reflect the interests of the strength elite, online identity construction, and a venue to counter the media stereotypes (Enck-Wanzer, 2009). Moreover, a deep analysis was conducted on the fifteen tweets from each singer to present an answer to the question regarding racism and ethnicity of American black singers and the most common theme among three American black singers' tweets was "Declarative Statement," which makes a common sense of power.

Furthermore, Critical Discourse Analysis is an effective method for deconstructing the identity of Twitter users, if the researcher is prepared to make argues on the themes exposed during coding. Twitter is a moderately new phenomenon, and until more research is present. This particular study presents future researchers an opportunity to see what has, and has not worked, in regards to the online identity presentation related to Critical Discourse Analysis through a social networking service.

LIMITATION OF THE STUDY

There are no American white singers included in the sample, and only the American black singers are presented. Because the parameters surrounding Critical Discourse Analysis are not firmly distinct, it was essential to pay attention to what is considered non-analysis. Moreover, the researchers must be careful not to summarize or be partial during coding, and cannot conduct under analysis by simply discovering themes (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008:238). Consistent, deep analysis was the only way to correctly tribute the formulation of the study. If the researchers took a position on the content of these tweets, be it personal, political, or otherwise, the study would misplace validity. It was very important that when analyzing data of this type, the focus was on presenting the most accurate representation of the data possible. Taking a side in this study, making hypothesizes specifically to support the formulation of the study would have invalid all value of the study. Regardless of outcome, this research has rate in regards to understanding the social presentation of American black singers (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008:238).

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SMART ASSESSMENT IN CYBER ENVIRONMENT: A SWOT ANALYSIS (THE PRACTICALITY OF SMART ASSESSMENT)

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ABSTRACT

Despite stepping the world into the era of creating the e-learning content for educational system, e-assessment plays an important role in e-learning justice. The purpose of this qualitative study is to consider viability and practicality of e-assessment from multi-dimensional perspectives such as Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats (SWOT), based on the learners, teachers and administrators attitudes toward designing an ideal agenda for performing e-assessment in an actual e-learning environment, and in line with the constructivists' approach and Richard's maxims. To this end, three questionnaires, a five-point Likert scale one- for three levels of respondents- ranging from 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (no idea), are developed for data elicitation from participants, working in e-learning centers of some Iranian universities. Statistically, participants showed their interest in the strengths and opportunities as well as the operational values of e-assessment. But, the study has a deep challenge in its design; another challenging problem is the low IT literacy of the teachers and administrators and the final one refers to the misconception noble savage of the learners. Finally, this study predicts the future stance of development and expansion of e-assessment in the educational context with more collaboration among learners, teachers and administrators in educational settings.

KEY WORDS: E-assessment; SWOT analysis; Practicality, Viability

INTRODUCTION

Assessment is central to the practice of education. For learners, good performance on 'high-stakes' assessment gives access to further educational opportunities and employment. For teachers and administrators, it provides evidence of success as individuals and organizations.

Assessment systems are used to measure individual and organizational success, and so can have a profound driving influence on systems they were designed to serve.

Hersh (2004) advocates the position that assessment of student learning should be considered an integral part of the teaching and learning processes as well as part of the feedback loops that serves to enhance institutional effectiveness. On the other hand, the high price of paper around the globe has already made official administrators both in the ministry of education and in the ministry of Sciences; Research and Technology use e-assessment in educational environments instead of traditional paper and pencil tests. It should be emphasized that there is a significant relationship between how to perform e-assessment and what the outcomes are in education because use of lonely technology will not lead to effectively teaching-learning outcomes.

Based on literature studies, a number of studies have been conducted on the use of e-assessment in education but few studies have been conducted on the how to measure viability of e-assessment in education. In other words, Smart Assessment in Cyber Environment has not been practically studied in educational system of Iran. Therefore, there are particular gaps about advantage and disadvantage use of smart assessment and how smart assessment in cyber environment should be materialized for better implementation.

Thus, this study, by considering that paperless exams have become a need and a must in educational settings and learner orientation and autonomy through e-assessment, intends to shed some light on the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats of Smart assessments in higher Iranian educational system for performing viable and practical e-assessment within an actual e-learning environment via describe achievable agenda.

The focus of this study is still largely on creating the virtual e-assessment content for educational system based on application of constructivists learning theory and Richard's maxims. By considering that the individual and dependent factors such as attitude and belief of students, teachers and administrators, engaging in e-assessment, play as an important role in the development and implementation of e-assessment, this study uses SWOT analysis in order to enable higher ministry of Iran education to use of viable e-assessment environments in the teaching-learning process instead of traditional paper and pencil tests.

Consequently, this study will depict the road map of Smart Assessment in Cyber Environment and how the system can be improved and expanded in the educational system. Lastly, Conclusion and recommendations are drawn for further researches on the use of E-assessment model in E-learning environments that adds to the practical objectified value of this research.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

R.Q1: To what extent do learners, teachers and administrators supportive of smart assessments?

R.Q2: To what extent are the findings of such assessments generalizable and global or just local?

RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS

1-Neither learners, nor teachers and administrators have methodical and methodological conscious awareness of e-learning & e-assessment foundations.

2- Generalizability of this study is not possible.

THEORETICAL AND METHODOLOGICAL ISSUES

Assessment is not new to academia, with the roots of the current movement dating back over two decades (Martell & Calderon, 2005). In higher education, the first attempts to measure educational outcomes emerged around 1900 with the movement to develop a mechanism for accrediting institutions of higher education (Urciuoli, 2005). E-Assessment is a new online pedagogy that uses ICT to deliver education effectively and not about technology for technology's sake. E-Assessment is one of the domains of e-learning. It refers to assessment which is electronically delivered.

There are claims (Richardson, Baird, Ridgway, Ripley, Shorrocks-Taylor & Swan 2002; Ripley, 2004) that students prefer e-assessment to paper-based assessment, because the users feel more in control; interfaces are judged to be friendly; and because some tests use games and simulations, which resemble both learning environments and recreational activities. According to Hamilton & Shoen (2005), web-based testing has significant advantages in the areas of cost, ease of use, reliability, replicability, scoring, aggregating results, and data management. They explain that digital assessment measures can score themselves with great reliability and no subjectivity while making data available with immediacy. According to Page, project based learning can support critical thinking, multi layered decision making, goal setting, problem solving, and collaboration. As a result, many institutions are anchoring their assessment activities into meaningful scenarios so that students are being assessed on their abilities to apply learning into realistic situations (Page, 2006).

The existence of maladministration examination at any educational level has the greatest threat to the validity and reliability of any examination and consequently to the authenticity and recognition of diploma issued. McAlpine Mhairi's paper (2002) entitled: " Principles of Assessment" (CAA Centre, 2002) breaks assessment down into five main points or criteria that ensure this dialogue is worthwhile: clarity of purpose; validity/reliability; referencing (establishing a common measure across all candidates); the quality of assessment items/instruments; and grading, a process that relates directly to referencing.

The idea of having our assessments computerized is obviously attractive and e-assessment is emerging as a major driver for e-learning for both learners and staff. E-Assessment (sometimes known as Online Assessment, Computer-based Assessment or Computer Assisted Assessment –CAA) certainly has advantages. However, it also has some disadvantages and associated problems.

Research by Clariana and Wallace (2002) has shown that the use of CAA has a positive impact on the test scores of high attaining pupils, when compared to those from paper-based tests, because they assert that higher-attaining students more quickly adapt to new assessment approaches. Noyes, et al. (2004) suggests that lower-performing individuals will be disadvantaged when CAA is used because they assert that a greater work load and additional effort is required to complete a computer-based test. There is also the issue of defining requisite technical skills for students undertaking CAA such as, who should be involved in that training, and when should it take place, especially in the context of overloaded curricula, (Weller, 2002).

Plagiarism is a concern for many thinking of using CAA, (Weller, 2002); but Rovai, (2000) and Carroll, (2002) suggest that assessment design is the key to deterring plagiarism. O'Hare & Mackenzie, (2004) assert that there is a level of imagination and rigor required for the design of assessment online compared to that for more traditional forms of assessment.

Bull and McKenna, (2004: page 3) suggest a number of reasons that academics may wish to use CAA:

1. To increase the frequency of assessment, thereby, motivating students to learn, encouraging students to practice skills.
2. To broaden the range of knowledge assessed.
3. To increase feedback to students and lecturers.
4. To extend the range of assessment methods.
5. To increase objectivity and consistency.
6. To decrease marking loads.
7. To aid administrative efficiency.

Nichol and Milligan (2006) have taken this further to show how e-assessment can support these seven principles by providing:

Timely feedback, opportunities for re-assessment and continuous formative assessment to encourage students' self-esteem, statistics to help tutors evaluate the effectiveness of the assessment— questions answered very poorly can be re-examined in case poorly specified, timely information for tutors to be able to help shape teaching.

Research agrees that constructivism learning theory, which focuses on knowledge construction based on learner's previous experience, is a good fit for e-learning because it ensures learning among learners (Harman & Koochang, 2005; Hung, 2001; Hung & Nichani, 2001).

Honebein (1996) advanced a set of goals that aid the design of constructivism in learning settings. The goals are to:

- Provide experience with the knowledge construction process;
- Provide experience in and appreciation for multiple perspectives;
- Embed learning in realistic and relevant contexts;
- Encourage ownership and voice in the learning process;
- Embed learning in social experience;
- Encourage the use of multiple modes of representation;
- Encourage self-awareness in the knowledge construction process.” (Honebein, 1996 p. 11)

E-assessment has not been limited to certain methods but rather has been an eclectic mix of various approaches and techniques such as “Richard Maxims” that are developed from a good teaching system (1996):

- 1.The maxim of involvement (follow students' interest to maintain involvement)
- 2.The maxim of planning (plan and try to follow your plan)
- 3.The maxim of order (maintain discipline)
- 4.The maxim of encouragement (seek ways to encourage student learning)
- 5.The maxim of accuracy (work for accurate student output)
- 6.The maxim of efficiency (make most of the efficient use of class time)

7. The maxim of conformity (make sure your teaching follows the prescribed method)
8. The maxim of Empowerment (give the learner's control)

A major problem of learning and education policy in educational system is the separation of 'academic' and 'practical' subjects. Regrettably, learning and education policy is separated from 'practical' subjects. E-assessment has undoubtedly to play a major role in defining and implementing curriculum change in education. Governments have strong commitment to implementation of high quality e-assessment by good initial progress has been made in education system; therefore, there is a need to be vigilant that the design of e-assessment systems is driven by considerations.

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The world stepped into the era of online information and technologies that virtually have impact on all sides of human life including economics, education, social and cultural sides. Undoubtedly, the progresses made advances in World Wide Web and Open Source software have led to many changes in the areas of teaching, way of education and learning, triggering to the formation of a new teaching and learning agenda, termed as "E-learning". Expansion of virtual E-assessment is one of the most appropriate approaches for making higher education for students by easily and conveniently accessing to self-assessment.

Method

This qualitative study, for evaluating the E-assessment effects on improving learning quality, favors descriptive/correlational method for survey because variables are non-experimental. Therefore, the correlation of independent variables such as, Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats are considered with dependent variables which are the attitude of administrators, teachers and learners towards E-assessment. The qualitative data are gathered from learners, teachers and educational administrators through five likert-point questionnaires along with face-to-face interviews. Interviews are done at each selected E-learning center in order to obtain the participants' perceptions towards the effectiveness of E-courses. The qualitative approach was preferred as it would help the researcher to capture accurately the standpoints of participants in more facets. The whole process involved collecting information through the interview, asking questions about the data collected, decoding the meaning through a combination of techniques, analyzing and evaluating the conclusions and disseminating the findings.

Participants

As the aim of this qualitative study is to identify factors that affect the effectiveness of e-assessment in Iran's universities, statistical population (N=110) consists of three groups, including 10 educational administrators; 30 teachers and 60 learners from three Universities which offered their General English in e-assessment-based instructions format. It should be noted that unfortunately, they do not have enough IT literacy about e-assessment especially learners who are noble savage. The participants were invited to respond to items, receiving information in a face-to-face oral interview.

Instrument

On the basis of literature review, three questionnaires were developed to collect the necessary data from administrators, teachers and learners. The questionnaires covered four areas: 1) Strengths features; 2) Weaknesses features; 3) Opportunities features; 4) Threats features; main components of e-learning in higher e-assessment extension and educational system, which were measured on a five-point Likert scale which ranged from 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (No idea). Content and face validity of research instrument was done by committee members and some experts in this field. Questionnaire reliability was separately calculated by Alpha Cronbach coefficient for each question of three questionnaire templates. Based on the results of this test and the correlation coefficient, some questions were eliminated and some others were modified. In general, the reliability for the each questionnaire as research instrument was estimated respectively students' questionnaire=0.80, teachers' questionnaire=0.89 and administrators' questionnaire=0.76. The compiled data from completed questionnaires, saving at data bank, were analyzed by SPSS version 18 for description and inference.

Data Analysis

Participants' opinions were evaluated using a self-administered 40-item, likert scale questionnaire (items regarding Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats of E-assessment method). Administrators, teachers and students ranked these choices in an order of completely agree (score: 5) to no idea (score: 1) in a manner which best described their opinions. In addition, open-ended questionnaires as a research instrument inviting administrators, teachers and learners to reflect their viewpoints about implementation of educational programs through E-assessment:

I) Strengths: If the method attracts the administrators, teachers and students to follow the E-assessment eagerly (10 items: e. g. "E-assessment enables administrators, teachers and students to use a wide range of sources for discussing teaching subjects in an easier way than in traditional ways of teaching"; "Online assessments can provide increased instruction time for administrators and teachers for students").

II) Weaknesses: How do the administrators, teachers and students feel defenselessly in learning within e-assessment (5 items: e. g. "One of the noted barriers to use e-assessment is related to growing up professional candidates for planning and using online tests for evaluation processes"; "Lack of good experience in e-assessment history hinders new administrators, teachers and students from getting interested in its possibilities").

III) Opportunities: How do the administrators, teachers and students think about the effectiveness use of the e-assessment on learning outcome (12 items: e.g. "E-assessment can create co-operation in teaching among administrators, teachers and students"; "Using e-assessment make an opportunity for administrators, teachers and students to use new teaching methods in cyber teaching environments")

IV) Threats of using E-assessment: How do the administrators, teachers and students feel not enough ability to provide and use electronic educational materials in the e-assessment (8 items: e.g. "E-assessment courses can result in an overload of work that administrators, teachers and students find hard to cope with"; "the administrators, teachers and students specializing involved in e-assessment may see their work undervalued and downgraded by colleagues because it be considered more as a hobby than as rigorous academic teaching expertise").

RESULTS

In order to determine the factors and effective fields for E-assessment application development in educational system, the determined variables from administrators, teachers and students were entered in to factor analysis.

Descriptive Statistics of the students 'questionnaire

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Threats	40	8	20	14.70	2.356
Weaknesses	40	12	23	18.22	2.778
Strengths	40	20	47	36.25	6.134
Opportunities	40	20	53	38.90	6.961
Sum	40	70	138	108.08	14.759
Valid N	40				

The above descriptive statistics in the table seems to lend support to the fact that based on the completed students' questionnaire the students prefer items, related to the strengths and opportunities rather than the weaknesses and threats for implementing and improving e-assessment model in Iranian educational system.

Strengths: Statistics, related to the students' SWOT analysis

		Opportunities	Strengths	Weakness	Threats	Sum
Opportunities	Pearson	1	.63 *	.32 *	.44 **	.86 *
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.00	.04	.00	.00
	N	4	4	4	4	4
Strengths	Pearson	.63 *	1	.03	.32 *	.31 *
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.00	.	.62	.03	.03
	N	4	4	4	4	4
Weaknesses	Pearson	.32 *	.03	1	.35 *	.59 *
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.04	.62	.	.02	.00
	N	4	4	4	4	4
Threats	Pearson	.44 *	. *	.35 *	1	.67 *
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.00	.03	.02	.	.00
	N	4	4	4	4	4
Sum	Pearson Correlation	.86 *	.31 *	.59 *	.67 **	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.00	.03	.00	.00	.
	N	4	4	4	4	4

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

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

Correlation among independent variables in the table including: Strengths, Opportunities, Weaknesses and Threats indicates that there is strong correlation at 0.01 probabilities between strengths and opportunities variables in the filled out questionnaire by the students.

Descriptive Statistics of the teachers 'questionnaire

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Weaknesses	40	15	29	23.25	3.678
Threats	40	17	30	25.60	4.075
Opportunities	40	25	40	34.15	4.715
Strengths	40	28	50	40.90	5.683
Sum	40	97	147	123.90	15.293
Valid N	40				

The above descriptive statistics in the table seems to lend support to the fact that based on the completed teachers' questionnaire the teachers prefer items, related to the strengths and opportunities rather than the weaknesses and threats for implementing and improving e-assessment model in Iranian educational system.

Statistics, related to the teachers' SWOT analysis

		Strengths	Opportunities	Weaknesses	Threats
Strengths	Pearson Correlation	1	.749**	.497**	.744**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000	.001	.000
	N	40	40	40	40
Opportunities	Pearson Correlation	.749**	1	.443**	.645**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.	.004	.000
	N	40	40	40	40
Weaknesses	Pearson Correlation	.497**	.443**	1	.457**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.004	.	.003
	N	40	40	40	40
Threats	Pearson Correlation	.744**	.645**	.457**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.003	.
	N	40	40	40	40

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

The correlation table among independent variables of Strengths, Opportunities, Weaknesses and Threats, based on Pearson product correlation coefficient indicates that there is strong correlation at 0.01 probabilities among four independent variables in the filled out questionnaire by the teachers.

Descriptive statistics of administrators' questionnaire

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Strengths	10	25	40	32.60	4.949
Opportunities	10	22	45	35.10	7.156
Weaknesses	10	16	24	20.30	2.830
Threats	10	13	23	18.70	3.057
Sum	10	80	121	106.70	13.695
Valid N	10				

Considering the mean score of independent variables in the above descriptive statistics table, and based on the questionnaire from, filled out by the administrators, it seems that administrators' viewpoints about E-assessment application development in Iranian educational system at first

focuses on strengths variable and then on opportunities variable than weaknesses and threats variables.

Statistics, related to the administrators' SWOT analysis

		Strengths	Opportunities	Weaknesses	Threats
Strengths	Pearson Correlation	1	.646*	-.006	.542
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.044	.986	.106
	N	10	10	10	10
Opportunities	Pearson Correlation	.646*	1	.227	.586
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.044	.	.528	.075
	N	10	10	10	10
Weaknesses	Pearson Correlation	-.006	.227	1	.602
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.986	.528	.	.065
	N	10	10	10	10
Threats	Pearson Correlation	.542	.586	.602	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.106	.075	.065	.
	N	10	10	10	10

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

The correlation table among independent variables of Strengths, Opportunities, Weaknesses and Threats, based on Pearson Product Correlation Coefficient indicates that there is strong correlation at 0.05 probabilities between strengths and opportunities variables in the filled out questionnaire by the administrators.

Samples seem to be normal in our three groups; hence, analysis of variance can be favored to evaluate interrelatedness of the four basic factors in those three questionnaires.

Since, each group of participants is consisted a normal statistics society in this study, the researcher uses ANOVA, analysis of variances for evaluation of simultaneous effect of four independent variables on the E-assessment application development in educational system. By comparing means of strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats variables of the three questionnaires (administrative, teachers and students) with P-value more than 0.05 by means of ANOVA, analysis of variances it is easily indicative that they do not have any effect on each other.

Comparing means of strengths variable of the three questionnaires by ANOVA analysis (S=Students, T=Teachers and A=Administrators)

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
weakS	Between Groups	43.600	8	5.450	2.725	.439
	Within Groups	2.000	1	2.000		
	Total	45.600	9			
weakT	Between Groups	68.400	8	8.550	.267	.911
	Within Groups	32.000	1	32.000		
	Total	100.400	9			
weakA	Between Groups	70.100	8	8.763	4.381	.354
	Within Groups	2.000	1	2.000		
	Total	72.100	9			

Comparing means of Opportunities variable of the three questionnaires by ANOVA analysis (S=Students, T=Teachers and A=Administrators)

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
operationS	Between Groups	454.400	8	56.800	4.544	.348
	Within Groups	12.500	1	12.500		
	Total	466.900	9			
operationT	Between Groups	113.600	8	14.200	.580	.775
	Within Groups	24.500	1	24.500		
	Total	138.100	9			
operationA	Between Groups	448.400	8	56.050	4.484	.351
	Within Groups	12.500	1	12.500		
	Total	460.900	9			

Comparing means of Threats variable of the three questionnaires by ANOVA analysis (S=Students, T=Teachers and A=Administrators)

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
threatS	Between Groups	51.100	8	6.388	12.775	.213
	Within Groups	.500	1	.500		
	Total	51.600	9			
threatT	Between Groups	128.900	8	16.113	2.014	.499
	Within Groups	8.000	1	8.000		
	Total	136.900	9			
threatA	Between Groups	82.100	8	10.263	5.131	.329
	Within Groups	2.000	1	2.000		
	Total	84.100	9			

DISCUSSION

This study develops information about successfully application of E-assessment in education context based on social studies research. However, the current study reveals that the usability of E-assessment is questionable and it cannot be relied upon, specifically in social science research.

This major drawback supports that questionnaire is not a reliable technique for data collection, especially when there is a discrepancy between what goes on in the mind of the researcher and what happens in the cognition of the respondents.

Therefore, the following suggestions receive priority:

- 1) **Correct virtual communities selected for questionnaire distribution:** The researcher should attempt to select communities, familiar with the subject of the research. As a matter of fact, they were interested in the use of E-assessment in educational system but they have not enough information about merit and demerit in use of such concepts.
- 2) **Information overload:** Possibly, the message in each item about E-assessment in the questionnaire was not attended to and just reacted to by the potential respondents. On the other hand, all of respondents do not have enough discretionary time to ask more information about meaning of ambiguous items.
- 3) **Ease of refusing to participate in the survey:** Questionnaire surveys rely greatly on respondents' initiative power to participate in. But the questionnaire mode of survey makes it easy to refuse by the participants. A potential respondent could simply delete the message received, either clicking or not clicking on the question with no explanation needed. Omitted responses decrease the validity of subsequent statistical analysis. The absolute number of incomplete items is not of great importance as is the percentage of the total number of returned questionnaires not fully completed.
- 4) **Mistrust/fear of breach of anonymity:** Perhaps some people mistrust questionnaire surveys or fear that their identity may be revealed.
- 5) **Geographically diverse:** The researcher has to travel to certain locations to find people who belong to certain organizations as participants. Assistance from professional organizations will definitely help to obtain valid and reliable results. Questionnaire surveys definitely cannot research much more geographically diverse regions that online surveys can. There are more expenses required for either participants or academics.
- 6) **Great effort:** On the other hand, to increase the response rate and obtain reliable and valid results from questionnaire surveys, great effort is required for designing a questionnaire. On one hand, it is important to include all the necessary items in order to collect the information needed and to control the length of the questionnaire as longer surveys may yield a lower response rate.
- 7) **Limitations of the surveys:** This survey is not reliable because the researcher collects data at a single point in time and not considers improvements in the educational system at different points in time. As matter of fact, frequent periodic surveys, often impractical, are expensive and time-consuming, but they add to the consistency of the findings.

- 8) **Authenticity Question:** This survey has not real authenticity because generally it cannot reflect potential pitfalls application of e-assessment in nowadays educational system. However, a single cross-sectional survey cannot unravel the different effects of each of SWOT factors on each other; in fact it is very difficult on the base of result of this survey to prove that exactly which factors actually cause impediment to the viability improvement of this application.

CONCLUSION

This study supports that survey is not reliable enough, especially in certain social contexts, when there is a discrepancy between issues, derived from related literature and low literacy of respondents in some such issues. Hence, it is neither reliable and viable, nor generalizable.

Restrictions to this survey refer to gather data: 1) limiting access to large population of concern 2) lacking time and funding to carry out survey in different point of time 3) lower priority for carrying out a survey because of low IT literacy of participants to provide accurate, authentic responses 4) this self-constructed questionnaire with closed-ended questions may have a lower validity rate than other survey types 5) collecting data cannot reflect the individual respondent circumstances or the local culture that may be the root cause of respondent behavior.

The researcher confronted with real problems in collecting information from respondents because they were not willing to answer the questions since they believe they will not benefit from responding. Generally, respondents cannot imagine the full context of situation therefore they may read differently into each question and reply based on their own interpretation of the item – i.e. what is ‘agree’ to someone may be ‘disagree’ to someone else lead to subjectivity of responds. As a result, this study gets much more information about the educational system statues, what new and beneficial teaching techniques should be used, and how much progress has been made toward reform.

For better implementation of the flexible e-assessment system in educational system, a diagnostic assessment should be designed in the databases in order to identify preferred students’ learning styles.

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NATIVIZATION IN THE SPOKEN MODE OF COMMUNICATION: A STUDY OF THE INNOVATIONS IN THE PRONUNCIATION OF ENGLISH WORDS IN GHANA

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ABSTRACT

The state of English today is that it bears the marks of all the languages and cultures with which it has come into contact. The socio-cultural conditions under which English is used in countries where it is a second language make it inevitable that its forms will depart from that of the native varieties. Research has shown that some innovations in English pronunciation may be due to the contact with languages with which it co-exists. The influence of indigenous languages on English occurs at all levels of linguistic analysis (lexical, morphological, phonological, semantic, syntactic and so on); however, pronunciation deviations are probably the ones most readily attributed to mother-tongue interference. The present paper is on nativization of the English language at the phonological level. The nature of the nativization is the influence of the indigenous Ghanaian languages on the pronunciation of English words by educated Ghanaians. The findings of the current study reveal that in Educated Ghanaian English (EGE) most words are articulated on the basis of their spellings.

KEYWORDS: Nativization, Spelling pronunciation, Received Pronunciation, Educated Ghanaian English, Communication, Non-native varieties of English

INTRODUCTION

The growth and spread of English across the globe has given rise to many new varieties of English outside its native domains. The new Englishes have evolved into varieties which serve a wide range of communicative purposes and have developed their own character (Jenkins, 2003). With regard to the new varieties of English, Kachru (1997) establishes that the localized norms have distinctive linguistic, literary and cultural identity. Non-native varieties of English have developed through the imposition of English on populations that predominantly speak other languages. Speakers of non-native varieties are bilingual, having acquired English through the educational system (Bamgbose, 1997). With non-native varieties of English, the linguistic resources are creatively exploited by users to fashion out new forms of expression. Prator's (1968: 464) view on non-native varieties of English is worth stating here: "A second-language variety of English is a tongue caught up in a process that tends to transform it swiftly and quite predictably into an utterly dissimilar tongue." In Prator's opinion, a non-native variety of English should be regarded as a new type of English. More linguistic scholars have come to accept that non-native varieties of English exist in their own right and that they are suitable models for speakers in those nations for whom they are intended. Language is dynamic, and it is an aspect of growth and adaptation to cultural and linguistic settings that varieties of language develop.

The influence of local languages has left a permanent mark on non-native varieties of English in terms of code-mixing, code-switching, nativization, register-shift, loan translations and so forth.

What is needed is a concept of innovation which is a dynamic and systematic process involving not only language form but culturally determined as well as creative uses of English (Bamgbose, 1997). The process of nativization, by which non-native varieties of English emerge, consists in innovations in language form and language use. Linguistic scholars perceive nativization in varied ways. For instance, Richard (1978) uses the concept in the sense of acquisition of native-like features by a learner in a second or foreign language context. This perception implies a process by which learners become like native speakers in their use of a second language. On the other hand, Owusu-Ansah (1997) views nativization as a process of linguistic change in which a foreign language becomes an integral part of the culture of a society which employs it as an additional language while it still maintains many features of the language as it is used by the native speakers. With this process, the foreign language in question loses some of its native-like characteristics. It acquires some features of the languages in the community in which it has been introduced.

Peter (1994) also supports the latter view on nativization. According to him, before a foreign language is integrated into a non-native culture, it loses some of its linguistic features. Kachru (1992) also perceives nativization in his own unique fashion. According to him, once English was adopted in a region, whether for science, technology, literature, prestige, elitism or modernization, it went through various reincarnations that were partly linguistic and partly cultural. The reincarnations were essentially caused by the new bilingual or multilingual settings, and by the new contexts in which English had to function. Gyening's (1997) position on nativization is also worth noting. In his view, as English spreads to all parts of the world, it has become necessary for its non-native speakers to fashion out for themselves words for concepts which are in their indigenous languages and cultures but which are absent from the English language and culture. Achebe (1972) also talks about nativization in his statement on the English Language. Achebe feels that the English language will be able to carry the weight of his African experience. But for him, it will have to be a new kind of English which is still in communion with its ancestral home, yet altered to suit its new African surroundings. Achebe regards nativized varieties of English as new Englishes.

The present study focuses on nativization as a process by which a language, foreign to a community, acquires certain characteristics which were not originally present in the language as it is used by its native speakers. This nativization process, which affects the foreign language, takes place at all levels of linguistic analysis such as pronunciation, meaning, grammar (morphology and syntax) and discourse and may help to distinguish the new variety so created from both native-speaker varieties and other non-native varieties. Nativization inevitably involves breaking native-speaker norms which define standard varieties. However, Bamgbose (1982) advocates the need to guide the process of nativization along the path of a national standard that is both internationally and locally acceptable. The present paper was inspired by the observation made by Sey (1973: 143): "The pronunciation of Educated Ghanaian English (EGE) is markedly different from Received Pronunciation (RP) although the latter is supposed to be the model aimed at in schools". The current study is an investigation of the innovations in the pronunciation of English words by educated Ghanaians.

RECEIVED PRONUNCIATION (RP)

Received Pronunciation (RP) is basically educated Southern British English. It has become more widely known and acceptable through the advent of radio. The British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) adopted this form of pronunciation for its transmission; thus, RP is often identified with BBC English. This special function of RP in broadcasting, has led to its being the form of pronunciation most commonly presented in books on the phonetics of British English and traditionally taught to foreigners. The BBC is constantly bringing the RP accent to the whole of Britain. The more marked characteristics of regional speech, and in the London Region, the popular forms of pronunciation, are tending to be modified in the direction of RP, which is equated with the correct pronunciation of English. In the United Kingdom (UK) certain types of regional pronunciations are well established. For instance, Scottish English speech is universally acceptable while the popular forms of pronunciation used in large towns such as London, Liverpool, or Birmingham are generally characterized as sub-standard or ugly by those who do not use them. Features of regional pronunciation, without RP influence will be found in highly educated and less educated speech. There is however a modified version of the regional pronunciation which has adopted certain RP characteristics. Three main types of RP can be distinguished: the conservative RP forms used by the older generation and, traditionally, by certain professions or social groups; the general RP forms most commonly in use and typified by the pronunciation adopted by the BBC; and the advanced RP forms mainly used by young people of exclusive social groups—mostly of the upper classes, but also, for prestige value in certain professional circles. It can be said that if improved communications and radio have spread RP extensively, these same channels have rendered other forms of pronunciation less remote and strange. In fact, RP itself will not yield the requisite result if used in inappropriate social situations, as it may be construed as a mark of affectation or a desire to emphasize social superiority.

At this point, one can infer that RP is not spoken by everybody in the UK. Gimson (1962) has observed that speakers of RP are becoming increasingly aware of the fact that their type of pronunciation is one which is used by only a very small part of the English-speaking world. It is worth quoting, also, what Sey (1973: 144) says about RP “It must be remembered that native English-speaking teachers, preachers, administrators and traders who have from the earliest times come into contact with Ghanaians have not always been Received Pronunciation speakers.” Abercrombie (cited in Kachru, 1992) is of the opinion that RP does not reflect the social reality of England. He thinks RP does not necessarily represent the English of educated people. His reason is that while those who speak RP consider themselves educated, they are out-numbered by the educated people who do not speak RP.

There has always existed a great diversity in the spoken realizations of English in terms of the sounds used in different parts of the UK and other places of the world where English is spoken. Today, the English are particularly sensitive to variations in the pronunciation of their language. However, great prestige is still attached to RP—an implicitly accepted social standard of pronunciation.

THE SOUND SYSTEM OF LANGUAGE

Given that human beings have different physical features, in a sense, every individual has a physically different vocal tract. Consequently, in purely physical terms, every individual will pronounce sounds differently. There are then, potentially numerous physically different ways of pronouncing a word. Furthermore, each individual will not pronounce a word in a physically identical way on every occasion. Obvious distinctions occur when the individual is crying, is

asking for additional bottle of beer, or is suffering from a cold. There is a vast range of potential differences in the actual physical production of a speech sound and this phenomenon falls within the framework of phonology which is defined as the description of the systems and patterns of speech sounds in a language.

Phonology is based on a theory of what every speaker of a language unconsciously knows about the sound patterns of that language. Due to its theoretical nature, phonology is concerned with the abstract or mental aspect of the sounds in language rather than with the actual physical articulation of speech sounds. Phonology is about the underlying design of the sound type that serves as the constant basis of all the variations in different physical articulation of that sound type in different contexts (Yule, 1996). Phonology is also concerned with the abstract set of sounds in a language which allows us to distinguish meaning in the actual physical sounds we say and hear. The sounds /f/, /v/, /w/, /d/, and /p/ are abstract sound units which make the words *fine*, *vine*, *wine*, *dine* and *pine* meaningfully distinct. In fact, there are meaningful consequences related to the use of one sound segment rather than the others. Each one of these meaning – distinguishing sounds in a language is referred to as a phoneme.

The phoneme is a single sound type and it is represented by a single symbol. It is worth noting that slash marks are conventionally used to indicate a phoneme, /k/, an abstract sound segment, as opposed to the square brackets, as in [k], used for each phonetic or physically produced segment. An essential feature of a phoneme is that it functions contrastively. For instance, the two sound segments /h/ and /p/ are phonemes in English because they are the only basis of the contrast in meaning between the words *hot* and *pot*. This contrastive attribute is the basic test for determining the phonemes which exist in a language (Yule, 1996). From another perspective, if the sound /f/ is substituted for /d/, as in *five* and *dive*, there will be a change of meaning: the two sounds /f/ and /d/ will represent different phonemes.

While the phoneme is the abstract sound unit, there are several varied versions of that abstract sound segment regularly produced in actual speech. The different versions of the phoneme are referred to as phones. Phones are phonetic sound units and they are presented in square brackets. A set of phones which are variants of one phoneme are referred to as allophones of that phoneme. For instance, the [t] sound of the word *tie* is normally articulated with a stronger puff of air (aspiration) than is present in the [t] sound of the word *stair*. This aspirated version is represented as [t^h]. The [t] sound between vowels in a word like *waiter* is often realized as a flap which is represented as [D]. In the pronunciation of the word *eighth*, the influence of the final dental sound [θ] causes a dental articulation of the [t] sound. This is represented as [t̪]. Since these variations - [t^h], [D] and [t̪] - of the phoneme [t] form a set of phones, they would be referred to as allophones.

There are definite patterns to the types of sound combinations permitted in a language. Obviously, forms such as [vxrk] or [wcsɡ] do not exist in English. They have been formed without regard to some constraints on the sequence or position of English phonemes. Such constraints are called the phonotactics of a language and they are part of every speaker's phonological knowledge.

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LETTER AND SOUND IN ENGLISH AND GHANAIAN LANGUAGES

Generally, each letter of the alphabet represents a particular sound segment of a language. Many early orthographic systems were based on a correspondence between the graphic representation and the phonology (Crane et al, 1981). However, as the pronunciation of many languages underwent significant transformations over the years, the orthography did not always keep pace with the pronunciation. For instance, in English, there is inconsistent relationship between the orthography and phonology. Hence, for the vast majority of words in English, their pronunciations are different from their spellings. One letter of the English alphabet can often be pronounced in different ways. For example, the letter *a* is pronounced differently in the following words: *hand*, *fast*, *cane*, *water*, *dare* and *about*. There are a few selected words below to further illustrate this assertion:

<i>Come</i>	/kʌm/
<i>Bus</i>	/bʌs/
<i>Doubt</i>	/daʊt/
<i>Colonel</i>	/'kɜ:nəl/
<i>Sword</i>	/sɔ:d/
<i>Circle</i>	/'sɜ:kl/
<i>Computer</i>	/kəm'pjʊ:tə/
<i>Journal</i>	/'dʒɜ:nəl/
<i>Goal</i>	/dʒeɪl/
<i>Clerk</i>	/kla:k/

The examples above show lack of one-to-one correspondence between the graphic representation of the word and the pronunciation. Giegerich (1992) also observes that a sound segment in English may be represented by different letters in different words. For instance, the sound /ʃ/ has varied graphic representations in different words: *shine*, *mansion*, *mission*, *duration*, *ocean*. Similarly, in words like *farm*, *doff*, *cough*, *philosophy* and *lieutenant*, different letters represent the same phoneme /f/. It is also worth noting that the letter *g* is pronounced differently in words like: *girdle* [gɜ:dl], *gist* [dʒɪst] and *genre* [ʒɑ:n]. A group of letters, for example, *ch* is pronounced differently in different words: *church* [tʃɜ:tʃ], *christmas* ['krɪsməs] and *charade* [ʃə'ra:d]. All these illustrations substantiate the lack of correlation between the spelling and the pronunciation of many English words. This inconsistent relationship between the sounds of words and their spelling in English has immense influence on the pronunciation of English words in non-native varieties of English like Educated Ghanaian English.

In contrast to the inconsistency in the correlation between English orthography and phonology is the display of correspondence between the graphic representation and pronunciation in some indigenous Ghanaian languages. For instance, most words in Ga (a Ghanaian language) are pronounced on the basis of their spelling. The Ga people are the ethnic or traditional group in Accra, the capital of Ghana. The Ga language is one of the minority languages of Ghana but because Accra is the centre of governance and economic activities, many Ghanaians actually speak Ga as a second language or at least demonstrate a considerable degree of communicative competence in it (Guerini, 2007). The one-to-one correspondence between the orthography and the phonology of the Ga language is illustrated below:

Ga	English
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<i>Ba</i>	Come
<i>Yaa</i>	Go
<i>La</i>	Sing
<i>Nu</i>	Water
<i>jara</i>	Market
<i>Kaa</i>	Crab
<i>Yaa wɔ</i>	Go to bed
<i>Baa ye niŋ</i>	Come and let's eat
<i>Ta shi</i>	Sit
<i>Yaa fo nu</i>	Go and fetch water

A similar correspondence between spelling and pronunciation exist in Fante; a Ghanaian language spoken in the Central and Western Regions of Ghana. In Fante, words are pronounced based on their spelling. The following are examples:

Fante	English
<i>Edziban</i>	Food
<i>Gyaadze</i>	Kitchen
<i>Buukuu</i>	Book
<i>nsu</i>	Water
<i>kɔ</i>	Go
<i>Bra</i>	Come
<i>Dzi</i>	Eat
<i>Miridzidzi</i>	I'm eating
<i>Merekyere adze</i>	I'm teaching
<i>Merekyerew</i>	I'm writing

There are many other Ghanaian languages like Ewe in the south, Konkomba in the north and so forth, in which lexical items are articulated on the basis of their spelling. This one-to-one correspondence between the orthography and the phonology of some indigenous Ghanaian languages has influenced the pronunciation of English words. The fact is that the indigenous languages in Ghana are acquired by the majority of Ghanaians at the early childhood stages and spoken in the home environment before they come into contact with the English language (Ngula, 2011). By the time they begin learning English, they would have already acquired the rules, structures and phonology of their first language (L1). It therefore becomes very easy for the acquired rules, structures and phonology of the L1 to be transferred into English. Bamgbose (1971:47) also supports this assertion: According to him, the influence of the local languages on English (as a second language) is immense because certain features of the local languages – phonological, grammatical and lexical – tend to be transferred into English. In Ghana, L1 influence plays a significant role in the spelling pronunciation encountered in the variety of English spoken. L1, indeed, serves as background or preexisting knowledge upon which inferences and predictions can be made to facilitate transfer. Hakuta (1990) also talks about transfer of linguistics features. According to him, native language proficiency is a strong indicator of second language development.

METHODOLOGY

Research Design and Instrument

Sociologists and social psychologists are likely to depend on data gathered by the aid of questionnaire or the observation of the behavior of people under controlled experimental situations. The results are realized as numerical corpus analyzed statistically. Anthropologists collect data from uncontrolled human behavior; they employ the research technique of participant observation. Gal (1979) stayed for a year in Oberwart in Eastern Austria living with a local family for the purpose of collecting data for research on language choice and shift. Blom and Gumperz (1972), Gillian Sankoff (1980), Rubin (1968) and Dorian (1981) spent similar long periods staying in the communities in which they were conducting their investigations.

The present study adopted the ethnographic research design. This research design is based on the anthropological research technique of participant observation. According to Fasold (1984), although the subjects of the research may be interviewed and questionnaire data collected, these data are considered strictly supplementary; the main core of data consists of the observation of people's behavior as they carry on their everyday lives. Observation was the main research instrument used in the present study. It provided an empirical basis for capturing language used in its social context. The method of observation used was participant and non-participant. By means of the observation tool, the current researcher gathered data that reflected the way some educated Ghanaians pronounce English words.

Data Collection Procedure

The current study was based on observation of the pronunciation of English words by a cross-section of educated Ghanaians over a period of four years. The researcher observed that many English words were pronounced based on their spelling. This phonetic characteristic was due to the influence of the Ghanaian languages on English.

During the four year period of the study the researcher made an inventory of words that were pronounced based on their spelling. The investigator first noted the words that were articulated in a manner that is different from Received Pronunciation. He then did a phonetic transcription of the words based on their actual articulation. In fact, the researcher captured in his note pad only words whose pronunciations were based on their orthography. The words in focus were identified by means of auditory perception. The researcher was able to make a distinction between Received Pronunciation and spelling pronunciation due to his English background. He has his first and second degrees in English and he is currently pursuing his PhD in English at the University of Cape Coast, Ghana.

As a university teacher, the researcher recorded examples of spelling pronunciation from students' conversations and speeches. The researcher also recorded innovative pronunciations that were different from Received Pronunciation at such functions like presentation of manifestoes at the students' halls of residence and during Student Representative Council (SRC) executive elections. As the current investigator interacted with university administrators and colleague lecturers in informal conversations, at formal meetings and other discourse situations, he recorded the nativized versions in the pronunciations of English words. Spelling pronunciations were also recorded from both local and national radio and television networks. Innovative pronunciations different from Received Pronunciation were also recorded from sermons of clergymen presented during church services.

DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

This segment of the paper analyses the corpus of the research and discusses the findings of the study. The table below shows the RP versions of the words in focus and also displays the nativized versions for comparative analysis of the data.

Word	Received Pronunciation	Nativised Version
Staunch	/stɔ:ntʃ/	[stantʃ]
Launch	/lɔ:ntʃ/	[lantʃ]
Method	/'meθəd/	[metəd]
Govern	/'gʌvn/	[gəvn]
Discover	/dɪs'kʌvə/	[dɪskəvə]
None	/nʌn/	[nən]
Colour	/'kʌlə/	[kələ]
Thwart	/θwɔ:t/	[θwat]
Other	/'ʌðə/	[ɔdə]
Quality	/'kwɒlətɪ/	[kwalitɪ]
Quantity	/'kwɒntətɪ/	/kwantɪtɪ/
Honest	/'ɒnɪst/	[honest]
Honey	/'hʌni/	[həni]
Alumni	/ə'lamnaɪ/	[alumni]
Young	/jʌŋ/	[jəŋg]
Deposit	/dɪ'pɒzɪt/	[depəsɪt]
Wrong	/rɒŋ/	[rəŋg]
Plumber	/'plʌmə/	[pləmbə]
Ladle	/'leɪdl/	[ladl]
Worry	/'wʌrɪ/	[wəri]
Monday	/'mʌndɪ/	[mɒndɪ]
Wednesday	/'wenzdɪ/	[wenesdɪ]
Adjourn	/ə'dʒɜ:n/	[ajən]
Attorney	/ə'tɜ:nɪ/	[atənɪ]
Dove	/dʌv/	[dov]
Love	/lʌv/	[ləv]
Glove	/glʌv/	[gləv]
Monkey	/'mʌŋkɪ /	[mənki]
Oven	/'ʌvn/	[ovɪn]
Comfort	/'kʌmfət/	[kəmfət]
Tongue	/tʌŋ/	[təŋg]
Among	/ə'mʌŋ/	[aməŋg]
Company	/'kʌmpəni/	[kəmpenɪ]
Blood	/blʌd/	[bləd]
Flood	/flʌd/	[fləd]
Brother	/'brʌðə/	[brədə]
Mother	/'mʌðə/	[mədə]
Gesture	/'dʒestʃə/	[gestʃə]
Gear	/gɪə/	[dʒɪə]
Wander	/'wɒndə/	[wəndə]
Wonder	/'wʌndə/	[wəndə]
Enjoy	/ɪn'dʒɔɪ/	[endʒɔɪ]

Incumbent	/ɪnˈkʌmbənt/	[ɪnkʌbɛnt]
Trouble	/ˈtrʌbl/	[trɔbl]
Courage	/ˈkʌrɪdʒ/	[kɔrɛdʒ]/
Castle	/ˈkɑ:sl/	[kɑstɪl]
Won	/wʌn/	[wɔn]
Thorough	/θʌrə/	[tɔrɔ]
Tomb	/tu:m/	[tʊmb]
Onion	/ˈʌniən/	[ɔniɔn]
Tough	/tʌf/	[tɔf]
Double	/ˈdʌbl/	[dɔbl]
Modest	/ˈmɒdɪst/	[mɔdest]
Country	/ˈkʌntri/	[kɑuntri]
Whistle	/ˈwɪsl/	[wɪstɪl]
Category	/ˈkætəgəri/	[kɑtɪgɔri]
Motor	/ˈməʊtə/	[mɔtɔ]
Principal	/ˈprɪnsəpl/	[prɪnsɪpəl]
Culture	/ˈkʌltʃə/	[kɔltʃɔ]
Vulture	/ˈvʌltʃə/	[vɔltʃɔ]
Voucher	/ˈvaʊtʃə/	[vɑtʃɔ]
Squad	/skwɒd/	[skwɑd]
Squat	/skwɒt/	[skwɑt]
Effort	/ˈefət/	[ɛfɔt]
Oval	/əʊvl/	[ɔvəl]
Festival	/festəvl/	[fɛstɪvəl]
Animal	/æniml/	[ɑnɪməl]
Approval	/əˈpru:vl/	[ɑpruval]
Formal	/ˈfɔ:ml/	[fɔməl]
Carnival	/ˈkɑ:nɪvl/	[kɑnɪvəl]
Failure	/ˈfeɪljə/	[fɛɪlɪɑ]
Front	/frʌnt/	[frɔnt]

The data above reflect a trend that suggests that spelling pronunciation is dominant among educated Ghanaian users of English. This innovative way of pronouncing English words resulted in the replacement of RP [ɒ] with [ɑ] in EGE, as in the pronunciation of *quality* and *quantity*. From the data RP /ɔ:/ was also realized as [ɑ] in EGE, in words like *staunch* and *launch*. Similarly, in many words in the corpus, the RP /ʌ/ was articulated as [ɔ] in EGE, in the following words: *govern*, *discover*, *none*, *colour*, *other*, *honey*, *young*, *worry*, *Monday*, *love*, *monkey*, *comfort*, *tongue*, *among*, *company*, *blood*, *flood*, *brother*, *mother wonder*, *trouble*, *courage*, *won*, *thorough*, *tough*, *double* and *front*. In standard pronunciation, the *o*, *oo* and *ou* spellings in the words above are articulated as RP /ʌ/ but in Educated Ghanaian English they were articulated as [ɔ]. There were, however, some exceptional cases in the corpus with regard to the realization of RP /ʌ/. In words like *dove*, *glove*, *oven* and *onion*, the graphic symbol *o* is realized as /ʌ/ in standard British English but from the data it was pronounced as [ɔ]. In the current research, mother tongue influence played a significant role in the spelling pronunciations encountered. The letter *u* in words like *plumber*, *alumni* and *incumbent* is pronounced as RP /ʌ/ but it was articulated as [ɔ] and [u] respectively. Again, the graphic symbol *u* in words such as *culture* and *vulture* is realized as RP /ʌ/ but in the present study it was pronounced as [ɔ]. Ngula (2011) describes the phenomenon of spelling pronunciation in the English of educated Ghanaians as innovative feature of pronunciation that is giving Ghanaian English its own character. From the

corpus, the RP /ə/ was realized as [a] in the following words: *discover*, *colour*, *other*, *plumber*, *brother*, *mother*, *wander* and *wonder*.

It is worth noting that the vowel /ə/ is not unknown in the L1. In fact, in some Ghanaian languages /ə/ may be heard for [a] in rapid speech or in weakly stressed syllables (Sey, 1973). The vowels /ə/ and /a/ are not contrastive either in L1 or RP. They are sufficiently alike to be treated as free variants by EGE speakers. Other different realizations of the RP /ə/ in EGE are in the words: *company*, *thorough*, *category*, *motor*, *principal*, *comfort* and *effort*. The RP /ə/ was replaced with the following phones: [e], [ɔ], [ɪ], [o], [ɪ], [ɔ] and [ɔ] respectively.

With EGE, the spelling of words largely influenced their pronunciation. In the present study, the initial vowel sound in the words *alumni*, *adjourn*, *attorney*, *among* and *approval* was pronounced [a] instead of RP /ə/. The speakers were influenced by the initial letter *a*.

The phenomenon of spelling pronunciation was also manifested in the articulation of the following words: *oval*, *festival*, *animal*, *approval*, *formal* and *carnival*. With RP, the penultimate letter *a* is not pronounced. This confirms the earlier description of the phonology of English made in this paper (the inconsistent relationship between spelling and pronunciation). However, the *a* spelling in the words cited were pronounced as [a] by the EGE speakers. Spelling pronunciation showed itself widely among educated Ghanaian users of English. The difference between RP and EGE pronunciation was established.

There were other English words that were nativised in the present study. The pronunciations of *castle*, *whistle*, *modest*, *honest*, *squad*, *squat*, *wander*, *thwart* and *deposit* were based on their spelling. However, with RP, the spelling is different from the pronunciation. For instance, the standard pronunciation of the *a* spelling in words like *squad*, *squat*, and *wander* is RP /ɒ/ but the nativised version in the corpus is [a]. Similarly, the RP version of words like *castle* and *whistle* is characterized by the deletion of the sound [t] in the pronunciation but the EGE version in the data has the [t] sound in it. Furthermore, the standard pronunciation of the *ar* spelling in *thwart* is RP /ɔ:/ but it was realized as [a] in the data.

From the data, certain diphthongs were articulated as if they were monophthongs. This innovation can be attributed to the phenomenon of spelling pronunciation. The diphthong /eɪ/ in *ladle* was articulated as [a] a monophthong. Similarly, the diphthongs in words like *motor*, *voucher* and *oval* were replaced with pure vowels. The pronunciation of the word *country* was influenced by the word *count*. The fact is that the *ou* spelling in *country* is not a diphthong. It is rather a monophthong /ʌ/ but it was articulated as [aʊ] a diphthong.

Another spelling pronunciation feature noticed in the study is the articulation of the words *young*, *wrong* and *among*. The *ng* spelling at the end of the words is the consonant sound /ŋ/ but it was pronounced as [ng] based on the orthography.

The findings of the current study are in tune with Sey's (1973) assertion that the pronunciation of EGE is distinct from RP. Stevens (1953) also remarks that the English spoken in Ghana is to a large extent unacceptable outside the country. He observed that there has been a deterioration of the standard of pronunciation from the past to the present. He added that if spoken English in

Ghana is not guided in the standard way, it might follow the pattern of spoken English in some parts of India, where the pronunciation is quite unintelligible to non-Indians. However, according to Bamgbose (1998) the phenomenon of spelling pronunciation in EGE satisfies two important criteria non-native varieties of English ought to meet: it maintains international intelligibility and retains local and cultural identities. Ngula (2011) is also of the view that spelling pronunciation has become the normal and most convenient way of pronouncing many English words in EGE. He added that spelling pronunciation is one of the innovative features of pronunciation that are conferring a mark of identity on EGE. Wells (1982) has observed that there are many words that have undergone this process of spelling pronunciation.

CONCLUSION

The current study has tried to depict the way educated Ghanaians pronounce English words. The standard pronunciation that is expected is RP which is equated with the correct pronunciation of English words. Using evidence obtained from educated Ghanaian speakers of English, the present paper discovered that, in Ghana, the vast majority of English words are pronounced based on their spelling. As a nativized version of RP, spelling pronunciation has become an innovative feature in Educated Ghanaian English. Spelling pronunciation has become the most convenient and comfortable way of pronouncing English words. It is worth noting that some of the indigenous Ghanaian languages exert an influence on the way some educated Ghanaians pronounce certain English words. The present paper views the phenomenon of spelling pronunciation as innovation. The paper suggests that rather than condemning spelling pronunciation outright, it should be guided towards standardization. This is because spelling pronunciation, as an innovative feature of EGE pronunciation, maintains international intelligibility and retains local and cultural identities.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The current study was limited to educated Ghanaian speakers of English (students, teachers and non-academic employees). This approach was to enable the researcher to investigate the extent to which educated Ghanaians are able to articulate words in the standard RP way since the latter is the model taught in schools. The study incorporated students of the University of Cape Coast as they represent a cross-section of educated Ghanaians. The student population is a heterogeneous entity. The students are selected from the different regions of Ghana. Thus, the student population of the corpus represents the entire country. The present study also captured pronunciations of words based on their spelling from the media. This helped the researcher since the pronunciations from the television and the radio are reflections of the phonetic innovations in Ghana.

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RETHORICAL TRANSFERENCE (A TRANSITIVITY ANALYSIS OF LEXICAL METAPHOR)

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ABSTRACT

Rhetoric has been a very interesting phenomenon in the use of daily language, but then it is getting much more attractive linguistically with the employment of metaphor in an impressive way. Metaphorical expression, strictly speaking, has the capacity to decorate and beautify the content of speech in its own way. It brings about such an empowerment to the transfer of message and information. It, then, prominently bridges the smoother flow of rhetorical transference in a speech. With regard to the basic notion of systemic functional grammar, the term lexical metaphor has been part of ideational realization of metaphorical modes of expression. In such a reason, it is quite interesting to further investigate the nature of lexical metaphor from the perspective of systemic functional grammar. The basic instrumental device of the analysis is done through the transitivity analysis. This type of analysis has the potential to reveal the nature rhetorical transference within which the lexical metaphor adhered in a speech, the findings of the research show that there is one of the clause elements in the metaphor functioning as the nucleus of the metaphor. This phenomenon together with the other elements of the clause constitute the nature of the lexical metaphor.

KEYWORDS: lexical metaphor, transitivity, rhetorical transference

INTRODUCTION

Metaphor comes up as one of people's options since it has its own uniqueness in carrying communicative messages more powerfully. Such a choice arises as there is an expectation that such a linguistic creativity can produce particular effect towards the audiences. In such a case, Orthony (in Orthony.ed; 1993:23) highlights that metaphor is basically a manifestation of language creativity to produce a non-standard effect with a not inferable meaning of the standard lexicon. This means that speakers of any languages have a tendency of using a language not in a conventional way as they want to get a more impressive effect of their speech.

In systemic functional grammar, the term 'metaphor' covers a sense of definition on the basis of interstratal relationship between semantics and lexicogrammar. It is simply defined as a realization of meanings through non-typical selections of grammatical features. Or in a more terminological paraphrase, it may be defined as variations of grammatical forms through which a semantic choice is typically realized in the lexicogrammar. In this respect, Thomson (1996:165) proposes a definition of grammatical metaphor as the expression of a different meaning through a lexicons-grammatical form which originally evolved to express a different kind of meaning. In relation to such definition, by which grammatical metaphor is used in rhetorical discourse, Downing and Locke (2006:165) state that grammatical metaphor is a very powerful in the presenting of information to influence the way the information is perceived by the

reconceptualization of an event as a participant, with the consequent restructuring of the rest of the clause.

Further discussing, Halliday (1985:321) makes a distinction between two main types of grammatical metaphor: interpersonal metaphors (or metaphors of mood), and ideational metaphors (or metaphors of transitivity). Mathiesen et.al (2010:111) further clarify the distinction that interpersonal metaphor is basically a resource for enacting a wider range of social roles and relationships in relation to tenor, allowing interactants to calibrate their interpersonal relations with respect to power and contact, while ideational metaphor is a resource for construing a wider range of phenomena in relation to field. The tendency in interpersonal metaphor is to “upgrade” the domain of realization from clause to clause nexus, making the realization more explicit, in a sense; this is used to give an explicitly subjective orientation to speech functions

The latter type, ideational grammatical metaphor, is chosen as the subject of this study regarding some basic features of ideational grammatical metaphor that may correspond to the basic nature of political speeches. In this respect, transitivity system that happens to be the rhetorical choice of metaphorical expression in political speeches is employed as the basis of the analysis. One common interpretation of ideational grammatical metaphor is that it is seen as relating to the way a particular word is used. Lipson (2004:78) further clarifies that ideational grammatical metaphor can be looked at two ways of its creation:

- (a) by using Processes metaphorically (metaphorical wording) and
- (b) by using NG to represent Processes (nominalization),

As Halliday (1994:342) describes the expression “a flood of protests”, the congruent meaning (i.e., the one with less variation in the expression of the meaning) for “They received a flood of protests” would be that “They received a large quantity of protests”. In the same respect, in the following sentences:

- (1) *We walked in the evening along the river to Henley.*
 - (2) *Our evening walk along the river took us to Henley.*
- (taken from Downing 1991: 110-11)

It’s quite observable that the two expressions above share the same situation. However, the realization of the process constituents in (1) is congruent in fashion or is closer to the state of affairs in the external world, whereas example (2) shows metaphorical/incongruent mode of expressions by way of nominalization (walked => walk). Halliday (1994: 342) suggests that example (2) is called a grammatical metaphor. This is to say that, examples (1) and (2) share a degree of similarities and at the same time these examples evidence that one is more “basic” than the other. In the same respect, Halliday (1994:342) further argues that both the metaphorical and congruent forms are lexico-grammatical forms arrived at by a pass through the system network: they are independent realizations, but share a certain core of meaning.

As formulated above, this study is aimed at making an analysis of ideational grammatical metaphor which is made under the framework of systemic functional grammar. A great chance to further describe the metaphor is employed to a collection of political speeches delivered by Obama during his presidential election. Obama is considered by the writer as one prominent figure that has the capacity of producing impressive speech by way of using metaphorical expressions in line with its basic features of rhetorical speech in politic.

In this study, in a large part, the basic conceptualizations of grammatical metaphor and transitivity system are taken from Halliday (1985,1994), Halliday and Metthiessen (2004), Thomson (1996). However, there are also some other linguistic theories used to give more conceptual insight to the types of ideational grammatical metaphor which are taken from Lipson (2004), Downing and Locke (2006), Miller (2004), Eggins (2004), Freddi (2004), Morley (2000), Lock (1996), Butt et.al (1995). Some key terms concerning metaphor in general and other related issues are also taken by referring to Mathieson et.al (2010), Brown et.al, Charteris-Black (2004, 2005).

METHODS OF RESEARCH

A number of speeches of Barack Obama during the American presidential campaign of 2010 were studied as he as running his campaigns for one of the world's most powerful positions. Disregarding the reasons why they strove for power, this study looked at how the choice of ideational grammatical metaphor is realized linguistically. The method of analysis is to locate grammatical metaphors where it appeared as linguistic choices which are made to depict ideas and concepts in certain ways. The method of analysis steps from the categories of grammatical metaphor comprising the subtype's ideational grammatical metaphor, metaphorical wording and nominalization. The speeches were analysed separately as well as comparatively.

The methodology used in this study is adapted from Charteris-Black (2004: 34-38) that in metaphor analysis three stages are involved, metaphor identification, metaphor analysis, and metaphor interpretation:

- (i) Selection of process type: material, mental, relational, with their various intermediate and secondary types.
- (ii) Configuration of transitivity functions: Actor, Goal, Senser, Manner etc. representing the process, its participant, and any circumstantial elements;
- (iii) Sequence of group-phrase classes: verbal group, nominal group, adverbial group, prepositional phrase, and their various sub-classes.

In this study, the collection of Barack Obama Speeches are downloaded from www.barackobamaspeeches.com where it compiles a comprehensive collection of Obama's speeches since the preliminary session of the campaign till the inaugural address of his presidential oath, that is in the period 2002 till 2009.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

This chapter presents an analysis of ideational metaphor on the perspective of functional grammar. Three steps of analysis will be done consecutively. First, the data will be analyzed to describe its transitivity configuration showing its semantic functions and its syntactic realization. Second, the data will be analyzed on the basis of its grammatical transfer showing the relevant

grammatical status towards its transitivity configuration. The last steps of analysis will be a combination of analysis showing congruent and incongruent analysis involving its basic and metaphorical meaning. However, this chapter is divided into two sections, Data Analysis and Discussion of the findings

The analysis of Metaphorical Wording focuses on the various transitivity configuration realized by the lexicogrammar. This will see on how the choice of word in different syntactic function creates metaphorical meaning. Some findings range from its classification on the basis of its process types. In this respect, mental process is realized in material process, or material process realized in mental process. This situation is also applicable for other types of processes as well. It also means that the presentation of the analysis will be categorized from its process type. Some sub-sections of the analysis are under the headings of material process, mental process, relational process, behavioral process, and verbal process. This is then to show that the Metaphorical Wording occurred on the basis of its process type. The stage of the analysis is carried out in three steps, namely, analysis of transitivity configuration, analysis of its grammatical transfer (initiated by congruence analysis), and analysis of its metaphorical meaning. And for the purpose of interpreting the meaning of the metaphors, the writer consults their lexical meaning to the Collins Cobuild Dictionary (CDROM:2006) and also Webster Collegiate Dictionary (CDROM:2003).

1. Metaphorical Wording on the basis of Material process

In this unit of analysis, all the Metaphorical Wordings are found to have the properties of material process. The data are found in various semantic classes of syntax (verb group, noun group, verb group) and for the purpose of bringing about a more comprehensible semantic analysis; the data are presented in the structure of a clause or clause complex.

(1)Homes have been lost; jobs shed; businesses shuttered. Our health care is too costly; our schools fail too many; and each day brings further evidence that the ways we use energy strengthen our adversaries and threaten our planet (OB1-1)

The sentence above comprises three metaphors with almost similar transitivity configuration:

a.	<i>Job</i>	<i>Shed</i>	
	<i>Business</i>	<i>Shuttered</i>	
	<i>Each day</i>	<i>Brings</i>	<i>Further evidence</i>
	Participant : Actor	Process : material	Participant: Goal

In terms of their transitivity configurations, the sentences above have one participant by which it carries a ‘doing’ meaning. In this case, the verb ‘shed’, ‘shuttered’, and ‘brings’ designates a

material process expressing an ‘action’ meaning. Those verbs designate a noun group semantically function as the actor of their action-meaning exemplified by the participants.

However, the process they represent depict different pattern from the perspective of their transitivity configuration. There is an incongruent realization of the process and their participants. The actor doesn’t fit to the logical function of the ‘doing’ thing in the process as ‘*job*’ cannot *set apart* or *fall into* something physically. In the following congruence analysis, there is an evidence that the speaker undergo a lexical choice that tend to be metaphorical, as in:

<i>Job</i>	<i>Shed</i>
Actor	Process
<i>Job (’s number)</i>	<i>fell/decreased</i>
Actor	Process

From the congruence analysis above, there is no grammatical transfer since the incongruent and its congruent forms of expression are from the same type of transitivity configuration, which is all in the form of material process (*shed* → *decreases*). However, it is also quite clear that speaker intends to employ the word ‘*shed*’ metaphorically to make an analogy of job availability with something like a ‘*leaf*’ that can ‘*set apart*’ or ‘*fall*’ from ‘*its tree*’. As it may also mean that the job has somewhat getting more difficult to be obtained since there is not linear supply of job’s number for the outgrowing population of jobseekers.

<i>b.</i>	<i>Business</i>	<i>Shuttered</i>
	Participant: Actor	Process: Material

The transitivity configuration of the sentence above has one participant and one process. In this case, the verb ‘*shuttered*’ designates a material process, since it carries a ‘doing’ meaning (‘*to shutter*’ means ‘*to close by; Meriam Webster dictionary*’). While ‘*shuttered*’ designates a noun group semantically function as the actor of the action ‘*shuttered*’. This transitivity configuration shows that the actor doesn’t fit to the logical function of the ‘doing’ meaning in its process as the actor ‘*business*’ is not animate being or human like figure that can *close* by itself. In the following congruence analysis, there is evidence that the speaker employs a lexical choice that tends to be metaphorical, as in:

<i>Business</i>	<i>Shuttered</i>
<i>Participant : Actor</i>	Process : material
<i>Business</i>	<i>Shut down</i>
<i>Actor</i>	<i>Process</i>

From the congruence analysis above, it is quite clear that speaker intends to employ the word ‘*shuttered*’ metaphorically to show that the business has stopped because of particular reason. However, the metaphorical wording in 1a, 1b, 1c, occurred in the position of process.

2). *Our campaign was not hatched in the halls of Washington*

<i>Our campaign</i>	<i>was not hatched</i>	<i>in the halls of Washington</i>
Participant: Actor	Process : Material	Circumstance: place

The transitivity configuration of the sentence above depicts a material process. The verb ‘*hatched*’ indicate a material activity by which the Actor ‘*our campaign*’ expresses doing meaning. The transitivity configuration employs one participant, one circumstance and one process as the sample of the clause nexus.

Further discussing, there is an incongruent expression of the use of the process by which the Actor ‘*our campaign*’ doesn’t have the capacity of a thing that can ‘*hatch*’. In this case, it is very clear that the sentence can be said to be metaphorical since the process ‘*hatch*’ is incongruently used by the participant ‘*our campaign*’. Consider the following congruence analysis:

<i>Our campaign</i>	<i>was not hatched</i>	<i>in the halls of Washington</i>
Participant: Actor	Process : Material	Circumstance: place
<i>Our campaign</i>	<i>originated</i>	<i>In the halls of Washington</i>
Participant : Actor	Process: Material	Circumstance

In such a case, there is a personification sample where the verb ‘*hatch*’ is incongruently used to represent the idea of ‘*our campaign*’ that basically comes from the people working in the halls of Washington.

3) *She's stealing my thunder*

<i>She</i>	<i>'s stealing</i>	<i>my thunder</i>
Participant: Actor	Process : material	Goal

The transitivity configuration of the sentence above depicts a material process. The verb ‘*is stealing*’ indicate a material activity by which the Actor ‘*she*’ expresses doing meaning. The transitivity configuration employs one participant, one Goal and one process as the root of the clause nexus.

Further discussing, there is an incongruent expression of the use of the participant by which the Actor ‘*she*’ intend to do something (*stealing*) that is literally in appropriate and impossible to be done since ‘*my thunder*’ is *almost invincible and untouchable*’. Then, the sentence can be said to be metaphorical since the process ‘*is stealing*’ is incongruently used by the actor ‘*she*’. Consider the following congruence analysis:

<i>She</i>	<i>'s stealing</i>	<i>my thunder</i>
Participant: Actor	Process : material	Goal
<i>She</i>	<i>'s stealing</i>	<i>my precious thing</i>
Participant: Actor	Process : material	Goal

From the above congruent analysis, there is evidence, that the nucleus of the metaphor occurred in the participant (Goal) ‘*my thunder*’ as an attempt to empower the Goal of the action metaphorically.

4) *Virginia, your voice can change the world tomorrow*

<i>Virginia, your voice</i>	<i>can change</i>	<i>the world</i>	<i>Tomorrow</i>
Participant: Actor	Process : material	Goal	Circumstance

The transitivity configuration of the sentence above depicts a material process. The verb ‘*change*’ indicate a material activity by which the Actor ‘*Virginia*’ expresses a doing meaning. The transitivity configuration employs one participant (Actor), one circumstance (time) and one process (Material).

Further discussing, there is an incongruent expression of the use of the participant by which the Actor ‘*Virginia*’ doesn’t have the capacity of a *human like* thing that can change ‘*something*’ or anything. The sentence can be said to be metaphorical since the process ‘*change*’ is incongruently used by the participant ‘*Virginia*’. Consider the following congruence analysis:

<i>Virginia, your voice</i>	<i>can change</i>	<i>the world</i>	<i>Tomorrow</i>
Participant: Actor	Process : material	Goal	Circumstance
<i>Your power</i>	<i>can change</i>	<i>the world</i>	<i>Tomorrow</i>
Participant: Actor	Process : material	Goal	Circumstance

As it is illustrated above, there is no grammatical shift in its syntactic categories and functions. The same semantic functions are shared both in its congruent or incongruent form. It also means that the choice of non-literal meaning is not because of grammatical shift or grammatical transfer among the participants and processes.

5) *Change comes to Washington*

<i>Change</i>	<i>comes</i>	<i>to Washington</i>
Participant: Actor	Process : material	Circumstance

The transitivity configuration of the sentence above depicts a material process. The verb ‘*comes*’ indicate a material activity by which the Actor ‘*change*’ expresses doing meaning. The transitivity configuration employs one participant, one circumstance and one process.

Further discussing, there is an incongruent expression of the use of the process by which the Actor ‘*change*’ doesn’t have the capacity of a *human like* thing that can ‘*come*’ or make a moving like a living creature. The sentence can be said to be metaphorical since the process ‘*comes*’ is incongruently used by the participant ‘*our campaign*’. Consider the following congruence analysis:

<i>Change</i>	<i>comes</i>	<i>to Washington</i>
Participant: Actor	Process : material	Circumstance
<i>Change</i>	<i>Happens</i>	<i>to Washington</i>
Participant: Actor	Process : material	Circumstance

The above analysis has shown that the metaphorical nucleus occurs to the process ‘comes’ with its possible literal counterpart ‘happens’. This means that the Process with its lexical choice ‘comes’ has made the expression becomes wording-ly metaphorical.

6. *What North Carolina decided is that the only game that needs changing is the one in Washington, DC*

<i>what North Carolina decided</i>	<i>Is</i>	<i>that the only game that needs changing is the one in Washington, DC</i>
Participant: Identified	Process : relational	Participant: Identifier

Basically the transitivity configuration of the sentence above depicts a relational process. The verb ‘is’ indicate a relational status between the two participants ‘*what North Carolina decided*’ (identified) and ‘*that the only game that needs changing is the one in Washington, DC*’ (identifier) by which the participants are semantically connected with the ‘is’. However, to go into detail, more precise transitivity analysis is applied in the more detail description below:

What North Carolina	Decided
Participant: Senser	Process: Mental

Simply speaking, the clause above illustrate a personified character in the Participant ‘North California’. this has made the expression metaphorical in particular way. This phenomenon is strongly indicated by the illogical semantic relationship between the Senser ‘*North California*’ and the Process ‘*decided*’. A mental process of ‘*deciding something*’ must be done, by nature, by a human being. This character has successfully metaphorized the above clause to be metaphorical.

7) *Washington didn't give us much of a chance*

<i>Washington</i>	<i>didn't give</i>	<i>Us</i>	<i>much of a chance</i>
Participant: Actor	Process : material	Participant: Recipient	Participant: Beneficiary

The transitivity configuration of the sentence above depicts a material process. The verb ‘give’ indicate a material activity by which the Actor ‘*Washington*’ expresses doing meaning. The transitivity configuration employs three participants (Actor, Recipient, and Beneficiary), and one process as the nucleus of the clause.

Further discussing, there is an incongruent expression of the use of the process by which the Actor ‘*Washington*’ doesn’t have the capacity of *a human or human like* thing that can ‘give’. the sentence can be said to be metaphorical since the Actor ‘*Washington*’ is incongruently used with the process of ‘*giving*’. Consider the following congruence analysis:

<i>Washington</i>	<i>didn't give</i>	<i>Us</i>	<i>much of a chance</i>
Participant: Actor	Process : material	Participant: Recipient	Participant: Beneficiary
<i>(People in Washington)</i>	<i>didn't give</i>	<i>Us</i>	<i>much of a chance</i>
Participant: Actor	Process : material	Participant: Recipient	Participant: Beneficiary

The above analysis has shown that the Actor ‘Washington’ is the nucleus of the metaphor in that clause. The actor which is not human being has been personified like human figure that can give something.

2. Metaphorical Wording on the basis of Mental process

All data presented in this section of analysis are all categorized into mental process. The properties of being ‘a mental process’ clauses are determined mainly by the use of the verbs. In relation to the metaphorical use of the process, the clause is analyzed based on its transitivity configuration and then it’s further analyzed to see the possible grammatical transfer within the process. The congruence analysis is conducted consecutively to figure out the possible meaning of the grammatical metaphor.

8) *The schools suffer*

<i>The schools</i>	<i>Suffer</i>
Participant: Actor	Process : mental

The sentence above has one participant and is in the form of mental process. Since it employs the verb ‘suffer’ which has a sense of affection, the sentence designates a mental process. The Actor ‘school’ which is inanimate and is not human like does not semantically correspond to the verb ‘suffer’. Consider the following congruence analysis.

<i>The schools</i>	<i>Suffer</i>
Participant: Actor	Process : mental
<i>The schools</i>	<i>Undergo a bad situation</i>
Participant: Actor	Process: Material

The mode of its metaphorical expression is clearly understood by the use the verb ‘suffer’ to indicate the school condition that is not in well condition. The writer intends to make extra effect to the message by creating an analogy as if the ‘school’ is an animate being or human-like thing that can perceive a sense of feeling like ‘suffer’. It is also quite clear that there is a grammatical transfer from material to mental process by which the expression is being metaphorical.

9) *In numbers (that) this nation has never seen*

<i>In numbers</i>	<i>this nation</i>	<i>has never seen</i>
Circumstance	Participant: Senser	Process : mental

Basically the transitivity configuration of the sentence above depicts a mental process. The verb ‘seen’ indicate a mental activity by which the Senser ‘this nation’ has perceived something.

However, there is an incongruent expression of the use of the process by which the Senser ‘*this nation*’ doesn’t have the capacity of *human-like* thing that can ‘*see*’ or perceive something physically. In this case, the sentence can be said to be metaphorical since the participant ‘*this nation*’ is incongruently used with the process ‘*seen*’. Consider the following congruence analysis:

<i>In numbers</i>	<i>this nation</i>	<i>has never seen</i>
Circumstance	Participant: Senser	Process : mental
<i>In numbers</i>	<i>(people of) this nation</i>	<i>has never seen</i>
Circumstance	Participant: Senser	Process : mental

Based on the above analysis, it is quite clear the metaphorical nucleus of the clause. The Senser ‘*this nation*’ has been made personified by referring it to the people of the nation. It also means that the changing character has made contribution to the meaning to be more metaphorical.

3. *Metaphorical Wordings on the basis of Relational process*

This section of analysis compiles some relevant data to the use of metaphorical mode of Relational Process lexically by which the process is incongruently used. The same procedure of analysis has been previously done in the earlier sections. Hence, figuring out transitivity configuration of the metaphor is the first step before the analysis of the grammatical transfer within the clause. The last activity will be the interpretation of the metaphorical meaning based on its transitivity configuration.

10) *It Is **the answer told by lines** that stretched around schools and churches in numbers this nation has never seen*

<i>It</i>	<i>Is</i>	<i>the answer</i>
Participant : Identified	Process: Relational	Participant : Identifier

Basically the transitivity configuration of the sentence above depicts a relational process. The verb ‘*is*’ indicate a relational status by which the participants is linked semantically.

4. *Metaphorical Wordings on the basis of verbal process*

In this unit of analysis, all the Metaphorical Wordings are found to have the properties of material process. The data are found in various semantic classes of syntax (verb group, noun group, verb group) and for the purpose of bringing about a more comprehensible semantic analysis; the data are presented in the structure of a clause or clause complex. Verbal process identification is indicated by the use of the verb group in the process.

11) *(the answer/that is) told by the lines*

<i>(the answer/that)</i>	<i>is told</i>	<i>by the lines</i>
Verbiage	Process : verbal	Sayer

Basically the transitivity configuration of the sentence above depicts a verbal process. The verb ‘*told*’ indicate a verbal activity by which the Sayer ‘*the lines*’ expresses an utterance with ‘*the answer*’ as its verbiage.

However, there is an incongruent expression of the use of the process by which the Sayer ‘*the lines*’ doesn’t have the capacity of *human-like* thing that can ‘*tell*’ or produce oral communication ability. In this case, it is very clear that the sentence can be said to be metaphorical since the process ‘*told*’ is incongruently used by the participant ‘*lines*’. Consider the following congruence analysis:

<i>(the answer/that)</i>	<i>is told</i>	<i>by the lines</i>
Participant: Verbiage	Process : verbal	Participant : Sayer
<i>The lines</i>	<i>Contains</i>	<i>Some information (the answer)</i>
Participant : token	Process: Relational	Participant: value

Based on the congruent analysis above, it is quite clear that the Participant ‘*the lines*’ is instrumented to be more personified and carries metaphorical meaning by the process ‘*told*’. However, there is no grammatical shift among the clause elements.

12) *We pledge to work alongside you - to make your farms flourish and let clean waters flow; to nourish starved bodies and- (to) feed hungry minds*

<i>We</i>	<i>pledge to work</i>	<i>alongside you</i>	<i>(to) feed</i>	<i>hungry minds</i>
Participant: Actor	Process : material	Circumstance : Place	Process: material Process	Participant : Goal

Basically the transitivity configuration of the sentence above depicts a material process. The verb ‘*pledge to work*’ and ‘*feed hungry mind*’ indicate an external world activity by which the Actor ‘*we*’ makes up an event or a ‘*happening*’ of ‘*work*’ and also an action or a ‘*doing*’ activity of ‘*feed*’ with ‘*the hungry mind*’ as its Goal.

However, there is an incongruent expression of the process by which the Actor ‘*we*’ incongruently employs the verb ‘*feed*’ with the personified Goal of ‘*mind*’ which shows human-like capacity of feeling hungry. In this case, it is very clear that the sentence can be said to be metaphorical since the process ‘*feed*’ is incongruently used by the participant ‘*we*’ and ‘*hungry minds*’. Consider the following congruence analysis:

<i>We</i>	<i>pledge to work</i>	<i>alongside you</i>	<i>(to) feed</i>	<i>hungry minds</i>
Participant: Actor	Process : material	Circumstance : Place	Process: material Process	Participant : Goal
<i>We</i>	<i>pledge to work</i>	<i>alongside you</i>	<i>give support (to)</i>	<i>hungry minds</i>
Participant: Actor	Process : material	Circumstance : Place	Process: material Process	Participant : Goal

Based on the above analysis, it is clear that nucleus of the metaphor is applied to the Process ‘*feed*’ that does not literally correspond to the potential meaning of the Goal ‘*hungry minds*’. Literally the verb ‘*feed*’ means to give someone or something food to eat. This of course does not

match with Goal, ‘hungry minds’ that has the character of something inanimate that cannot eat anything.

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

The formation of transitivity configuration that features the metaphor nucleus and its syntactic realization. The discussion of metaphor nucleus is very essential to determine the pattern of metaphor. The transitivity analysis is instrumented to reveal such phenomenon. However, the configuration of the transitivity metaphor would be like the following:

She’s stealing the thunder (MW3_mp)

It is quite possible that the nucleus of the metaphor can be either the participant (she: Actor, and my thunder: goal), process, or even the circumstance. In this instance, the participant ‘she’ is doing something rather impossible, ‘steal the thunder’. An action that never be accomplished by any ordinary human being. Hence, from this point of view, there is a logical semantic relation between the whole elements of the clause that show this incongruent relation. Thunder must be the central of the in congruency in meaning that has the potential to make the clause metaphorical. The second way of figuring out the transitivity configuration is by applying congruence analysis, as in:

<i>She</i>	<i>'s stealing</i>	<i>my thunder</i>
Participant: Actor	Process : material	Goal
<i>She</i>	<i>'s stealing</i>	<i>my precious thing</i>
Participant: Actor	Process : material	Goal

Based on the above analysis, the syntactic and semantic position of ‘my thunder’ can be replaced by ‘my precious thing’ with almost equal meaning. This is to show that it is almost impossible to replace the process with any similar verbs included in material process. Hence, there two important phenomenon to be considered:

1. The transitivity configuration of ideational metaphor cover almost all types of processes, including material, mental, relational, and behavioural process. In this research, the most types existed in the speeches are material process with little occurrence of the other types. However, the grammatical transfer found in the data of the research shows that there are four types of nominalization are process as entity, attribute as entity, and circumstance as entity.
2. The discussion of metaphor nucleus is very essential to determine the pattern of metaphor. The transitivity analysis is instrumented to reveal such phenomenon. The nucleus of the metaphor can be either the participant, process, or even the circumstance

Since the study focuses on the nature of ideational metaphor in political speech, it is quite possible to further study in the other fields of discourse like business, economics, and the likes. In rhetorical speech, grammatical metaphor play an important role in shaping the message and information of the speech. However, since this study focuses on the ideational metaphor, there is a great change and challenge to further investigate the nature of the other types of grammatical

metaphor (interpersonal grammatical metaphor) under the objective of finding out its prominent linguistic features.

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CONTRIBUTION OF COGNITIVE LINGUISTICS TO TEFL: PRESENTING CONCEPTUAL MEANING IN PHRASAL VERBS

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ABSTRACT

This study investigates the advantages of applying Cognitive Linguistics to the instruction of conceptual meaning of phrasal verbs in an Iranian EFL context. Sixty intermediate learners were randomly assigned to two equal control and experimental groups. Thirty two phrasal verbs with the particles *up*, *down*, *in* and *out* were instructed to experimental groups using the insights gleaned from Cognitive Linguistics framework. The control group received the same phrasal verbs in terms of dictionary definitions and single verb equivalents. Results of t-test analysis of pre/posttest scores for both groups confirmed the superiority of the Cognitive Linguistics based approach and revealed a strategy transfer to unrehearsed phrasal verbs as well. The findings imply the potential usefulness of applying Cognitive Linguistics to teaching phrasal verbs.

KEYWORDS: Phrasal verbs, Cognitive Linguistics, particles, conceptualization, spatial scene, vantage point, strategy transfer.

INTRODUCTION

A quick glance at television programs, movies, interviews, pop music, internet exchanges and many other conversational settings reveals that phrasal verbs (hereafter PVs) are abundant in today's colloquial English. Although there is usually a single verb equivalent, native speakers opt for the PV alternative. This dominance of PVs in everyday language of English speakers has made them a crucially important part of English lexicon for EFL learners. Even mastery of PVs is assumed to be a true evidence of language proficiency (Cornell, 1985). However, PVs have a reputation of being tough and troublesome for EFL learners; witness the publication of numerous self-study textbooks (e.g., Gairns & Redman, 2011; Hart, 2009; McCarthy & O'Dell, 2007; Rudzka-Ostyn, 2003) and PV-specific dictionaries (e.g., McIntoch, 2006; Rundell, 2005).

One reason that makes learning PVs a daunting task is that there are innumerable PVs in English and EFL learners are intimidated and confounded by this diversity (Bolinger, 1971; Side, 1990). Yet, that is a secondary source of problem compared to the issue of idiomacity (i.e., unpredictability of meaning of the construction from its components) For example, in *'I'm just worn out!'* *wear* does not refer to wearing clothes in literal sense of the verb and nobody is going *out*; rather, *wear out* is an idiomatic PV which means 'to exhaust or tire'. The problems are reinforced by the way through which PVs have been traditionally presented in course books or taught by teachers (Side, 1990; Tyler & Evans, 2004). In the traditional approach PVs are given in

long lists of learn-by-heart vocabulary and memorization is suggested as the only strategy; thereby, it has been implied that PVs are unsystematic, arbitrary, and random.

The thriving field of Cognitive Linguistics (hereafter CL) challenges the assumed arbitrariness of PVs in traditional view and argues that lexicon, at least in the case of particles, is systematically motivated, or simply put; principled and rule-governed (Evans & Tyler, 2004, 2005). A CL-based approach, thus, gives the leading semantic role of the PV to the particle component and provides a promising approach to the pedagogy of PVs based on cognitive meaningful learning. According to the *embodiment principle* of CL, cognition is the conceptual representation of bodily experience in spatio-physical environment (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, 1999). From early infancy sensory perceptions are recorded in human mind in the form of reactivations of brain (Mandler, 2004). These reactivations are technically referred to as *image-schemas* (Johnson, 1987), *simulations* (Barsalou, 1999), and *redescriptions* (Evans, 2010). CL argues that such conceptual representations of motion, space and physical relations shape and motivate the foundation of cognition and thought. In the English language, such representations are linguistically encoded in particles; hence, CL-based analysis of underlying mechanisms that stimulate such conceptualizations provides a significant way of understanding the complex behavior of particles in general and PVs in particular.

For example, regarding the particles *up* and *down*, the fact that humans have their head at the top and legs at the bottom of their bodies gives rise to top-down interpretations of entities with no real physical body. This enables English speakers to talk about 'Manchester United *climbing up* the Premier league table'. Furthermore, given that the upright posture of the body entails health and good psychological conditions and a crouched and stooped body posture implies the opposite, *up* and *down* connote positive-negative values. Thus, without even knowing the meaning of the PVs '*run down*' or '*cut down*', one can predict they convey a negative sense.

Another conceptual representation of physical experience is the notion of *containment* which is linguistically encoded by the particle *in*. Human body is bounded with its skin and all of the concrete objects the infant observes and manipulates have limited bounded shapes. Such observation gives rise to a mental representation of bounded entities in terms of containment (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, 1999). Containment at first is a simple spatial relation for a child and reflects in expressions such as: *The toy in the box*. Gradually however, the notion of containment evolves into numerous complex abstract concepts. For example, drawing on the containment schema, a child develops the ability to make sense of sentences such as: *He is in trouble/ love/ debt*. Hence, the particle *in* entails being inside or entering a container-like entity ranging from observable things such as cars, buildings, gardens, countries to invisible abstract entities such as activities, movements, situations, relations and so forth. In the same vein, the particle *out* is conceptualized as the notion of non-containment or exteriority; analogously, many of the senses associated with *out* involve opposing inferences from those arising with *in*.

In 1980, Lakoff and Johnson proposed *the conceptual metaphor theory* suggesting that human cognition is metaphoric in nature. Later on, Johnson (1987) introduced *image-schemas* as the building block of metaphors. Many CL researchers found these insights relevant to the study of PVs and set out to investigate whether presenting the underlying image-schemas and metaphors of particles to English learners has positive effects on pedagogy of PVs (e.g., Boers, 2000;

Condon, 2008; Condon & Kelly, 2002; Dirven, 1993; Kövecses & Szabó, 1996; Kurtyka, 2001 to name but a few).

On the whole, these studies confirmed the usefulness of making the students aware of underlying image-schematic motivation of particles in PVs; however, they also revealed some areas of weakness and doubt. For example, Boers (2000) observed that “Knowledge of the conventional metaphoric themes of a given language does not guarantee mastery of its conventional linguistic instantiations” (p. 569). The most remarkable shortcoming of previous accounts of systematicity of PVs was brought to light by Condon (2008). She admitted that in her study and other existing studies by that time “a vital piece of information is missing, namely, the location of the ‘viewer’” (p.152; emphasis in original). She noted that many confounding behaviors of particles; especially the fact that contrasting pairs such as *up/down* or *in/out* appear to be synonyms in some PVs, could only be explained by taking the viewer’s vantage point into account.

The above-mentioned issue is addressed by the recent developments of CL and mostly by the work of Leonard Talmy (2000) and Vyvyan Evans and Andrea Tyler (Evans & Tyler, 2004, 2005; Tyler & Evans, 2003, 2004).

According to the findings of Gestalt psychology, human’s species-specific perceptual mechanisms change, structure, and add further complexity and details to the raw input received from sensory experience. One of the ways in which perceptual apparatus constrains and structures human’s experience of space is *figure-ground segregation* (Evans & Green, 2006). Human perception tends to automatically segregate any given scene into figure-ground organization (*figure* is highlighted or focused element of the scene, and *ground* is the background or reference object). Talmy (2000) tailored the figure-ground segregation to language suggesting that the representation of space in language encodes *spatial scenes*. Any given language provides a means of viewing the same state, situation, or event from the range of perspectives that are conventionally available to the language user. In other words, a language provides the language user with resources for viewing the same scene in multiple, and hence alternative ways or in CL-specific terms, *construals*. Shifts in construal give rise to new interpretations of the scene.

Native speakers of a language are subconsciously aware of the conceptual and construal bases of spatial scenes; however, non-native language learners who are accustomed to see the relations and events in physical world through the lens of their mother tongue are clueless about that fundamental knowledge. This leads to a *cross-linguistic mismatch*: the particles do not match up well between languages; therefore, language learners have to cope with anomalies (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1999). The critical issue of cross-linguistic mismatch is addressed by Evans and Tyler (2005) who submit: “rather than viewing particles from different languages as presenting different *meanings*, it is more insightful to take the view that different languages emphasize different aspects of the same (or similar) scene” (p.14).

In sum, these grounds lead to the logical assumption that giving instructions to and making EFL learners aware of the underlying principles of particles would help them learn PVs more efficiently. The present study takes this hypothesis as its point of departure and building on Evans and Tyler’s insights, examines whether presenting the conceptual bases of the particles *up*, *down*, *in* and *out* enhances a host of Iranian students’ learning of PVs. It also aims to find out if such an approach would help them develop an ability to transfer and apply their acquired knowledge to unfamiliar novel PVs.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

To put the above-discussed hypothesis into practice, the following research questions were formulated:

- (i) To what extent does a CL-based approach to teaching phrasal verbs by presenting underlying motivations of particles yield different results from a traditional approach such as the use of dictionary definitions/ examples/ simple statements of meanings?
- (ii) To what extent do CL-instructed students and the students who received their treatment by dictionary definition and single verb equivalents differ in developing a transfer strategy to unrehearsed novel phrasal verbs?

METHODOLOGY

Participants

The participants who took part in this study were 60 young female students (aged 17-23) of a private language school in Isfahan, Iran. They all shared Persian as their mother tongue. The participants were selected from among a large population of students who had enrolled in summer program of the private language. Upon enrollment, each student was asked to take part in a placement test (OPT, 2010). Based on the results of this test, a number of students were ranked as intermediate and 60 of these students were randomly selected as the participants of the study. The study was conducted during the summer English courses of the institute and before starting the course participants were informed that they were going to receive instruction concerning a number of PVs incorporated into their regular program.

Materials

The data collection procedure of the study was performed through a pretest-posttest assessment. At the beginning of the course, the participants were asked to take a written pretest. Before administering the pretest, participants were briefed about PVs; highlighting that PVs consist of a verb plus a smaller word (such as up, down, in, and out) and giving examples they had already been practically familiar with, such as get up, stand up, sit down, come in, and go out. The participants were assured that their scores on the experimental tests would have no negative effect on their end-of-term results, and then the test was distributed. The pretest was later used as the posttest at the end of the experiment. The test was designed to address the two posed research questions of the study; thus it was split up into two parts. The first part examined the taught 32 target PVs with particles *up*, *down*, *in*, and *out*. The second part took focus on 12 novel unrehearsed PVs with the same four particles.

The first part of the test had a force-choice, fill-in-the-blank format. It consisted of cloze passages in the form of short dialogs or paragraphs, each of which was missing several PVs. For each cloze passage, the participants were asked to select the most appropriate PV from a given word bank. The second part of the test consisted of 12 paraphrase items; which required replacing the italicized parts of the sentence with one of the given PVs in a word bank. The participants were

told not to worry about tenses, and that they could, if they had difficulties with tense changes, insert the PVs in the infinitive form for both parts of the test.

The criteria for choosing the target PVs of the study were two-fold: firstly, they were chosen from classifications of most frequent and useful PVs for pedagogical purposes provided by Gardner and Davies (2007). Secondly, only PVs with idiomatic meanings were selected and literal ones were excluded. The reason was that literal PVs are rather catchy and simple for EFL students but idiomatic PVs are proven to be extremely problematic for EFL learners (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1999; Rudzka-Ostyn, 2003).

Regarding the scoring procedure, a correct answer on each test item would count as *one score* and an incorrect/no response would otherwise count as *zero*. Therefore, a total of 32 and 12 would be a complete score a participant could gain on part one and part two of the test respectively.

It is worth pointing out that in order to ensure the reliability of pre/posttest, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient was computed using SPSS (version 20.0). The obtained alpha score for pre/posttest was high ($\alpha > .92$) which indicated that the testing instrument of the study had high internal consistency and was adequately reliable.

Procedure

Using tables of random numbers, the 60 intermediate participants of the study were divided into two equal control and experimental groups. The experimental groups received their instruction of 32 target PVs through the model proposed by Tyler and Evans (2003) within the CL framework. The control group received the same PVs following a traditional approach, with no cognitive motivation and only relying on dictionary definitions and synonyms of PVs and using them in some example sentences.

The instruction of PVs was integrated into an extended general EFL program lasting over 1.5 summer months in 3 one-and-a-half-hour sessions per week (a total of 24 sessions). Owing to the bulk of content students had to cover in their program, a limited amount of time (ten minutes per session for both groups) was devoted to the instructional treatment. The course lasted for 8 weeks; each particle was allotted two weeks of instruction. Due to an odd/even schedule, both groups attended the same class at the same hour of the day and were instructed by the same teacher.

The teacher-fronted instruction for experimental group began by giving a brief explanation of particles having a related network of meanings and the notion that the central meaning for each particle designates a spatial relation between a *figure* and a *ground* element. However, to avoid the risk of overwhelming the students with technical terminologies, the dominant employed terms were (F) element or the focus of attention, and (G) or the background. The students were instructed that our understanding of space and the phenomena in our surrounding environment is organized by our brain. The brain does not perceive the world in a flat array; rather, it organizes our perception in terms of (F) and (G) elements. In an imaginary scene, (F) tends to be the smaller, more moveable element which is the focus of attention; the (G) is the larger, less moveable, locating element. The instruction was accompanied with schematic drawings (e.g., stick figures, cubes, arrows, dots, etc.) that the teacher draw on the board to illuminate the spatial scene related to each particle.

Gradually and over the 8 weeks of the experiment, the primary meaning of each particle as well as the additional senses it holds were presented to students emphasizing the roots of these meanings in everyday activities and bodily characteristics. These guidelines were adapted from Tyler and Evans' (2003) book. A noteworthy point is that Tyler and Evans model concentrates on prepositions and not PVs; therefore, some of the senses of *in/out* that only relate to their prepositional function were excluded. Table1 and Table2 summarize the basic and additional meanings of each particle accompanied with some instances of PVs.

Table1: Motivations for up and down based on Tyler and Evans' (2003) model

Particle	Basic Meaning	Additional Senses	Example
UP	Moving upwards toward the top	More	These exercises are good for <i>building up</i> leg strength.
		Better	They decided to get <i>dressed up</i> and go to a nice pub.
		Complete	The mayor has a plan for <i>cleaning up</i> waste sites.
Down	Moving downwards toward the bottom	Less	Don't offer me cigarettes; I'm trying to <i>cut down</i> .
		inferior	He is so modest; he always <i>talks</i> his success <i>down</i> .
		Complete	Plas <i>wipe down</i> the stove after cooking!

Table 2: Motivations for In and Out based on Tyler and Evans'(2003) model

Particle	Basic Meaning	Vantage Point	Additional Meanings	Example
IN	Inside container (containment)	a inside	Enter	He <i>put</i> a lot of time <i>in</i> his research.
			Kept inside (blockage)	Never <i>hold in</i> your bed feelings.
			Disappear	He finally <i>gave in</i> and admitted that his wife was right.
OUT	Outside container (exteriority)	a	Leave	After a three-day rest, the travellers <i>set out</i> again.
			No More	Their money <i>ran out</i> quickly.
			Complete	The research was <i>carried out</i> by students.
			Prevent (exclusion)	Yuga will help you <i>block out</i> pain and stress.
			visible	His unique personality makes him <i>stand out</i> from the crowd.
			Known	The birthday party <i>turned out</i> to be a disaster.

For *in* and *out*, the students were familiarized with the notion of *vantage point* and how a shift of interior/exterior vantage point gives rise to different interpretations. The students were highly recommended not to memorize the instructions but to conjure up the spatial scene relevant to each particle and try to infer the meaning from contextual clues. Another instructed point was the cases where contrasting pairs of *up/down* and *in/out* appear to be synonyms (See Appendix A for details).

As for the control group, the 32 target PVs of the study were taught under the same time schedule but through a traditional approach. The teacher wrote a target PV on the board and asked students to look it up in the dictionary. Single verb equivalent of the PV was also introduced, if any existed. Finally, the students were asked to memorize the PV and learn it by heart.

RESULTS

The collected data from the pretest/posttest assessment were fed to SPSS (version 20.0) and were statistically analyzed by comparison of mean scores and their corresponding *p*-values through T-Test analysis.

Investigating the first research question

In order to investigate whether the two instructional procedures yielded different results independent samples T-Test was performed. As Table 3 depicts, the groups' performances on pretest (part1) show a Sig. (2-tailed) value of 0.394. Put statistically, there is no meaningful difference between the groups at the beginning of the experiment. ($p > .5$) However, at the end of the experiment, the groups' performances on the posttest (part1) display a statistically significant difference ($p < .005$). This indicates the better learning gain of experimental students in comparison with their control peers. Figure 1 portrays the outperformance of experimental groups on posttest in terms of mean scores.

Table 3: Independent samples T-Test for equality of means (pre/posttest-part1)

	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pretest	.859	58	.394
Posttest	-13.699	58	.000

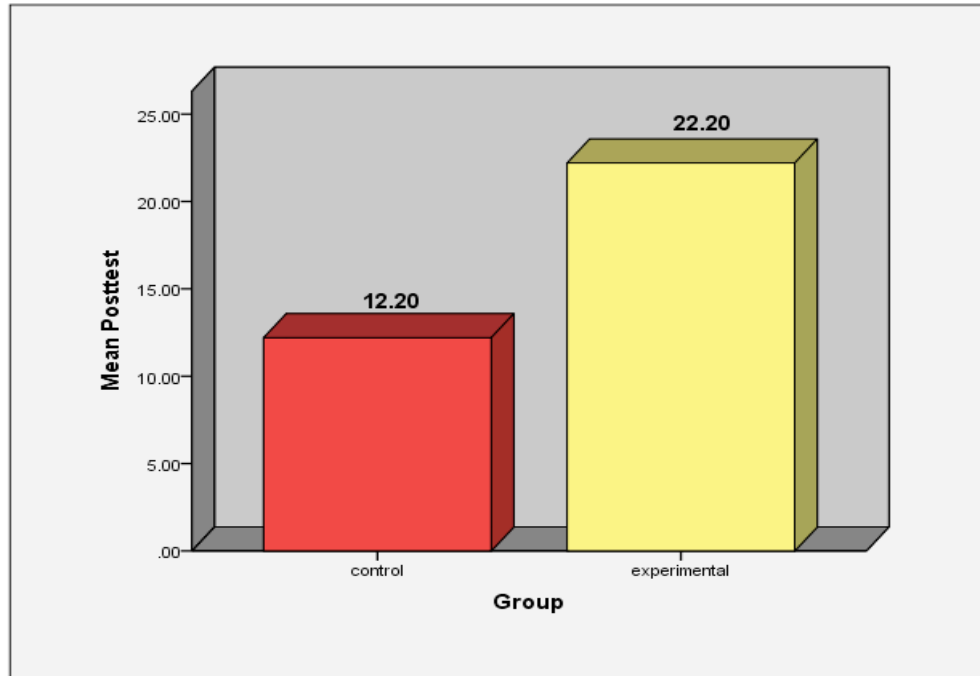


Figure 1: Graphic representation of the means (posttest-part1)

Investigating the second research question

In order to investigate whether the participants could transfer their acquired knowledge to novel PVs the scores of pretest/posttest (part2) were compared in terms of equality of means through independent samples T-Test. As illustrated in Table4, the control and experimental participants performed relatively equal on pretest ($p > .5$) but after the treatment participant group significantly outperformed the control group on the posttest. ($p < .005$) This superiority in strategy transfer is also evident in Figure2.

Table 4: Independent samples T-Test for equality of means (pre/posttest-part2)

	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pretest	1.138	58	.260
Posttest	-11.086	58	.000

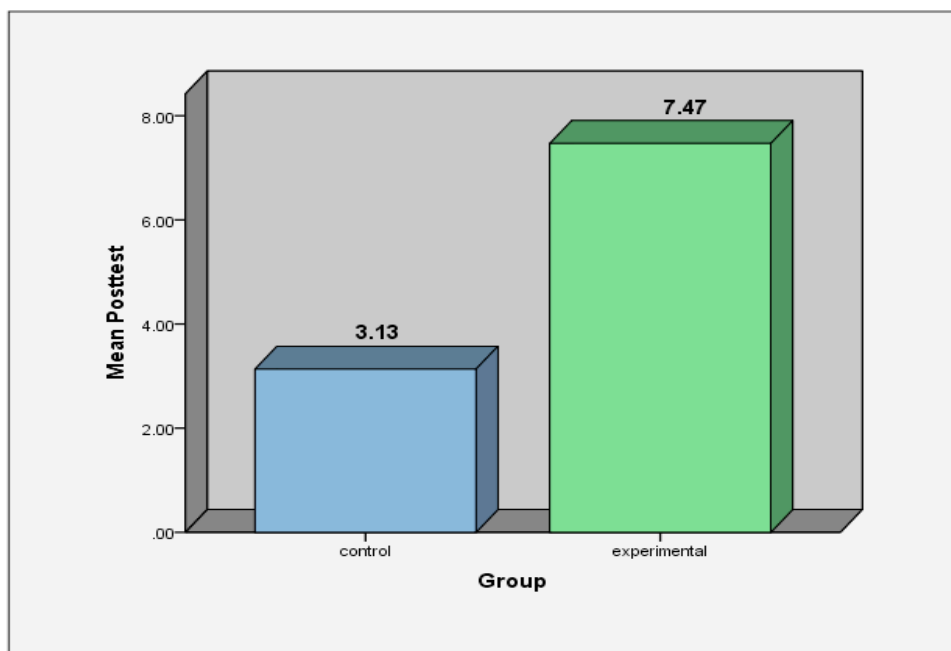


Figure 2: Graphic representation of the means (posttest-part2)

DISCUSSION

Regarding the first research question, analysis and comparison of the results demonstrate that experimental learners significantly outperformed their control peers on the first part of the pretest/posttest, and this lends strong support to the postulation that applying CL to teaching and learning PVs is beneficial and yields better results than a traditional approach that promotes memorization. In general, these findings confirm the outcomes of previous research approving a CL-based approach to the pedagogy of PVs (e.g., Condon, 2008; Condon & Kelly, 2002; Dirven, 1993; Kövecses&Szabó, 1996; Kurtyka, 2001). But meanwhile, these results contribute novel evidence that the shortcomings of previous studies could indeed be overcome by taking a more sophisticated and detailed account of CL motivations. The previous studies showed poor results for efficiency of CL-instruction for idiomatic PVs compared to literal ones. Condon (2008) suggested that this issue roots in the fact that the metaphor awareness-raising approach underscores the embodied experiential basis of particles and is too simplified because it does not account for many details of spatial scenes such as viewer's vantage point. To address the shortcomings of previous research, the current study deliberately concentrated on idiomatic PVs and took advantage of Tyler and Evans' (2003) model where particles are presented with respect to full-fledge and sophisticated details of construal such as figure-ground profiles and vantage points. The advantage and usefulness of this CL-based approach to learning idiomatic PVs is clearly supported by the current findings.

The reason of such superiority lies in the fundamental idea behind CL motivation that was applied to this study. CL puts up that language and linguistic behavior is an integral part of cognition as a whole, and not a separate and unique faculty (Langacker, 1987), it follows that relatively general theories of cognitive processing will pertain to learning a foreign language, in particular, theories which concern memory. Two are particularly relevant: dual coding theory and levels of processing theory. In *dual coding theory* (Paivio, 1971; as cited in Sternberg, 2006) it is held that there are two ways a person could expand on learned material: verbal associations and visual imagery. Visual and verbal information are processed differently and along distinct

channels in the human mind, creating separate representations for information processed in each channel. Thus, both visual and verbal codes can be used when recalling information. Since the treatment of experimental group was a combination of teacher-fronted verbal explanations and representative drawings of spatial scenes encoded by particles from different vantage points, it can be concluded that these two distinct codes might have provided the experimental learners with a dually enhanced processing. Control participants who received neither explicit explanations nor schematic drawings did not benefit from such enhancement and not strangely showed a lower learning gain.

Another relevant theory is *levels-of-processing theory*. The key claim of this theory is that the deeper the level at which information is mentally processed, the more likely the information is to be committed to long-term memory. (Craik & Lockhart, 1972) In other words, the duration and strength of the memory trace can be promoted by (mentally) connecting a new item with ones already known, embedding the item in a meaningful scenario, and/or associating the item with a mental image. There are two levels of processing: deep processing which entails durable semantic associations in memory and meaningful learning, and shallow processing based on no traceable scenario or associative clues leading to fragile memory record which is susceptible to rapid forgetting. This theory sheds light on the results of this study and provides a plausible explanation for the lower performance of the control group: in the absence of prompts to link PVs with mental images or previous knowledge and with relying merely on memorization the instruction on PVs could only be processed at a shallow level resulting in less effective learning and recall. In contrast, CL motivations about the conceptual bases of spatial scenes and meaning extensions of particles enabled the experimental students to process the received instruction on PVs at a deeper level and in a more active manner.

These explanations bear the answer to the second posed question of the study as well. Returning to this question that addressed the knowledge transfer to unfamiliar PVs, the findings indicate a successful transfer of knowledge for the experimental group. As noted by Nation (1990) inferring the meaning of a new item on the basis of existing knowledge is an important strategy in learning a second language and this strategy directly relates to the existence of some background reference. Dealing with new unfamiliar PVs involves drawing on contextual clues to infer the meaning. In general, inference is generated from a retrieval cue which would first have to access information from the relevant knowledge in memory. The strength of an inference is a function of the strength with which the cues are encoded. Accordingly, recorded information at deeper levels of processing and coded dually by verbal explanations and imagery representation would stimulate stronger inference abilities in comparison with the information without such support at memory. That is why the CL-instructed students exhibited better inference ability and could relate their acquired knowledge to unrehearsed PVs. Previous research (Boers, 2000; Condon, 2008) reported no evidence of developing such ability in their experimental participants. Thus, satisfactorily results of the current study bear further witness to the value and advantage of the applied approach.

CONCLUSION

The present study was an attempt to examine whether a recent CL-based approach, namely *Principled Polysemy Theory* (Tyler & Evans, 2003), could have any advantageous contribution to teaching and learning PVs in comparison with an approach in which PVs are instructed through dictionary definitions and single verb equivalents. The findings of the study lend strong support to the superiority of the CL-based approach in yielding better learning gain of PVs as well as knowledge transfer to unfamiliar PVs. This ascendancy may originate from the basic thesis of CL that particles are not arbitrary but motivated by language users' experience of their physical, social and cultural surroundings. The findings imply that such motivated systemacity offers pathways for EFL learners to attain the following benefits:

1. A more profound understanding of conceptual bases of spatial scenes of particles and becoming familiar with the ways particles are conceptualized in native speakers' mindset; a kind of knowledge that does not automatically emerge in a foreign context.
2. Learning and remembering PVs meaningfully and efficiently (owing to greater depth of processing in general and to dual coding in particular)
3. Becoming more confident and less intimidated by PVs; once the students realize that PVs are not entirely arbitrary, they opt for alternatives to blind memorization, such as relying on conjuring up the spatial scenes of particles and inferencing the meaning from available cues. This changes their previous negative attitude toward PVs and encourages them to use them more frequently.

Another implication of the study relates to pedagogues and material designers; they could benefit from these findings in designing and performing actual practices to present PVs using their underlying CL-inspired motivations that may merit explicit teaching and save considerable class time.

Finally, there are a number of limitations to the study that should be acknowledged. The most noticeable limitation is that the study took focus on only four particles; this number is too limited to broad generalizations and further research is needed to determine the transferability of findings to other particles. Another shortcoming refers to the small sample size and the short period of the experiment. With a large and varied sample and by conducting a long-term experiment, the research would have yielded more precise and transferable results. Considering these limitations, it is hoped that further investigations establish a greater degree of accuracy and deeper understanding of the subject matter of the study.

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Appendix A

The importance of construal in interpretation of particle meaning

According to Table 1, the particles *up* and *down* share a common meaning: the complete sense. However, it is important to note that this shared meaning refers to two different ways of viewing the same spatial scene. An example is the following sentences:

- (3)a. The house burned up.
- b. The house burned down.

Both the sentences in (3) describe the same event or spatial scene of 'a burning house' seen from two different vantage points which are depicted in Figure 3 and Figure 4.



Figure 3: The house burned up.

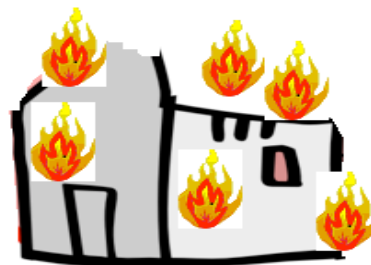


Figure 4: The house burned down.

In figure 3, the fire is the profiled (F) element and the scene highlights the activity of burning until it is complete and accomplished. Figure 4, on the other hand, highlights a depletion and destruction activity and the (F) element is the house which continues burning until it is completely destroyed. In fact, both scenes convey a *completion* meaning; however, the completion of an activity carries a positive sense and hence is encoded in *up* and the completion/depletion which has a negative sense to it is described by *down*.

Another example of importance of vantage point and figure-ground profile is the case of *out* in these sentences:

- (4)a. The sun came out.
- b. The lights went out.

These scenes are demonstrated in Figure 5 and Figure 6.

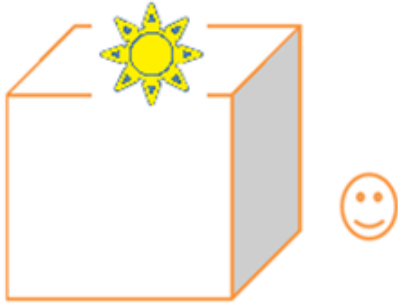


Figure 5: The sun came out.



Figure 6: The lights went out.

The particle *out* in the sentences (4.a) and (4.b) exhibits two seemingly opposite meanings; when the sun is out it becomes visible while when the lights are out they become invisible. Evidently, this controversy becomes clear once the interior/exterior vantage point is taken into account. In fact, the perceptual accessibility shifts according to the shift of vantage point giving rise to different interpretations.

IMPLEMENTATION OF TEAM TEACHING IN AN ESP PROGRAM AND THE INVESTIGATION OF ITS EFFECTIVENESS ON STUDENTS OF COMPUTER SCIENCE ESP VOCABULARY ACHIEVEMENT

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ABSTRACT

This paper presents an experiment concerning the contribution of team teaching to the better understanding of English as a specific purpose (ESP) terminologies. Accordingly, 40 learners majoring in computer science were selected as the participants of this study. Randomly, they were divided into two experimental and control groups. While the instructional material was the same for both groups, control group was taught through team teaching. At the end of the experiment, the findings were compared through t-test. Results after the analysis of the data indicated that who were taught through team teaching gained more ESP vocabulary than those who were taught conventionally.

KEY WORDS: team teaching, ESP, computer science, vocabulary achievement

INTRODUCTION

Team teaching as a form of teacher collaboration has long been implemented in education at all levels. Sometimes synonymous with co-teaching or collaborative teaching, it features teachers' collective efforts that aim to improve teaching quality as well as students' performances. Many researchers have offered various definitions of team teaching: for example, Davis (1995) regarded team teaching as "all arrangements that include two or more faculty in some level of collaboration in the planning and delivery of a course". Not surprisingly, being amenable to different interpretations, the label of team teaching has been custom-tailored to suit diverse instructional purposes, functions, subjects, and educational settings.

The logistics of team teaching seem as simple as bringing two teachers together to work in the same classroom; yet, collaboration between two teachers is indeed a complicated phenomenon. In fact, a main focus of investigation by researchers in education has been the exploration of team teachers' interactions inside and outside the classroom. Researchers have attempted to disentangle issues that pose an impediment to team teaching so as to overcome obstacles that can damage teachers' collaborative relationships. Although a myriad of definitions of team teaching may create some confusion, which Anderson and Speck (1998) called "a cacophony of voices", the literature on team teaching has confirmed the positive effect of team teaching on student learning (Anderson & Speck, 1998) and teachers' ongoing development (Bailey, Curtis, &

Nunan, 2001; Eisen, 2000; Murata, 2002). Students taught collaboratively by two teachers have more access to teachers' assistance through a variety of teaching methods and materials, and opportunities for class participation (Anderson & Speck, 1998). Various forms of teacher collaboration can serve as an important catalyst for teachers' ongoing development and school change (Welch, 1998) because teachers engage in ongoing dialogues and interactions involved in the intense collaborative work. The social constructivist view of learning provides an explanation for the development of knowledge; rather than occurring in isolation, learning takes place in social environments and situated in social activities. Learning from colleagues is therefore one strategic approach for teachers who pursue continuous development in their careers. An effective ESP teacher must possess a relevant background in the subject field, especially on some subjects totally different from English such as science and technology, so as to offer learners a successful and beneficial course. Despite the scarcity of experts with such a cross-disciplinary training, an ESP class can be conducted alternatively by team teaching. In this study, researcher elects to collaborate in ESP teaching between an experienced English teacher trained in language teaching and an instructor specializing in computer science.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Many researchers support the positive advantages of team teaching approach and its effects on learning. Johns and Dudley-Evans (1980) were two of the EAP teachers and researchers who found team teaching extremely useful in their study. Roth et al. (2002) considered co-teaching as an effective means of achieving deep learning of science concepts while learning alternative ways to teach the same subject-matter. Co-teaching also provides opportunities for new teachers to obtain greater opportunities of learning to teach. Eisen (2000) classified team teaching into eight team types based on central purposes of team formation as interdisciplinary or multicultural education, collaborative learning, community action and co-learning, action learning, specialized delivery, professional development, research, and writing. In the context of language education, teaching teams are most often constituted by teachers from different disciplines or different linguistic and cultural backgrounds.

ESP teachers are almost always teachers of English for General Purposes, and their switch into this field is sudden (Stevens, 1988). As Donna (2000) explicitly mentions, they get by with some basic guidelines and with a little help which ultimately proves inappropriate. Their task is to analyze students' needs, outline objectives, select and adapt teaching materials, design lessons, create an adult-oriented learning environment, and assess students' progress (Schleppegrell, 1991). Based on Little's (1990) typology, team teaching is at the end of the teacher collaboration continuum due to its closest interdependence among teachers, as teachers work together in the same classroom, sharing responsibilities of students' performance and implementing teaching activities together. This instructional practice is usually organized by policy makers or school leaders with different purposes. According to Eisen (2000), "no two teams are exactly alike because they operate along a continuum representing countless variations in goals, team membership, and members' relationships". Sometimes team teaching is implemented to utilize teachers' diverse expertise to complement each other in order to achieve better quality of instruction; at others, it is implemented for training purposes to improve new teachers' growth. As close interactions between team teachers in the classroom provide teachers with opportunities

to get exposed to different views and ways of teaching, team teaching is often associated with teachers' professional development in the workplace. Eisen (2000) classified team teaching into eight team types based on central purposes of team formation as interdisciplinary or multicultural education, collaborative learning, community action and co-learning, action learning, specialized delivery, professional development, research, and writing. In the context of language education, teaching teams are most often constituted by teachers from different disciplines or different linguistic and cultural backgrounds. In a similar attempt to Calderón's (1995), Rueda and Monzó (2002) investigated the collaborative relationship between classroom teachers and paraeducators, who shared the same ethnicity and native language with students mostly from low-income Latino communities and who were hired to assist teachers. The study took place in two large public elementary schools located in southern California, with thirty-two bilingual, Latino paraeducators involved in the study divided into three groups according to the range of years of work experience. They were observed in eight to ten occasions when working with students, and were interviewed by the researchers. Different from those teachers in Calderón's (1995) study who were offered opportunities to improve their teaching through team teaching practice, the paraeducators in this study, as the researchers concluded, generally played three roles in the classroom: clerical support, directed teaching, and apprentice. Most of the responsibilities for the paraeducators included doing some trivial work for the teachers or providing students with lessons that had already been designed by the teachers. There were few opportunities for the paraeducators to learn teaching practice from the teachers as apprentice, and interactions between the teachers and the paraeducators were scarce. Translations from Spanish to English were the most common source of input that the paraeducators were asked to provide. The paraeducators' suggestions about teaching practice and input of students' culture were not positively valued by the teachers. Limited interactions with the teachers and unequal power relationship prevented the paraeducators from learning how to teach and pursuing teaching careers.

The researchers stressed that teachers' acknowledgement of paraeducators' cultural and community knowledge is critical to helping paraeducators make a better contribution to student learning. They also asserted that in order to promote paraeducators' professional development, schools need to encourage collaboration between paraeducators and teachers in the ways of allowing interactions and time for planning lessons by both groups. Besides, since power differences negatively affect the collaborative relationship, teachers and paraeducators should be accountable to each other with regard to their respective roles. To implement team teaching with a different purpose from those of the two studies just described, Roth, Masciotra, and Boyd's (1999) studied the collaborative practice used to facilitate teacher learning of novice teachers, in which a novice teacher's development through co-teaching with an experienced teacher in a 7th-grade science class was investigated. Grounded in hermeneutic phenomenology which is concerned with understanding lived situations of being-in-the-world, the researchers argued that co-teaching is an approach to helping the novice teacher acquire tacit dimensions of teaching. In contrast to the gap between discourse about teaching learned at universities and the experience of actually teaching a classroom which the novice teacher experienced in a teaching alone situation, Roth et al. (1999) suggested that co-teaching provided the beginning teacher with abundant opportunities to "briefly step back, take time out from the responsibilities of developing the classroom conversation, and reflect-on – but with little delay relative to the action – the questions and interactions of the master teacher". In other words, they found co-teaching to be a more preferable teaching practice than sending pre-service teachers into a classroom where the resident teachers let them work on their own.

RESEARCH QUESTION

The following question is addressed in the present study:

1. Does team teaching, collaborative, enhance computer students' English achievement in an ESP program?

RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

From the research question the following hypotheses were found:

1. There is a positive difference in English achievement between the control group and the experimental group under the treatment through team teaching in ESP program
2. There is negative difference in English achievement between the control group and the experimental group under the treatment through team teaching in ESP program
3. There is no significant difference in English achievement between the control group and the experimental group under the treatment through team teaching in ESP program

METHODOLOGY

Participants

In this study, the addressed community was 40 undergraduate male and female students enrolled in the ESP course as a part of their major in computer science department at SAMA vocational and technical training school, Mahshahr branch. The department itself divided them into two intact classes. Randomly, one class was selected as an experimental group which included 20 students and the other as a control group which included 20 students. The data collected from the subjects' performance on the post-test and pretest are described in terms of mean (\bar{X}), standard error of measurement (SEM), standard deviation (SD), and Levene's t-test, using the Statistical Package of Social Science (SPSS) program.

Instruments

The main instruments used in the present study were the following: The textbook which was *English for the students of computer* published in Iran. It was developed by Barani, and Rezaei and the publisher is the Rahnama Press (Barani, Gh., & Rezaei. S. H, 2011). The textbook contains twenty lessons which due to the shortage of time ten lessons were covered. The pretest worked as a proficiency test which determined the homogeneity of the students regarding the English language proficiency and an achievement test played the role of posttest to point out the would-be impact of co-teaching on the experimental group.

Design and Procedure

A quasi-experimental design was exploited for the present study. Accordingly, Two intact English classes in the ESP context were used in the study. The first class comprised 20 students and was held on Tuesdays. It was the experimental class co-taught by a pair of teachers group in which an ESP teacher who taught the technical terms and an EFL teacher who instructed the general terms. The other class, considered as control group, included 20 students who came to the class on Saturdays. An EFL teacher only conducted the instruction. The language proficiency of the

control and experimental groups was assessed by a proficiency test. In the control group ESP lessons were instructed by just one teacher, EFL teacher. While in the experimental, the participants were taught by two instructors, both EFL and ESP teacher. These two teachers cooperatively co-taught the ESP lessons based on team teaching model which made the study distinguishable from the traditional view of teaching. Collaboration and consensus between co-teachers determined every issues of the teaching process. In short, these groups were worked with for 10 sessions; each session taking almost one hour and quarter.

Data Analysis

The data collected from the subjects’ performance on the post-test and pretest are described in terms of mean (X), standard error of measurement (SEM), standard deviation (SD), and Levene's t-test, using the Statistical Package of Social Science (SPSS) program.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The aim of this chapter is to present the results of the quantitative analysis. Therefore, The preliminary descriptive statistics for the ESP vocabulary knowledge test (posttest) appears in the following Tables.

Table 1: Descriptive statistics of posttest for the experimental and control groups

Group	Test	N	Mean	SD
Experimental	posttest	20	50.8	2.37
Control	posttest	20	47.85	4.55

As displayed in Table 1, experimental group’s performance in the posttest was better than those in the control group. It was also revealed that after the instructional treatment, the mean of the posttest scores for experimental group was 50.8, while for the control group it was 47.85. In the case of SD, for the experimental group, it was 2.37, whereas that of the control group was 4.55. So, the findings suggest that there was a difference between experimental and control groups after the treatment, collaborative teaching.

Table 2: Results of t-test between Experimental groups and Control groups in Posttest

Group	N	Mean	SD	t- value	Df	P
Experimental	20	50.8	2.37	2.56	38	0.014
Control	20	46.85	4.52			

**Significant at .05*

In order to compare the effectiveness of the collaborative teaching on ESP vocabulary leaning , Levene's t-test demonstrated in Table 2 indicated that the mean difference between the experimental and control groups’ scores measured at the time of posttest was significant (t = 2.56, p<.05). The mean difference between the experimental group (M=50.8) and control group (M=46.85) was 3.95. This indicates that the experimental group who were under the treatment at the collaborative teaching gained more ESP vocabulary than the control group. Therefore, it can be claimed that this difference is due to the kind of instructional environment where the experimental group was taught there and this gives further evidence for accepting the first hypothesis and rejecting the other two hypotheses.

1. There is a positive difference in English achievement between the control group and the experimental group under the treatment through team teaching in ESP program (accepted)

2. There is negative difference in English achievement between the control group and the experimental group under the treatment through team teaching in ESP program (rejected)
3. There is no significant difference in English achievement between the control group and the experimental group under the treatment through team teaching in ESP program (rejected)

CONCLUSION

This study aimed at investigating the effect of collaborative teaching on ESP terminologies promotion in the field of computer. To this end, the following question was under consideration: Does team teaching, collaborative, enhance computer students' English achievement in an ESP program?

To perform this research, subjects were randomly put in one control group and one experimental group and were assigned to one of the two following instructional conditions:

The experimental group was taught through the collaborative or team teaching, while Control group was taught traditionally. For data analysis, Levene's t-test was used. The calculated t-test proved that ESP vocabulary can be learnt better via collaborative teaching. The experimental group gained considerable amount of vocabulary than the control group. So, the computation and analysis of the t-test provided researcher with the judgment to reject the negative and null hypotheses of this study which stated that collaborative or team teaching would not significantly promote learners' ESP vocabulary knowledge. Results of this study indicated that teaching ESP courses through collaborative or team teaching at the university or instructional institutions might become a useful way for students to improve and facilitate their learning of ESP words. Based on the findings, one concludes that team teaching has much influence on the learning of computer ESP terminology.

In terms of the limitations of the study, the point should be highlighted that due to the shortage of the time, the researchers did not verify the pre-post tests in terms of reliability.

PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATION

The current study may provide some support for the idea that collaborative teaching can have powerful effects on the learning of computer ESP terminology. Findings of this research paved the way for the acceptance of this belief. The major implication to be drawn from this research is that students need to learn technical words through the collaboration between EFL and specialized teachers.

SUGGESTION FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

This study aimed to answer just one question: Does teaching ESP course via team teaching , collaborative teaching, enhance computer learners' ESP terminology?
However, another question may be raised as the follow:

1. In this study, only computer students were involved. It is suggested that learners of other majors participate in further studies.

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LITERARY COMMUNICATION AND ITS ROLE IN POETICS

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ABSTRACT

Communication provides an opportunity for persons of different cultures to learn from each other. It is important to build skills that enhance communication. In Communication process, creating means not only using the language and dialect of the people you are serving, but also using communication vehicles that are proven to have significant value and use by the target audience. Literary communication is the contact between the author and the reader. Like other forms of art, poetry has performed the function of a communication medium. When a poet describes an object it is separated from its context in the natural world and therefore looks different to the reader. A literary text, at least in our period and culture, may be about anything. Of course, literary narrative must satisfy the basic principles of narratives, such as description of (human or anthropomorphic) action, and a schematic structure with at least a complication and a resolution. The key element in visual poetry is the visual nature as opposed to the sound the words make. Performance poetry also relies on visual and oral communication. The difference being that aspects of the poem must be seen in the poet rather than on other forms of published material.

KEYWORDS: communication, literary communication, pragmatic context, maxims

INTRODUCTION

Although literary communication is a relatively new concept, yet this form of language communication has come to be characterized by so many individual traits that can be studied as a self-contained phenomenon. Sociologists claim that all culture is communication. We may state that all literature is also communication. Although literature clearly meets the specifications of language communication, it nevertheless introduces unique elements, or perhaps a different system of hierarchy, into the rules governing vernacular speech. Speech act is not only an act of communication in the narrow sense. Equally important is expression and the effect it exercises on the interlocutor. These facts also have a bearing on a literary work even though literature possesses the unique feature of placing the message in the forefront of attention. However, since the message is never transparent and since its function is not restricted to denotation, it may therefore be said that a literary work communicates itself.

This formula does not contain a tautology. In a literary communication the message does not get lost as a text and it is not transparent. That is to say, the message that is communicated in that act contains what is essentially the Work, what constitutes its structure. Its reference functions emerge on a more distant plane.

One other important consideration supports the validity of the formula which states that a literary work communicates itself. Within the sphere of the literary culture in which we live, literary communication is perceived and felt as an act of a separate, distinct and unique character. Thus conceived, it represents a specific value which is not reducible to a different value. Communication does not therefore obviate the communiqué; it loses none of its reasons for existence even when it is recognized that it has fulfilled its current communication purpose. By communicating itself, a literary work remains in constant communicative readiness.

Literary communication may be distinguished from language communication, defined in its strictest sense, in one other aspect. Knowledge of a language code, though it is a necessary condition of literary communication, however, cannot fill that purpose satisfactorily. One may understand the language of a given work perfectly but be unable to establish communication with it. In order to do this, one must be familiar with what we call literary styles. The term is used here in its broadest sense to include both period styles and the styles of particular types of discourse, and most particularly literary genres. Literary styles also cover a system of images, symbols and stereotypes which form the world the author and the reader share. It is this that makes communication between them possible.

The purpose of literature like other forms of art is to communicate and not to exhibit. The exhibitory poetry aims at pleasing the senses and is thus purely emotional in nature. It becomes subjective and it is the poet rather than the poetry that then matters. The pleasure is solely derived from the form, a composition of sounds of words. Such poetry rarely attempts to convey the unexpressed knowledge; the essential idea behind the order of the form. A poem should rather communicate effectively. It does so by using forms with right analogies and balanced ornamentation eventually to establish a harmony between the spiritual and the intellectual self and the universal truth.

Communication provides an opportunity for persons of different cultures to learn from each other. It is important to build skills that enhance communication. Be open, honest, respectful, non judgmental, and willing to listen and learn. According to Fujishin (2009, 134) In process of communication, listening and observational skills are essential. Letting people know that you are interested in what they have to say is vital to building trust. Communication strategies have to capture the attention of the audience.

CREATING COMMUNICATION

In Communication process, creating means not only using the language and dialect of the people you are serving, but also using communication vehicles that are proven to have significant value and use by the target audience. Literary communication is the contact between the author and the reader. The writer sends a message through his text and the audience receives it. The text comes to life and serves its purpose only when it communicates with the reader (Dijk, 1985).

The message can take any form, from a book to a script or a poem. What is important is the constant movement between producing and receiving stays alive, and that the author and the

reader speak the same language, and thus, communicate even though it is true that the majority of literary studies focus on the analysis of the actual text and not on the literary communication between author and reader, (Beaugrande, 1997). It has also been accepted that a comprehensive literary theory needs to include both the analysis of the text and the examination of its contexts (Rahim, 2011).

Because, as important as the studying of the text might be, the text's functions and the conditions of its production and reception are equally important as they connect it to its reader, without whom the text would not achieve its purpose.

The importance of literary communication lies also in the fact that no structures are ever solely literary. Rather, it is the historical and cultural context that determines whether a text could be considered literary. Metric structures, for example, are used in poetry, song writing and advertising without, however, these types of writing are considered as literature (Wolfreys, Robbins & Womack, 2006).

With this said, the structures and the context of a text are closely connected and one cannot exist without the other. Therefore, a theory of literature can only be a theory of literary communication. (Sell, 2000)

PSYCHOLOGY OF THE READER

The examination of the text in relation to the psychology of the reader is another important aspect of literary communication. Literary communication is achieved only through the study of the cognitive and emotive structures of literature (Ibsch, 2001).

When one considers the perceived qualities of poetry, one cannot escape facing a rather disconcerting issue. Words designate "compact" concepts; even such words as "emotion" or "sadness" are tags used to identify the mental processes; they do not convey the stream of information and its diffuse structure. Notwithstanding, some poetry at least is said to display diffuse emotion, vague moods, or varieties of mystic experiences.

COGNITIVE STYLISTICS

According to Semino (2002), brain-research of the last few decades seems to suggest, language is a predominantly *sequential* activity, of a conspicuously *logical* character, typically associated with the left cerebral hemisphere; whereas diffuse emotional processes are typically associated with the right cerebral hemisphere.

Thus, while we can *name* emotions, language does not appear to be well suited to convey their unique *diffuse* character. Accordingly, emotional poetry, or *mystic poetry* ought to be a contradiction in terms. We know that this is not the case. But this presentation of the problem emphasizes that we have all too easily accepted what ought not to be taken for granted (Johansson, 2005).

SOCIAL CONTEXT

The term social context refers to the psychological position that people react to things differently depending on their immediate environment. Literary communication is also important for the fact that it relies on the social context of the text. (Grant, 1995) Apart from the text itself and its literary structures, apart from its historical and cultural background and apart from its psychological properties, a text needs to also be examined from a sociological perspective. The text's organization, production and interpretation in a specific society, as well as the rules, the values and norms that define it, are taken into consideration when evaluating a text's ability to communicate with its audience.

CORRESPONDENCE BETWEEN THE SPACES OF IMAGES AND MEANINGS

The process of correspondence between the spaces of images and meanings may be multiple-faceted (Arana, 2008). It involves the sequence including perceptions, fragmented or primitive images, forms of images or sophisticated images, and constructing new images through restructuring perceived images. And corresponding to this sequence of image construction and reconstruction, there is the sequence of meanings: primitive or basic element of meanings, sophisticated or basic system of meanings, grand system of meanings and system complex of meanings. Logically, there is a cross-boundary feedback effect in this correspondence, and it is possible that any form or state of the construction-reconstruction of images could be mapped to multiple phases of meaning formation and correspondence.

POETRY AS A COMMUNICATION MEDIUM

Like other forms of art, poetry has performed the function of a communication medium. Especially before the development of printing, verse rather than prose served as the dominant medium of literary communication, since it was easier to follow and learn by heart and readier to be combined with other genres such as song and dance (Steinberg, 2007)

In the modern society, however, the importance of verse has largely diminished, as the novel emerged as the most popular channel of communication and many subjects previously treated in verse moved over to the realm of prose. Now, the development of new spaces of communication like electronic visual media is producing yet another change. With the novel requiring to be read alone and taking much time, shorter verse which can be recited for and together with a mass audience and more easily combined with other media has regained a relatively high status. On the other hand, it is yet to be seen whether such retrieval could prevail over a larger trend of the decline of literature in general. There have also been a number of instances arguing that communication is not one of the many functions of art, but the very essence of it (Feldman, 1967).

It is well-known that the majority of literary studies, both traditional and modern, focus on the analysis of the literary text and not on the processes of literary communication.

Those views which hold that literary theory should be concerned with the "literary text" alone are unwarranted and ideological: not only the structures of the literary text are important, but also its functions, as well as the conditions of production, processing, reception, etc., as they are accounted for in psychological, sociological, anthropological, and historical studies. A pragmatic account of literature has its natural place in such a theory.

People communicate not just to convey information for businesslike practical reasons; they also convey feelings and attitudes. Pieces:

Telling a joke, passing the time in conversation and greeting old friends are some examples, and poetry is another (Thayer, 1997).

Some propositions including many involving values, emotions, feelings, attitudes and judgments can't be conveyed through communicating practical information or with scientific precision. Like science, literature (and especially poetry) uses a specialized language for the purposes of precision in matters different from science (Buddenbaum & Novak, 2001).

In ordinary life, people must deal with forms of communication that use some of the methods of poetry, including editorials, sermons, political speeches, advertisements and magazine articles. Yet when approaching poems, many people confuse practical or "scientific" kinds of communication with poetic communication, sometimes as a way of justifying their interest in poetry, and so fall into certain mistakes (Shafieyan, 2011).

One mistake is "message-hunting" looking only for a profitable statement or idea in a poem. A short prose statement can work better than a poem for communicating advice. Something else is at work in poetry.

Another mistake is thinking that poetry deals only with emotion or sensation, or even thinking that poetry can express an emotion such as grief the way tears would express it, or bring up the emotion in the reader (Vickers, 1973).

But poetry can never do that as well as real experience, the authors say, and a poem, such as Keats' Ode to a Nightingale, used as an example here, may really convey the poet's interpretation of an experience.

A third common mistake is an attempt to mechanically combine the first two, defining poetry as the "beautiful statement of some high truth", or "truth" with "decorations". This mistake can lead to thinking of poems as collections of pretty language pleasing for its associations with pleasant things. But even Shakespeare and Milton wrote fine passages bringing up unpleasant and disagreeable associations. The things represented don't themselves shape the poetic effect, which depends on the "kind of use the poet makes of them."

These mistakes look at poems in a mechanical way rather than in an organic way in which the elements (such as meter, rhyme, figurative language, along with attitude and emotion) need to be understood to be acting in a fundamental, intimate, organic way with each other.

The introduction also states (but doesn't develop the thought) that poems are inherently dramatic, with an implied speaker who reacts to a situation, scene or idea.

NARRATIVE POEMS

In a "Foreword" introducing discussions of individual poems, the authors say that poetry takes the general human interest that people have in other people (expressed at other times in news articles about such things as outlaws, lovers killing lovers or other tragedies, to cite some examples) and put into a form "that preserves it" even after initial curiosity wanes (Brooks, 1976).

Poems that tell a story use the reader's natural curiosity about how a story will turn out (the most obvious way we become interested in literature), although readers or listeners who know the ending still enjoy the poems. The story element can be prominent. Narrative is a way for the poet to provoke certain emotional reactions and ideas in readers.

Using the ballad "Johnie Armstrong" as an example, the authors show how a narrative poem, far more than a novel or even a short story, will use bare "facts" in a dramatic way that gives them an emotional and intellectual meaning, whether or not the reader or listener has analyzed those or other elements. Poems are more concentrated or "closely" organized than prose in that they tend to present concentrated, sharper selected details in a concentrated, carefully arranged way, giving them more "intensity." By presenting concrete, explicit statements (as in "The Wife of Usher's Well"), the poet can convey an emotional impact as well as information, which more abstract language can't do. The reader can also be drawn into a more immediate appreciation of a poem by drawing out ideas from suggestions rather than the poet making explicit statements. Yet not every implication of a poem needs to be understood consciously for a reader to enjoy the work.

The theme of a poem can be properly described (to give a fuller understanding of the poem) without the process becoming "message hunting" if the reader understands that "the poem gives the theme it's force", not the other way around (Winchell, 1996).

DESCRIPTIVE POEMS

The poems in this section give readers an impression of some scene or object showing the impression they gave the poet either through his senses or imagination. Conveying fresh, vivid impressions of things is fundamental to good poetry, the authors assert. Descriptions in poetry are linked closely to our lives and our values just as narratives are (Huxley, 2002).

When a poet describes an object it is separated from its context in the natural world and therefore looks different to the reader. We feel it carries associations, emotional or intellectual or both, that the natural object doesn't. If nothing else, we know that the poet has chosen the object to describe and we wonder why.

EXPLORATION OF IMAGE

The exploration of image triggering and message transition as an artistic form of communication can cause a blurring of the boundaries between poetry and art, if we can say that they in fact do have boundaries. We have created words to say this such as word art, concrete poetry, visual poetry, pattern poetry, visual riddles and puzzle poetry.

The concept of concrete poetry and word art has been around a long time although the words to define it as an art form may not. It is believed that the word "concrete poetry" began to spread as a new term in the 1950's helped by an exhibition of concrete poetry and a manifesto that was published in Brazil.

If we looked closely at some of the ancient forms of writing we might see that many have relied on the visual aspects of the written language to communicate, but more recently beginnings have been attributed to Apollinaire, who created calligrammes in 1914. In visual poetry, the juxtaposition of letters, sound and shapes may be played with (Dymoke, 2003).

The synergy of these words, letters and shapes trigger images, sounds and messages that can be called the art of the poet....making more from the sum of the parts in a visual communication. The key element in visual poetry is the visual nature as apposed to the sound the words make. Performance poetry also relies on visual and oral communication. The difference being that aspects of the poem must be seen in the poet rather than on other forms of published material (Anderson, 2009).

With the development of communication technologies, we can embed aural and visual stimuli into unique still or animated artistic expressions....what shall we call these new art forms? We already have words such as digital art and new media to talk about some art forms but do the words digital poems really communicate all that they can be? We have the technology to bring more senses into the poetry equation, touch for instance.

IMPRESSIVE SPEECH ACT

There are reasons to introduce a kind of illocutionary act which involves the intention to change the attitude of the hearer with respect to the context (text, speaker, etc), especially the evaluative attitudes of the hearer (Dervin, 1984).

We might call this kind of act an "impressive" or "ritual" speech act. This provisional conclusion still leaves open the problem whether there is a specific speech act of literature. Probably this question should be answered in the negative: we should realize what the original forms and functions of "literature" were in order to understand its specific pragmatic function. It is well known that the specific notion of "literature," as such, is not very old. Indeed, our novels have their roots in everyday stories, myths, and folktales, and our poems in songs, hymns, etc. Functionally, then, our literature still belongs in the class where we also have our jokes, wise-cracks, dirty stories, etc. The differences with these kinds of communication, then, are not so much pragmatic as rather social: literature has been, we already suggested, institutionalized; it is published, authors assume a specific status, it is reviewed in specific papers and journals, it is taken up in text books, discussed, analyzed, etc. The institution also is defined by norms and values; it will be the case that there are also conditions pertaining to the structure of the utterance itself (as in any speech act). The attempt made above to sketch the problem about the pragmatic status of literature in terms of intended attitude change at the level of cognitive and/or emotive "liking" should not be seen as a reformulation of the classic principle which takes literature's function to be exclusively "esthetic." First of all, as we have already suggested, esthetic functions are based on communicative effects, and based on institutionalized norm and value systems which are socially, culturally, and historically variable. This allows for the well-known fact that some kinds of discourse, although clearly having "non-ritual" pragmatic function.

IMPORTANCE OF LITERARY AUTHOR

Although the institution of literature is cultural rather than juridical or political, there is some sense in saying that "literary" texts are only appropriate when written by a "literary author." (Forastieri, et al, 1980).

Of course, this may seem circular, and problematic for "first" literary products, but it points to the cultural fact that there is an instance which "recognizes" the text and its author as "literary." As is also the case for a conviction by a judge, other contextual (and textual) conditions must in that case be satisfied: not everything an author says is thereby "literary," only those texts written in his "function" of a writer; the text should be made public, published in an appropriate message book, journal but usually not on the front page of a news paper), etc. All these conditions play of course a crucial role in the definition of literature in the usual sense of the term, but we do not count them among the pragmatic appropriateness conditions in a more limited sense, because they are culturally different. Of course, there are few, except theoretical, grounds to reject a broader conception of pragmatics, in which the full social, institutional and even cognitive/emotive, properties of communication are made explicit. Another aspect of the literary context is the knowledge, in both speaker and hearer, of overlapping, and ideally identical, rule systems, conventions or "codes" besides those of natural language.

Literary texts in the strict sense are such only due to other, institutional aspects of the socio-cultural context, e.g. originality with respect to the system which is a culturally and historically dependent value (Poyatos, 1988). In each communicative situation the speaker will have a certain "position" and certain attitudes with respect to denoted events, persons or the hearer in particular. That is, he will not only provide explicit evaluative statements, but also implicitly selects, describes and combines objects and events from his point of view. The same holds in literary communication, but the system of perspectives may be more complicated because besides his own point of view, the author may represent the point of view of a narrator and/or those of represented persons possibly through the point of view of the narrator. As soon as representation is involved, we no longer are at the pragmatic, but at the semantic level, although the specific aspect is that communication contexts are represented. The pragmatics of literature, then, only pertains to the perspective of the author himself, and to his relations with the readers (Teun, 1981).

That pragmatics should also specify how pragmatic function and context is systematically related to the text. In fact when we mentioned specific literary rules and conventions, being used and interpreted parallel to those of the natural language system. In which respect are these pragmatically relevant? First textual manifestations of "underlying" pragmatic structures are all kinds of announcements and titles. Much in the same way as performative verbs may denote the locutionary force of an utterance. In linguistics, a locutionary force is the performance of an utterance, and hence of a speech act. The term equally refers to the surface meaning of an utterance because, according to J. L. Austin's posthumous "How To Do Things With Words", a speech act should be analyzed as a locutionary act (i.e. the actual utterance and its ostensible meaning, comprising phonetic, phatic and rhetic acts corresponding to the verbal, syntactic and semantic aspects of any meaningful utterance), as well as an illocutionary act (the semantic 'illocutionary force' of the utterance, thus its real, intended meaning), and in certain cases a further perlocutionary act.

For example, my saying to you "Don't go into the water" (a locutionary act with distinct phonetic, syntactic and semantic features) counts as warning you not to go into the water (an illocutionary

act), and if you heed my warning I have thereby succeeded in persuading you not to go into the water (a perlocutionary act). This taxonomy of speech acts was inherited by John R. Searle, Austin's pupil at Oxford and subsequently an influential exponent of speech act theory. Cognitively these function as preparation for the adequate pragmatic interpretation of the text.

DEICTIC EXPRESSIONS

A typical manifestation of semantic-pragmatic features of a context are deictic expressions (Forastieri, et al, 1980). Other pragmatic "indicators" are those of surface structure: graphical structure, and morpho-syntactic structures, even if there are other discourse types (e.g. advertisements) and similar specific rules.

At the semantic level we first of all have the condition already discussed for the pragmatic level: the text need not be true. More specifically, it need not denote properties or actions of speaker and hearer, as is often the case in other speech acts. We here obviously have the main source for the pragmatic nature of ritual illocutionary acts: as soon as the underlying proposition is (known to be) false the corresponding speech act will also assume a "spurious" character, at least at the micro-level: we have quasi-assertions and quasi-complaints. Whereas other speech acts often require a specific semantic content, e.g. an action of speaker or hearer, no such requirement seems to hold for literary communication (Forastieri, et al, 1980).

A literary text, at least in our period and culture, may be about anything. Of course, literary narrative must satisfy the basic principles of narratives, such as description of (human or anthropomorphic) action, and a schematic structure with at least a complication and a resolution. Both the semantic and the narrative structures may however show specific operations of deletion, permutation, repetition and substitution which are conventionalized for literary communication, and which need not be spelled out here. Although, as we said, the semantics of literary texts is in principle not restricted, especially in modern literature, such restrictions may well occur in specific types of literature or in different historical or cultural contexts. Whereas in other descriptions of psychical or social events, the account may have a more or less general character, or general conclusions added (as in a psychological or social report, a theoretical study, etc.), a novel may describe particular details which would not occur in other kinds of discourse, e.g. because they are irrelevant or inaccessible. On the other hand, much classical literature requires a specific "lexicon" in which the possible "themes" of a text are given.

Only recently, then, a poem could also be about a table or an egg, and only in the modern novel specific trivia of everyday life could be described in detail, whereas in classic literature "important" themes, such as life, death, nature, love and hate, power, war or pride, etc. would be preferred. This is not the place to enumerate the basic properties of literary texts. It should only be stressed that the specific ritual illocutionary force of literature may be indicated by typical textual conventions at the graphical/phonological, syntactic, stylistic, semantic and narrative levels. Maybe none of these typical structures are exclusively literary, taken in isolation, but together and given certain properties of the context already mentioned above (presentation, reading situation, etc.) they may be sufficient indications for the appropriate pragmatic interpretation of the text. Clearly, there is an interaction between text and pragmatic context: as soon as the structural properties of the text are marked (with respect to some rule, norm, expectation) the reader will also remark them, whereby the specific pragmatic nature of ritual discourse can be

brought about; and conversely: if the specific attention is not on some intention of the speaker with respect to specific beliefs, or actions of the reader, the reader is able to pay focused attention to the specific structures themselves.

IMPORTANCE OF MAXIMS

The idea of applying Gricean Maxims to the analysis of literary texts has been developed most fully in van Dijk's *Pragmatics and Poetics* and Pratt's *Toward a Speech Act Theory of Literary Discourse*. Van Dijk states that all Gricean maxims change in literary communication, that the speaker 'opts out' from the principles of ordinary conversation and that the 'Cooperative Principle' does not hold. He proposes the so-called Cooperative Principle from which the four literary counterparts of the Gricean principle are derived. Pratt (1977) also notes the conspicuous difference in communication on the levels of author-reader and hero-hero. She shares Ohmann's (1974) view on speech acts of the latter level as 'mimetic' or 'imitation speech acts' and states that what counts as a lie, a clash, an opting out, or an unintentional failure on the part of a fictional speaker (or writer) counts as flouting on the part of the real-world author. The implicature involved as the result of flouting is that the non fulfillment is in accord with the purpose of the exchange in which the reader and author are engaged.

CONCLUSION

Communication is the exchange and flow of information and ideas from one person to another; it involves a sender transmitting an idea, information, or feeling to a receiver. Effective communication occurs only if the receiver understands the exact information or idea that the sender intended to transmit. Communication provides an opportunity for persons of different cultures to learn from each other. It is important to build skills that enhance communication. Literary communication is the interaction between the author and the reader is just one in a variety of communicative acts. Literary communication is fundamentally different from oral communication in that the addresser and the addressee in literary communication are temporally, locally and possibly culturally distanced. As a result literary communication is a one sided process with no feedback on the part of the addressee. In literary communication, there exists a strong tendency to observe the Maxims. They prove to hold good for literary as well as for oral communication. They cannot be said to be totally violated or flouted nor is there any necessity to introduce special Maxims for literary communication. The non-fulfillment of Maxims can be accounted for in terms of the goal oriented approach by the presence of a predominant goal supra ordinate to that of communicating something to the reader.

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ISSUES TO ADAPTING WEB-BASED TRAINING DEPLOYMENT IN IRAN HIGHER EDUCATION: STUDENTS' AND PROFESSORS' PERSPECTIVE

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ABSTRACT

E-learning efforts and experiments currently receive much attention across the globe. The availability of electronic and web-enabling technologies also dramatically influences the way we view the learning strategies of the future (Kramer, 2000; Hitz, 1995). This is a practical, non-experimental study in which questionnaire was used to collect data. The results show that the main important infrastructures are lack or shortage of designed equipment and facilities to accommodate new technologies, lack of students' access to computer and proper telecommunications, specific problems of Iran telecommunications infrastructures. The major administrative-educational barriers of e-learning development are: lack or shortage of incentives to study in an electronic way, lack of laboratory sessions through e-learning and lack of education for students in the field of instructional technology. Also, the findings show that the major human barriers are: inadequate specialized faculty members in new educational technologies,

unfamiliarity of planners and administrative officers with e-learning applications, lack of commitment of faculty members to spend time for learning via technologies. Among financial barriers in developing e-learning, the following items can be mentioned: lack of investment and funds, high cost of educational technology equipment, high cost of updating the required content.

KEY TERMS: Electronic learning (E-learning), higher education, IT and ICT, teaching and learning

INTRODUCTION

The introduction of distance and Electronic Learning Technology (hereafter, e-learning) in teaching institutions is often complex and educators do not always accept the Information and Communication Technologies (hereafter, ICT) as expected. Removing trade/political barriers facilitates e-learning around the world, but there are significant cultural barriers to the use of Internet-based resources and computer technologies (Collins, 1999). The Internet may be a global technology but users work in local/national contexts (Li & Kirkup, 2007). In this regard, Galanouli, Murphy, and Gardner (2004) comment that resisting change is a state of mind for many educators and one of the most difficult barriers for effective ICT integration (see also Barak (2007)).

Arbaugh (2002) defined e-learning as the use of the Internet by users to learn specific content. Other researchers define e-learning as using modern Information and Communications Technology (ICT) and computers to deliver instruction, information, and learning content (Selim, 2007). The stakeholders of e-learning are learners, faculty, administrative and technical staff, and employers (Ozkan & Koseler, 2009).

The growth of information and communication technologies (ICT) has dramatically reshaped the teaching and learning processes in higher education (Pulkkinen, 2007; Wood, 1995). ICT for education is more critical today than ever before since its growing power and capabilities are triggering a change in the delivery means of education (Pajo & Wallace, 2001). The higher education institutions around the globe have increasingly adopted ICT as tools for teaching, curriculum development, staff development, and student learning (Kumpulainen, 2007; Usluel et al., 2008).

With the ongoing development of ICT and the diverse fields it affects, various theoretical models have been proposed for a better understanding concerning its diffusion, adoption, acceptance, and usage (Davis, 1989; Rogers, 2003; Scurry et al., 2005; Taylor & Todd, 1995; Venkatesh & Davis, 2000; Venkatesh et al., 2003; Yi et al., 2006). Although ICT has the potential of improving educational methods and the quality of teaching and learning, the advantages of ICT are often under-realized (Surry & Farquhar, 1997). The adoption of ICT at universities is often poorly implemented and is based on unfounded optimism (Taylor, 1998). A large numbers of faculty members are still hesitant or reluctant to adopt technology for teaching tasks (Jacobson, 1998). Research has found serious obstacles to fully integrating technology into the teaching and learning processes in higher education (Becta, 2004). In addition, there are no universal solutions to the problems as the ICT adoption is not merely a technical issue. Instead, the rate of adoption

is affected by factors such as innovation characteristics and various economic, sociological, organizational, and psychological variables (Straub, Keil, & Brenner, 1997). Straub et al. (1997) used the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) in a cross-cultural study with participants from Japan, Switzerland, and the United States. They discovered that TAM exhibited fidelity for the US and Switzerland, but not in Japan, which suggested that the model may not predict technology use across all cultures (Straub et al. (1997)). In another intercultural study, Pelgrum (2001) reported that there was a substantial variation regarding the most significant barriers to ICT between teachers in different countries.

The existing face-to-face learning paradigm is no longer the only educational paradigm due to the advent of e-learning that makes it possible to receive education without being restricted by time and space (Hyeoncheol & Injin, 2007). Inoue (2007) indicates that “isolation and disconnectedness in the online environment may be to blame for student dropout, as well as the feeling of isolation that may lead to loss of motivation to learn” (cited from Doris, Supawan, & Christine, 2010).

The higher education centers are the applicants of the utilization of electronic education, because these educations are not limited to a special time and place. Thus, the higher education centers consider this fact as a prominent advantage (Garrison, 1999). Generally, virtual education means making the best use of electronic systems such as computers, internet, multimedia discs, electronic journals, virtual newsletters, etc. The virtual education aims are to make the learning easier, and more effective, and it can save time, cost and energy (Anderson and Elloumi, 2004). When examining the literature at the intersection of teaching and learning with information and communication technology (ICTs), one is struck by the relative lack of focus upon the potential problems and drawbacks of the incorporation of technology into educational work-life (i.e. Granger, Morbey, Lotherington, Owston, & Wideman, 2002; Hassini, 2006; Liaw, Huang, & Chen, 2007; Marbach-Ad & Sokolove, 2001; Marbach-Ad & Sokolove, 2002; Mazzolini & Maddison, 2007; Ruthven, Hennessy, & Deaney, 2005).

The present time that is considered as ‘Information Age and Information Revolution’ that has made major changes in human lifestyle and has created a new concept which is called ‘information society’. Information society is a symbol of all conventional and traditional social processes such as business, education and the like which is located in a new format by using information and communication technology (ICT). Miladi and Malek Mohamadi (2010), based on Yaghoubi’s quotation (2008), believe that broader approach towards E-learning indicates that the education and E-learning system have unique benefits and advantages for organizations and educational institutions.

Chahill (2008), based on Duderstat (2001), in this regard, stated that the higher education must meet these changes and they should invest in capacities which make the new types of learning, independent of time and place limitation, possible, in order to create a persuasive view in their future in the next millennium.

Increasingly, organizations are adopting online learning as the main delivery method to train employees (Simmons, 2002). Internet, which is located among the top ten inventions of the twentieth century, has achieved the concept of long-life learning; and, it also has driven learning out from the limitation of time and place. At the same time, educational institutions are moving toward the use of the Internet for delivery, both on campus and at a distance. Many adult education and training providers are running to get on the online learning bandwagon. Several

global groups of institutions are collaborating to promote distance education (Alley, 2001; Woudstra & Adria, 2003).

Lynch (2004), in a study entitled ‘investigation of effective variables for students participation in an electronic evaluation’, that was conducted by regression analysis, showed that ‘computer’, ‘gender’ and ‘the experience of participating in Electronic evaluation’ are of the predictor variables of the variability of the dependent variables. There is a significant relationship between the variables ‘attitude toward computers and CBT’ and ‘psychological readiness of the learners to participate in electronic evaluation.

Oliver (2002) in a study entitled ‘quality assurance of E-learning in Australian higher education’ discusses the factors leading to successful adaptation and sustainable use of virtual learning in higher education in Australia.

Today, with the advent of network-based information technologies and the Internet, a new revolution has created in the teaching and learning process; and, the other traditional practices of knowledge transfer through the text, paper, exercises, etc. are less able to attract the attention of young people who are living in media-saturated world. New communications technologies (especially the Internet) have exciting capabilities to overcome learning barriers and geographical access; many higher education institutions seeks to use these capabilities and features learning, acquisition, teaching and research.

Frazeen (2004), in his final dissertation, entitled ‘effective factors in quality of web-supported learning’ considers the relationship and impact of several basic factors. He divided these elements in following six groups: organizational and educational factors, instructor, students, technology and educational designing.

Panitz (2008) in his study, about the advantages of electronic and participatory learning about motivating the learners, stated that working students had less interest in face to face education. Chahill (2008) in his paper entitled ‘motivating factors of faculty members to participate in E-learning’ refers to a significant relationship between ‘vocational factors’ (time, credit, career development, rewarding and high responsibility at work) and ‘structural factors’ (access to training materials over the course of learning, presenting different learning styles) with the implementation of E-learning courses. Gamble (2009) in his research entitled ‘The learning effects in a multicultural environment’ compared and investigated the impacts of an E-learning course that was held in China and the US.

The use of new technologies is very important, because, on one hand technologies related to higher education are being developed constantly and rapidly; and on the other hand, the poor quality of educational professionals and specialists is recognized as a part of global education problem. Unfortunately, in most countries, training of human resources in development projects were not the main priority; as a result, training and teaching programs was not tailored to the educational issues (Rabb, Ellis & Abdon 2002).

E-learning, which is considered as both internet use and digital technologies in teaching and learning, has always been identified as either an alternative solution or a new procedure to boost traditional approaches of education. Educational institutions apply e-learning in teaching process for the following reasons:

- IT promotion: E-learning is becoming an ideal tool for teaching and learning.
- Rich information: E-learning provides the accessibility of rich information resources every time and everywhere for both learners and teachers.
- Alternative learning approach: E-learning can give the possibility and opportunity of learning process to those who were marginalized as disable students.
- Blended learning: E-learning can complete traditional classes by releasing valuable resources and developing training of a greater number of traditional students (Spender, 2001).

Information technology has created new opportunities for education. More than 1000 institutions in 50 countries provide e-learning options (Sharma & Kitchens, 2004). E-learning is a useful tool for enhancing the quality of teaching and learning. E-learning is an “innovative approach to education delivery via electronic forms of information that enhance the learner’s knowledge, skills, or other performance” (Siritongthaworn, Krairit, Dimmitt, & Paul, 2006, p. 139).

Although e-learning in developing countries had been increasingly adopted to achieve by traditional and non-traditional students, in developing countries it is still unknown and it is not used as a training approach (Abdon, Ninomiya & Rabb 2007). However, the e-learning has great facilities for solving many of the problems of education systems including education system such as limited financial resources, lack of attention to developing learners’ creativity and innovative ability, little use of distance learning technologies and the Internet, little relationship of students with the international scientific community, little relationship of education sector with the private sector, mismatch between education system and global changes, use of inappropriate teaching methods, lack of a learner-centered approach in education and lack of cross-organizational relationships (Zare & Zolali, 2006). At an institutional level there are concepts such as Christensen’s (2007) disruptive technologies, and Anderson’s (2006) long tail economy, but few frameworks as reliably and widely used in higher education as Boyer’s (1990) work. Thus, according to numerous features and capabilities of e-learning for agricultural education, the fundamental question of the present research would be “what are the obstacles of electronic learning deployment and development in Iran Higher Education?”

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

For the past few years, there has been a growing understanding of the important role of information and communication technologies (ICT) in higher education. Various new models of education are evolving in response to the new opportunities that are becoming available by integrating Web-based technologies (Barak & Rafaeli, 2004; Light, Nesbitt, Light, & White, 2000; Ward & Newlands, 1998). Though Web-based technologies are considered to be commonly used for educational purposes, the transition from traditional teaching to ICT-enhanced environments is not obvious and ought to be further investigated.

ICT can serve as a tools for designing new learning environments (Donovan & Nakhleh, 2001),

integrating virtual models (Dori, Barak, & Adir, 2003), and creating learning communities (Gordin, Gomez, Pea, & Fishman, 1997; Rafaeli, Barak, Dan-Gur, & Toch, 2004). However, not all teachers are convinced that ICT should be an integral part of their teaching strategies (Galanouli, Murphy, & Gardner, 2004). Galanouli et al. (2004) declared that resisting change is a state of mind for many teachers and one of the most difficult barriers for effective ICT integration.

With the advent of information technology in education, many researchers have focused on various aspects of this research. In many of these studies, organizational factors, infrastructures, facilities, planning and policy making for e-learning is considered. In other research, the necessary competences and skills for e-learning development in education systems is addressed. Some researchers have noted the following items: the cost of internet access, lack the proper hardware and software facilities, bandwidth limitations, low speed of internet and the delay in responding (Shea et al. 2005; Nordheim & Connors 1997; Zhang et al. 2002; Anstead et al. 2004; Murphy & Dooley 2000; Grant 2004; Liyan Song et al. 2004; Gulati 2008; Partides 2002; Wilson & Moore 2004).

The Internet information technology offered tools for developing collaboration and cooperation activities in distance learning (Jara et al., 2009; Macdonald, 2003), facilitating student interactions in a constructivist perspective linked to Vygotsky's theory (1978). Cooperation implies an engagement to peers through social interaction (Amhag & Jakobsson, 2009; Hew & Cheung, 2008) and collaboration activities delivered in the virtual social environment offered the student the possibility to develop understanding through their own constructs, becoming active learners. Chao, Saj, and Hamilton (2010) believe that collaborative course implementation is the best way to design high quality online courses.

In some studies, lack of social participation and social interaction between students and professors have been considered and their results suggested that students, in e-learning, do not possess the possibility of interacting with friends and classmates and getting help when they are faced with problems and then, probably images and texts may not be satisfying for them (the students). So, the students are deprived of the sense of community in e-learning; and, the students' sense of resentment and despair in e-learning courses is more in comparison to traditional courses (Kurtus 2000; Beneke 2001; Vonderweel 2003; Woods 2002; Lieblein 2000; Liyan Song et al. 2004).

The expansion of e-learning products is one of the fastest growing areas of education since it allows cutting down the costs and it improves the cost-effectiveness of education (Gilbert, Morton, & Rowley, 2007). Despite the proliferation of papers into distance learning in the last past decade, most research has considered technical, financial and administrative aspects and less research was focused on didactic issues. More recently, methodological issues were addressed by researchers, considering various approaches for delivering online courses (EL-Deghaidy & Nouby, 2008). The model of a training based on self-instructional materials and independent study was deeply revised and the focus of distance learning research enlarged to the application of innovative didactic methods such as cooperative learning, having the constructivist learning

theory as a reference (Amhag & Jakobsson, 2009; So & Brush, 2008; Wheeler, Yeomans, & Wheeler, 2008).

In other studies, the obstacles of e-learning development have been investigated regarding educational aspect. In these studies, the following items are addressed: the interval between faculty members and students, motivating procedure of students to begin or continue electronic courses, students' inability in understanding the goals of online courses due to lack of teachers participation, lack of computer literacy or low level of computer literacy among teachers and students, inexperience of faculty members using of technology in teaching, credit of online tutorials and the quality of its graduates, and finally lack of training for teachers in the field of educational technology (Anstead et al. 2004; Dillon & Walsh 1992; McPherson & Nunes 2000; Miller & Miller 2000; Miller 1997; Murphy & Terry 1998; Nordheim & Connars 1997; Kelsey et al. 2002; Gulati 2008).

Some researchers have referred to management issues such as student recruitment strategies, lack of standardization in the field of e-learning, inadequate salary for faculty members, shortage of teaching spaces which are equipped with new technologies, assessing methods of students, copy right and intellectual property issues of the content and course (Arabasz et al. 2003; Shea et al. 2005; Wilson 2003).

In this article, the authors try to respond to the following research question. What are the issues to adapting web-based training deployment in Iran higher education? Then, some alternative solution will be discussed regarding web-based training deployment. And, some recommendations are released at the end in order to pave the road of those who are interested in this field.

METHODOLOGY

Participants

This is a practical and non-experimental research. The population of this study consists of graduate students of Iranian University which were selected using purposeful sampling. In this sampling, the samples are selected in such a way that they represent a population which is expected to meet the research objectives (Churchill, 1991). In this study, the students were selected that continually used the mail and at least they had used an electronic registration system two times in the college.

Research Instrument

Thus, 130 students were selected as the sample. The research tool was a questionnaire consisting of two parts: "individual characteristics of the students" and "a measurement Scale for E-learning adapting Barriers" with 30 items which was measured based on five-scaled Likert range, from very low to very high. Cronbach's alpha for the barriers of web-based training was 0.89, indicating the high reliability of the research instrument.

Data Analysis

Content validity of the questionnaire was obtained through a few revision stages for education and e-learning experts. The obtained data of the questionnaire were analyzed by making the best use SPSS software.

Research Procedure

To assess the reliability of the questionnaire, it was preliminarily completed using 25 students out of the sample. Descriptive and inferential statistical analysis was conducted in two parts.

RESEARCH FINDINGS

Individual characteristics

Research findings showed that students' average age is 24 years. 55.5% of the students were male and 45.5 percent were female. The average score of 54.1 percent of the students (highest frequency) was more than 17. The average score of 37 percent of the students was between 15 and 17. And, the average score of 8.9 percent of them was less than 15. The lowest average score of the students was 12.5 and the highest was 19.25 while their computer literacy was upper intermediate.

Web-based training barriers

Table 1, shows the infrastructural obstacles to the development of e-learning in higher education.

Table 1: Infrastructure and Equipment Barriers for web-based training

Barrier	mean	SD	Priority
Lack or shortage of designed equipment and facilities to accommodate new technologies	3.84	0.90	1
lack of Students' access to the computers and proper communication	3.80	1.22	2
Specific problems of Iran telecommunications infrastructures	3.79	1.21	3
Technical problems and the need to time spending to learn solutions	3.75	1.18	4
Old computer systems	3.71	1.17	5
Lack of administrative and technical support for e-learning equipment	3.69	1.14	6
Lack of a proper plan to prevent theft and vandalism	3.55	1.11	7
The use of computers as a means of luxury	3.43	1.18	8

According to presented mean in Table 1, the mean of all the barriers is more than 3 and it is evaluated as moderate and upper than moderate in the students, perspective. In other words, the role of infrastructure and equipment problems, which hinders the development of e-learning in higher education, is considerable. Here, lack or inadequate facilities and equipment for the use of new technologies in higher education is the most important barrier (mean = 3.80).

Table 2: Administrative – educational barriers for web-based training

Barrier	mean	SD	Priority
Lack of laboratory sessions through e-learning	3.89	1.18	1
Lack of education for students in the field of instructional technology	3.78	1.14	2
Lack or shortage of incentives to study in an electronic way	3.77	1.05	3
The nature of e-learning and lack of students' access to real people to solve their problems within their fields	3.70	1.04	4
Lack of transition of the academic culture through e-learning	3.43	1.25	5
Requiring much time to prepare students	3.40	1.09	6

In Table 2, administrative and educational challenges of e-learning development in higher education is presented. The mean of the presented items and components show that 67.5 percent of the administrative and educational issues, to a large extent, and 32.5 percent, to a moderate extent, hinder e-learning development in higher education. The main barrier is considered lack of laboratory sessions via e-learning. Regarding higher education fields and the dominant practical academic activities which is done in farms and laboratories, and also regarding the students' attendance in the farms, which is one of the requirements of academic courses, the possibility of holding sessions via e-learning is so far-fetched. The second and third barrier in the development of e-learning are: 'lack of training courses for students to learn new technologies' and 'absence or lack of incentives for them to study via e-learning'.

Another important factor in the adoption of e-learning in an organization or institution is skilled and committed workforce (Broadbent, 2001). In Table 3, the shortage or lack of skillful manpower for the e-learning development and problems of human resources are mentioned. Regarding the mean of the human resources, 64 percent of these barriers hinder e-learning development in higher education in moderate and higher level. 36 percent of these barriers hinder e-learning development in higher education in low and very low level. The most important barrier for human resources for the development of e-learning is lack of qualified faculty to use modern instructional technologies. The difference between the traditional classroom teaching and electronic learning is similar to the difference between driving a car and flying a helicopter. While some of the skills that come with cars driving may be applicable to the flight, but these skills are not sufficient by themselves. Thus, the transition from one to the other requires more skills. Also, the transition from traditional classroom learning to electronic learning involves acquiring new skills that are typical of this type of teaching and learning (Turgeon, Biase & Miller, 2000).

Table 3: Human barriers for web-based training

Barrier	mean	SD	Priority
Inadequate specialized faculty members in new educational technologies	3.92	1.17	1
Unfamiliarity of planners and administrative officers with e-learning applications	3.80	0.92	2
Lack of commitment of faculty members to spend time for learning via technologies	3.77	1.27	3
Stakeholders oppose to e-learning methods	3.78	1.22	4
Students' unfamiliarity with the ways of interacting with instructors	3.45	1.25	5
Lack of interest in students for e learning	3.33	1.44	6
Excessive dependency of students to computer-based teaching and neglecting the teachers' instructions	2.72	1.31	7
resistance of faculty members against changes and their fear of technologies	2.52	1.35	8
Lack of any experience of the students about e-learning and their fear of enrolling in e-learning units	2.44	1.29	9

Some think that the implementation of electronic learning facilitates the teachers' work, but this idea is not always true. Development and deployment of new types of training requires further work and attention. Planners and administrators unfamiliarity with electronic learning applications is the second human issue for the development of electronic learning domain. Lack of commitment of faculty members to spend time learning the technology is the third priority. Electronic learning development requires huge investments both in the financial and in the workforce sectors. The main issues in the e-learning costs are for buying an e-learning content, tools and related systems. The most important issue for the development of electronic learning in higher education is shortage of funds for investment and credit for electronic learning development. This issue accounts for the highest average compared with all 26 barriers are listed in Tables 1 to 4.

Table 4: Financial barriers for web-based training

Barrier	mean	SD	Priority
Lack of investment and funds	3.91	0.90	1
High cost of educational technology equipment	3.66	1.16	2
High cost of updating the required content	3.34	1.14	3

The high cost of purchasing equipment for college to use electronic learning and the high cost of updating the content are the second and third priorities. According to in Table 4, and regarding the average of the three credit barriers, financial problem is one of the most important concerns in the development of electronic learning in higher education.

Factorial Analysis of E-learning Development Barriers

To categorize the barriers of e-learning development, the exploratory factorial analysis approach was used for data summarization. The suitability of the collected data for factorial analysis was determined by making the best use of KMO (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin) and Bartlett's tests. KMO value equals to 0.816 which shows that the data for factorial analysis are appropriate. Also, Bartlett test statistic equals to 46.22 that indicates that it is significant in 0.01 level.

Table 5: The number of extracted factors with eigenvalues, percentage of variance and cumulative percentage of variance

factors	eigenvalues	percentage of variance of eigenvalues	cumulative percentage of variance
First	5.60	17.35	17.35
Second	4.65	14.69	32.04
Third	3.61	11.63	43.67
Fourth	3.48	10.71	54.38

In Table 5, the number of extracted factors with eigenvalues of each of them, percentage of variance and cumulative percentage of variance of each factor is observed after rotating with varimax method. As it is shown, eigenvalue of the first element is 5.6 and it has the highest influence in determining the barriers. Eigenvalue of the fourth factor is less than other factors and it would account for a smaller percentage when compared to other factors. Totally, these four factors determine 51.40 percent of total variance of e-learning development barriers; and, the other 49.60 percent of variance were the factors that had not been identified by factorial analysis. After considering the associated variables with each factor and their factor loadings, which can be seen in Table 6, barriers to the development of e-learning were named in this way: The first factor includes four barriers referring to the process of learning implementation. Thus, the first factor is named "administrative barriers" that explained 18.35% of the total variance of all obstacles. The variables in the second factor discuss more on the problems of manpower and human resources development in e-learning development.

Table 6: Variables associated with each factor and the coefficients obtained from the matrix

Factor s	variables	Load factor of variables
Administrative barriers	The nature of e-learning and lack of students' access to real people to solve their problems within their fields	0.738
	Specific problems of Iran telecommunications infrastructures	0.577
	Lack or shortage of incentives to study in an electronic way	0.559
	Lack or shortage of designed equipment and facilities to accommodate new technologies	0.544
	Lack of laboratory sessions through e-learning	0.541
Human barriers	Lack of interest in students for e learning	0.782
	resistance of faculty members against changes and their fear of technologies	0.725
	Excessive dependency of students to computer-based teaching and neglecting the teachers' instructions	0.719
	Inadequate specialized faculty members in new educational technologies	0.717
	Stakeholders oppose to e-learning methods	0.547
	Lack of any experience of the students about e-learning and their fear of enrolling in e-learning units	0.536
Technical	Lack of administrative and technical support for e-learning equipment	0.775
	Lack of education for students in the field of instructional technology	0.680
	The use of computers as a means of luxury	0.632
	Lack of a proper plan to prevent theft and vandalism	0.624
Financial	High cost of updating the required content	0.745
	Lack of investment and funds	0.653
	High cost of educational technology equipment	0.628

Hence, this factor is named as "human barriers" that accounts for 15.20 percent of the total variance. Administrative and human barriers account for 30.34 percent of the total variance of barriers of e-learning development. The third factor deals with technical problems and educational issues involved in the development of e-learning. Thus, the factor refers to the "Technical- educational Barriers" to the development of e-learning which 15.73% of the explained variance is dedicated to this factor. The variables of the fourth factor assets the credit and financial problems of developing e-learning; hence, this factor is named "financial barriers" in the development of e-learning in higher education that, on the whole, explains 11.91 percent of the total variance.

CONCLUSION

Recent studies have shown that "the successful implementation of educational technologies depends largely on the attitudes of educators, who eventually determine how they are used" (Albarini, 2006). Indeed, understanding the intrinsic and extrinsic dimensions, and including moderating factors (specifically, the cultural dimensions) that influence educators' attitudes towards ICT and adoption in higher education is, therefore, a focal point of interest but is under-researched in recent educational studies of information-accessing behavior (see for instance, Chang and Lim (2002)). As Li and Kirkup (2007) propose, "how far culture influences people's perception of the Internet and their use of it (. . .) needs further research". As Venkatesh (2000) notes, there is a significant and growing body of research regarding the importance of the role of intrinsic motives in technology use (see for instance, Davis, Bagozzi, & Warshaw, 1992; Finneran & Zhang, 2005; Sanchez-Franco & Roldan; 2005 for a review).

New information technologies are opening extraordinary abilities to change or reshape teaching and learning activities in all institutions of higher education. They also provide tools to design modern scientific environments that have never been possible before. For this reason, many universities want to establish electronic courses using the capabilities of information technology in the form of e-learning or online learning. However, the study several research of illustrates that the development of e-learning in education systems are faced with many problems. That unfamiliarity of policymakers and educational planners with them can impose heavy costs on educational institutions. This paper aims to familiarize planners, policy makers, students and faculty members with the issues facing the use of e-learning in higher education. It was found that the important steps in the development of e-learning are 'the strengthening and developing of telecommunications infrastructure in educational institutions' and 'providing access to the networks of institutions' since the effectiveness of e-learning depends on the availability and reliability of hardware and software, and lack of adequate telecommunications infrastructure severely affects the communication between the learner and the educational system. Therefore, funding for facilities and learning tools is a serious need for universities. Many researchers cited lack of the hardware and software as one of the major challenges of development of e-learning (Anstead et al., 2004, 28; Shea et al., 2005; Zhang et al., 2002; Usun, 2006).

Investment in training workforce and training of skilled manpower is another important issue in the development of e-learning. Without specialist and competent manpower the development of e-learning will fail and the resistance of the traditional system will be increased and then,

entering to higher education and information technology will be harder. Moreover, consideration of the nature of several educational courses in planning for the use of e-learning is very important. E-learning will not be replaced by traditional education and it should be focused on the fields and subjects that traditional education system is not able to respond to such problems. The use of modern technology will solve problems and lead to higher education success. Finally, we can say that universities and educational institutions cannot overcome obstacles of the e-learning development without adopting a holistic and integrated approach. And, their policies for directing and providing the necessary resources to facilitate the development of e-learning should be a long process.

The researches do not believe that web-based training is and will be the only possible way to reach such an efficient training and education. Web-based training will be best coming if it is mixed with some other types of media and training. This process leads to a better, cheaper and more effective education that entitled *blended learning*. Although some traditional teachers avoid adopting new methods and techniques web-based training and blended learning, which limits the general tendency toward applying these technologies in education, there is a growing trend for this new training types and hopefully it would be more manifest and apparent day by day.

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THE EFFECT OF USING LEARNING LOGS AS A SELF-ASSESSMENT TOOL ON THE SYNTACTIC DEVELOPMENT AMONG IRANIAN PRE-INTERMEDIATE EFL LEARNERS

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ABSTRACT

Recently, there has been focus on self-assessment and its effect on students' Learning. Many techniques have been cited for self-assessment. This research attempts to find out, if learning logs as a self-assessment tool has any significant effect on syntactic development. To this end, a standardized proficiency test was conducted on 90 pre-intermediate learners at Amin and Parsa language Institutes in Shahrood. Among them 60 learners who scored one standard deviation above and one standard deviation below the mean were selected. Then they were randomly divided into two groups of 30. Before this research was conducted, a pretest was given to the participants and the treatment followed afterwards. After the treatment, the posttest was conducted. Finally the analysis of t-test was used to find the statistical answer for the above mentioned question and this research indicated that, the experimental group has better results and such kind of activity should be used within a curriculum during the course of study.

KEY WORDS: Learning log, self-assessment, syntax.

INTRODUCTION

In recent years a debate has developed over which techniques to teaching and learning is more effective. Teacher can use these techniques and methods for measuring and understanding their students' weaknesses and strengths. One of these methods is assessment. Assessment, in broad sense, means "any method used to better understanding the current knowledge that a student possesses" (Collins & O'Brien, 2003, p.29).

Also the notion of assessment may have complicated aspects. Assessment is often divided into the following distinctions:

- 1) Formative and summative.
- 2) Objective and subjective.
- 3) Referencing (criterion-referenced, norm-referenced).
- 4) Informal and formal.

Summative assessment, or assessment of learning, and assessment for learning is formative assessment (Stiggins, 2001). In fact, summative assessment is related to assessing students' learning at a particular time, whereas formative assessment is related to further improvement of learning students, assessment of learning versus assessment for learning (Crooks, 2001).

The purpose of formative assessment is to reflect the concepts and skills the teacher emphasized in the class for judging students' performance (Guskey, 2003). The information collected through formative assessment is used to detect the strengths and weaknesses of the learners for the purpose of improving proficiency (Collins & O'Brien, 2003; Shaaban, 2005). According to Black and Wiliam (1998b) the assessment process includes all activities in the class, either by teachers to assess their students or by students to assess themselves, and according to this definition, "assessment includes teacher observation, classroom discussion, marking tests and collecting information from students themselves about their own learning; namely students' self-assessment" (Davis, 1998). Students' self-assessment can be considered as one of the most important formative assessment techniques and it can improve the quality of student's learning and it modifies teaching strategies. Therefore, if students have enough time to assess themselves in the class, they will be more confident and they can improve themselves better, (Angelo & Cross, 1993).

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM AND PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

One of the major goals of linguistics is to identify the syntactic rules of a language; syntax is a major component of the grammar of a language. Syntax is referred the ways that words combine to form sentences and the rules which govern the formation of sentences, making some sentences possible and others not possible within a particular language (Richards & Schmidt, 2002). To communicate students must develop their syntactic ability. Yet after these many years of exclusive methods for teaching grammar, our students have not reached an acceptable level of mastery and they have many problems. Also the teachers assess their students' syntactic ability on the basis of the traditional assessment methods such as, written tests. These tests bring anxiety, fear, or disappointment to students which might negatively affect their language learning. For this reason, this research attempts to examine the effect of using learning logs as a self-assessment tool on syntactic development. So the major concern of the research is to provide appropriate techniques to expand students' attention to the self-assessment that is necessary for their learning. Nowadays teachers mainly try to prepare students for assessing themselves through different techniques. These techniques can be replaced by teachers' test, which can make anxiety for students. One of these practical techniques can be making logs by students in the class, in which they can also use grammatical structures in their logs, besides assessing themselves. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to investigate the effect of learning log as self-assessment tools on syntactic development (conditional and passive structures) among Iranian EFL learners.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THIS STUDY

When this research is conducted, it is expected that a number of fruitful results would be achieved. Firstly, it will make an effective method to develop some aspects of grammar (conditional and passive forms), since it can provide an opportunity for learners to assess themselves in the class. Secondly, it will introduce a way of self assessing through learning logs. Thirdly, it will involve students' attention and increase their motivation on their own learning. In

this way, Iranian pre-intermediate EFL learners can benefit the result of this study and develop their syntactic ability by employing learning log as a self-assessment tool in their process of learning.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

According to Collins (2009), syntax is related to the following means:

- 1- The branch of linguistics that refer to the grammatical arrangement of words and morphemes in the sentences of a language.
- 2- It is facts about grammatical arrangement of words in a language.
- 3- It is a systematic statement of rules governing for the grammatical arrangement of words and morphemes in a language.

According to these definitions about syntax it is important to know about it especially for EFL learners. In this research the researcher wants to study the effect of using learning logs as a self-assessment tool on syntactic development.

Self-assessment or self-evaluation

According to Richards and Schmidt (2002), self-assessment also self-evaluation is referred to check one's own performance on a language learning task after it has been completed or checking one's own success in using and learning language. They also have cited, self-evaluation or self-assessment is an example of a meta cognitive strategy in language learning.

Other meanings of assessment

In literature, the terms assessment and evaluation are sometimes used interchangeably (Collins & O'Brien, 2003). But sometimes they are used in differently. Assessment, in broad sense, means "any method used to better understand the current knowledge that a student process" (Collins & O'Brien, 2003, p.29). On the other hands assessment of students includes using a well organized system, namely tests, to make judgments about the student's achievement (Gronlund & linn, 2000). Tests may create anxiety, fear, or disappointment for students, and may have negative effect on language learning of learners. Students might suffer from spending long hours of study and preparation for tests and they might be disappointed at the fact that what they concentrate differs from what the teacher emphasizes on his/her question (Guskey, 2003).

Self-assessment is a kind of assessment that students can be involved in the teaching-learning process and it helps improve their performance (Brantmeier, 2005; Falchikov & goldfinch, 2000; Shaaban, 2005). Self-assessment does not mean that students are allowed to assess themselves in the form of grades; instead they continue feedback on their progress to help both students and teacher.

Students' self-assessment is referred to be one of the most important formative classroom assessment techniques, and one of the purposes of this technique is to improve the quality of students' learning, it can also lead to modify teaching strategies that have not met the required learning outcomes.

Students can increase their awareness of what is happening in class by assessing their own learning (Gipps, 1994). Definitely the most important factor of a successful teaching-learning process is active student's involvement (Stiggins, 2001). This needs teachers to provide their students with feedback for using it effectively for learning and consequently, students can learn how to assess themselves so that they can learn what they need to do In order to achieve success (Black & Wiliam 1998b).

Assessment without test

The following are devoted to so call alternative assessment methods, including:

- Observation
- Portfolio
- Conferences
- Dialogue
- Journals
- Journal

Journals are written conversations between students and teachers (Hold away, 1979). Dialogue journal is a written conversation between a teacher and an individual student, which is quite confidential and is an on-going thought a whole semester or school year (Froese, 1991). Dialogue journal writing supports the writing process by providing an authentic two-way written interaction between writing partners, which are usually the teacher and the student (Edelsky, 1986; Peyton & Reed, 1990; Peyton & Staton, 1993; Silva, 1990; Staton, 1988a; Urzua, 1987).

Students trust and get closed acquaintance with the reader/responder of dialogue journal writing, so they attend to specifics more and explain their ideas in more detail to meet their reader/responder needs (Alexander, 2001). Also Richards (1992) has defined number important benefits of dialogue journals that provide useful information for individualizing instruction such as:

- writing skills.
- writing strategies.
- Their interests, expectations, goals.
- Students' experience in and outside of the class.
- Learning process.
- Attitudes and feeling about themselves, their teachers.

Learning log

According to Brown (1941), a journal is a log or account of person's thought, feelings, reactions, assessments, or ideas, that usually written with little attention to structure, form, or correctness. Learners can involve their thoughts without fearing of those thoughts being judged later by teacher, and sometimes journals are represented a stream of a consciousness with no particular point, purpose, or audience (Brown,2010).According to Staton, Shuy, Peyton, and Reed (1987,cited by Brown,2010), there are some categories or purposes in journal writing such as the following:

- Language-learning logs
- self-assessment reflection
- grammar journals

- responses to reading
- acculturation logs
- diaries of attitudes, feelings, and other affective factors
- Strategies-based learning logs

What is difference between journal, log and diaries?

Learning logs, journals and diaries are terms often used interchangeably. However, the purpose of them may differ slightly (Moon, 2003). Diary is a record of the day's events, what happened, who was met with and what may have been discussed and what was decided at that time. It is general but also can be very specific and detailed but it may also refer to other source of information (Moon, 2003). Journals are free-flowing, often un-structured pieces of writing that relate to opinion and personal experience (Froes, 1991). Whereas, learning log is valuable tools that will help students make sense of their learning at school, also it is an opportunity for reflection on what you are learning, how you learned, and what you still need to learn (Moon, 2003). Learning logs are clear response to specific questions focused on the learning process, and they are objective, and factual (Richards, 2002).

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

As mentioned before the purpose of this study is to investigate whether using logs as a self-assessment tool have any significant effect on syntactic development or not. Also the present chapter describes the following parts: the participants, instrumentation, materials, procedure, data collection and design. The participants section details the population from which the researcher plans to select the sample. The instrumentation section deals with the instrument or data gathering devices that used in this study. The procedure section outlines the research plan. It describes what researcher did and what data was needed.

Participants

To test this null hypothesis, all the pre-intermediate level male and female EFL learners in Amin and Parsa Institutes in Shahrood aged between 15 and 20 participated in this study and they enrolled in the new course at the pre-intermediate level. In order to have two homogeneous classes, the researcher administered a proficiency test among 90 students of two institutes. Among them 60 learners who scored one standard deviation above and one standard deviation below the mean were selected. Then she ranked students based on their performance on the test. The researcher randomly assigned one subject to the control group and another to the experimental group, to ensure the homogeneity of the control and experimental groups. Experimental group received treatment which was focusing on the learning logs as a self-assessment tool during their treatment and the control group did not receive any treatment.

Instrumentations

The researcher intended to use CELT as the proficiency test and the teacher-made test for the pre-and post-test. The comprehensive English Language Test (CELT) as a proficiency test was piloted on students who were at the same level of pre-intermediate, and acceptable Cronbach index (0.832) was obtained and so it was proven reliable and all the items were multiple-choice

items. The tests were scored by help of some scales and the results were evaluated with SPSS and EXCEL software. CELT was used as a proficiency test in order to ensure the homogeneity of the participants in terms of linguistic knowledge. The researcher with the help of SPSS and MS EXCEL 2007 software evaluated scores on proficiency tests. The teacher-made test was used for the pre-and post-test which included total structures of grammar and the researcher wanted to investigate the students' improvement in conditional and passive forms. First of all, the pre-test was piloted on 10 students who were at the same level of the experimental and control groups for standardization. Both the pre-and post-test were based on multiple choice and the participants had to answer the items on an answer sheet.

Procedure

After administration of the proficiency test, 60 participants whose scores were between one standard deviation above and one standard deviation below the mean score were selected. Then the scores were ranked and the participants were randomly assigned into two groups. It had been tried that each group contain participants of all ranks. Both of control and experimental groups after being homogenized with respect to their result of proficiency test had a four-week-course, and eighty minutes for each session. Before administration of the pre-test for the researcher to make sure of the reliability of the test, the test was administered to a group of 10 students who were at the same level of the target groups. Then the data gathered from the administration was analyzed to ensure the reliability and validity of the test.

Treatment

First of all, all the pre-intermediate students in Parsa and Amin institutes were asked to change the Persian sentences in to the English sentences which were included conditional and passive forms. According to this teacher research, because of several models of these structures, students had lots of problems at theses institutes and for this reason the researcher made decision to teach these structure on the basis of the self-assessment technique instead of traditional assessment.

During 20 sessions (four weeks) of treatment, the researcher taught conditional and passive forms from Interchange and Headway books. At the beginning of treatment students were asked to make logs in the class. It was explained how students had to make logs and how to write about their feelings and thoughts in their logs. Therefore they could write about the difficulties they had in conditional and passive forms and what they could do with this structure after each unit. The students made log after each unit and they also wrote about their learning and practicing plans.

Experimental group

The experimental group consisted of 30 students. The students in this group were taught by one of the researchers, using the technique of the students' self-assessment and at the beginning of the course the researcher explained about making logs. After teaching of every unit students were asked to make logs. Then at the end of each unit, they should write their thoughts, beliefs, and the difficulties they had in the forms of conditional and passive as far as possible. It was certain method to measure how well students have learned the taught material was used. All of the students in the experimental group should do this activity in the class and the researcher gave their students time to respond. The purpose of this activity was to provide both the teacher and the students with true information about the students' learning outcomes and their needs. It also gave the teacher immediate feedback about the students' learning. Therefore, after analyzing the students' feedback, if the researcher felt that the class had failed to understand a certain point; she could try to modify teaching strategy for the next class to teach that particular point again. To achieve this goal, the researcher collected the students' feedback and sorted it in order to have a clear idea of what to discuss in the next class.

This information was exchanged between the students and the teacher by logs; therefore the researcher could utilize it to improve activities and methods in the class. The Students wrote about themselves and about what they should do for improving more in their logs. According to (Richards, 2003), the students can express themselves in these following forms:

- After this unit I studied.....
- After this unit I learned.....
- My difficulties were.....
- My learning and practicing plans were.....

Control group

The control group also consisted of 30 students. The students in that group were also taught by the same researcher. In this group, students were not asked to make logs and they did not have to make log for assessing themselves. Teacher utilized only the traditional techniques of classroom assessment.

Design

According to Mackey and Gass (2005) the design of this research was a comparison group design, a subcategory of quasi-experimental design, and sampling design was intact group design. The dependant variable is syntactic development; the independent variable is the effect of learning log as a self-assessment tool, and the language proficiency level is considered as control variable.

The diagram of such a design is as follow:

G1 (control)	T1		T3
G2 (experimental)	T3	X	T4

In this research T1 and T3 refer to the pre-test before applying the treatment and T2and T4 refer to the post-test. The Post-test was administered at the end of the course.

Data analysis

For testing hypothesis, there was a t-test which was a quantitative procedure. Computer based statistical program such as SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Science) was conducted. According to Hatch and Farhady (1981) t-test is an excellent statistical procedure to use in comparing two means, in order to get relationship between two sets of scores and final logical answer to the research question.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Descriptive Analysis of CELT proficiency test score

The researcher administered the proficiency test among students who were in 6 classes of 15 members. All of them were at the pre-intermediate level. Table 1 illustrates the descriptive statistics of CELT proficiency test.

Table 1: Descriptive statistics of CELT proficiency test.

		Statistic	Std. Error	
scores	Mean	77.1667	2.23988	
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	72.7161	
		Upper Bound	81.6173	
	Median	83.0000		
	Variance	451.534		
	Std. Deviation	21.24932		
	Minimum	28.00		
	Maximum	100.00		

In this table the Standard deviation, mean score, and variance are 21.24, 77.16, and 451.53. Before administration of the pre-test for the researcher to make sure of the reliability of the test, the teacher-made test that was given to the both groups was administered to a group of 10 students who were at the same level of the target group. According to the Table 2 the researcher used Cronbach Alpha to investigate item facilities and difficulties. Table 2 illustrates the reliability of teacher-made test.

Table 2: Reliability of teacher made test

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.734	40

As can be seen in this table, the teacher-made test was administered and acceptable Cronbach Alpha index (0.734) was obtained and so it was proven reliable and the researcher could use it as the pre-and post-test between the experimental and control groups.

Descriptive Analysis of the pre-and post-test scores

As it was discussed previously, after piloting the pre-test, the subjects were given a pre-test. Before investigating the results on the scores of the pre-test, the descriptive statistics were presented in order to summarize the available data and describe the main futures of the data. Table 3 shows the results of the pre-test scores in the control and experimental groups.

Table 3: Results of the pre-test in the control and experimental groups.

		exp group in pre test	control group in pre test
N	Valid	30	30
	Missing	0	0
Mean		78.4667	79.3667
Std. Error of Mean		1.54751	1.21909

Median	77.0000	78.5000
Mode	77.00	78.00
Std. Deviation	8.47607	6.23302
Variance	71.844	44.585
Minimum	64.00	68.00
Maximum	96.00	93.00
Sum	2354.00	2381.00

As it is observable, the mean score of control group in the pre-test is equal to 79.36 and that of the experimental group is 78.46. They are close to each other and it seems that there is not remarkably significant difference between them. Table 4 shows independent t-test comparing the control and experimental groups at the beginning of the research.

Table 4: Independent t-test comparing the control and experimental groups in the 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
g r o u p s	2.384	.128	-.457	58	.649	-.90000	1.97001	-4.84341	3.04341
				54.986	.650	-.90000	1.97001	-4.84802	3.04802

As the table shows the level of significance and the t-value of this test are .128 and -.457 respectively. As you can see, the significance value is far above the .05 level of significance, and the difference between the two means is not significant. In other words, there was no significant difference between the scores at the outset of the research. Therefore, it comes to be known the two groups were homogenous.

Table 5: Dependent t-test comparing the pre and post-test of the experimental group.

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Paired Sample 1: exp group in post test - exp group in pre test	3.53333	2.56949	.46912	2.57387	4.49280	7.532	29	.000

It can be seen in the table that the significance level was below 0.05 and the degree of freedom, mean, standard deviation and standard error of measurement were 29, 3.53, 2.56, and 0.46 respectively.

The sharp difference between the two means indicated that the students improved substantially. Consequently the significance value is below 0.05. Table 6 shows the pre and post-test of the control group.

Table 6: Dependent t-test comparing the pre and post-test of the control group.

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Paired Sample 1: control group in the post test - control group in the pre test	.40000	1.88643	.34441	-.30440	1.10440	1.161	29	.255

The difference between the means of the pre- and post-test is insignificant, which indicates the students did not improve significantly during the course. As can be seen the significance value is above 0.05 and null hypotheses has not been rejected. Thus, the results came to be insignificant. Whereas, in table 6 the significance value is below 0.05 which indicates there is sharp difference between the means of the pre-and post-test in the experimental group during the course and this improvement can be related to the treatment of the experimental group.

CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

According to the result of t-test which was used to indicate the statistical significance of the difference between the means on two sets of scores, it could be concluded that the mean score of the experimental group is (82) with a standard deviation of (7.26), while the mean score of the control group is (79.76) with a standard deviation of (6.34). The results show that there is a significant difference between post-test scores of the students of the experimental group over the students of the control group after treatment due to the method of self-assessment. This indicates that the implementation of logs as a self-assessment had a positive effect on the students' performance in syntax (conditional and passive forms).

Pedagogical implication

In the section below, by making use of results obtained in the previous chapter, the research question posed in the first chapter is addressed then the researcher summarizes the findings in support the claim that due to the implementation of the self-assessment technique there was a statistically significant differences between the mean scores of the performance of the subjects of the experimental group over the period of the study compared to the mean scores of the subjects of the control group. Regarding to the research results, there is a significant relationship between use of log as a tool for detecting students' feeling and attitudes and syntactical development. As results in tables and show, the participants in experimental group who were exposed to making logs improved more significantly from pre-test to post-test in syntax than control group who were not exposed to this technique. It took students about three weeks from the first introduction of learning logs and self-assessment techniques to learn how to use them effectively to assess them.

At the beginning, many students were reluctant to express themselves through short sentences which was included their attitudes in the form of different examples of what they had taught. They wrote very few and vague comments. Sometimes they wrote that they understood when they really did not. The researcher had to spend some time with those students to explain to them that the technique aimed at helping the teacher to determine the students' problems so that she can handle them properly and to be aware of the students' strengths in order to reinforce them and to be aware of students' weakness in order to solve their problems.

The second point was that, the researcher noticed that the use of log was very useful, especially for students who were shy and reluctant to cite what they did not understand. Therefore students could express themselves, their feelings, attitudes, thoughts and their performance by writing different examples of related structures in the logs for assessing themselves and by this technique they could be aware of their strengths and weaknesses better than before. Also students' self-assessment had effect on the teacher strategies, it also gave the teacher immediate feedback about the students' learning after each units. Therefore, after analyzing the students' feedback, if the researcher felt that the class had failed to understand a certain point; she could try another teaching strategy for the next class to teach that particular point again. Because of being close relationship between teacher and students, students' self-assessment had effect on teacher's strategies and researcher could modified her strategies to teach certain point on the basis of students' needs, strengths, and weaknesses. Also, this technique of self-assessment encouraged students to participate more openly which was clear from the researcher. It directed students to write more accurate and honest answers, especially when they felt that they would not be judged

by marks. It also helped the students to direct their own effort more effectively which was clear in the paper work which they had submitted, especially towards the end of the study.

Suggestion for further research

It is believed that, this study covered a narrow scope of language learning strategies, and other researchers and interested students are recommended to carry out related studies to achieve more knowledge in this regard. It since the study was narrowed down in terms of its participants, and self-assessment technique, it seems necessary to point out some further research to done in this regard. Many factors, such as the subjects' genders and individual differences, social background were not taken in to consideration. Thus, in interpretation the results, we should consider that those factors might have affected students' ability in syntax. Also this research focused on some aspects of grammar (conditional and passive forms), while further research can be done over the other aspects of grammar. The need is felt to carry out similar experiments to investigate the long term effects of self-assessment techniques for other skills such as, writing, reading, listening, and even speaking. This research could be replicated with learners at higher and lower levels of language proficiency rather than pre-intermediate levelers were considered in the present study.

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Appendix

This is a form of the log which the students were asked to write.

Student's Name..... Structure..... Date.....

After this unit I studied.....

After this unit I learned (write example).....

My difficulties are.....

I would like to know.....

My learning and practicing plans are (complete in the forms of conditional and passive as far as possible)

CONTEXTUALIZATION VERSUS INFERENCING STRATEGIES TO DEVELOP VOCABULARY LEARNING AMONG INTERMEDIATE EFL STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT

This study was an attempt to investigate the effect of teaching two cognitive strategies i.e. Contextualization versus Inferencing on the Iranian intermediate English as a foreign language (EFL) students vocabulary development. In this study, the researchers have employed two Contextualization and Inferencing strategies taken from Brown (2000) to teach forty intermediate words to 77 participants. The participants were intermediate students of Golestan Language Institute who were divided into two experimental and one control groups. One of the groups benefited from Contextualization, the other one received Inferencing strategies, and no specific treatment was applied for control group. Based on the definition of cognitive strategies and the two selected strategies, the researchers tried to manipulate the teaching materials in a way that the words were placed in a meaningful sequence for Contextualization, and provided some information and clues that helped participants to guess the meaning of the new words for Inferencing. The results of this study gained through t-test and Oneway ANOVA analysis, indicated that the Contextualization strategy was more helpful in development of the intended vocabulary, since the related group's results outweighed the findings of the other two groups, in other words the difference between the mean scores of Contextualization and Inferencing strategies was statistically significant. The findings of this study suggest that the teachers should take advantage of the cognitive strategies more effectively in their classes while teaching vocabulary.

KEYWORDS: Vocabulary development, Strategies, Contextualization, Inferencing.

INTRODUCTION

Lexis plays a crucial role in the area of second and foreign language learning which has widely been acknowledged in vocabulary research. It is quite vital for L2 and foreign language learners to acquire an impressive command of vocabulary of that language to become successful learners. Singleton (2007) states that “the major challenge of learning and using a language –whether as L1 or L2- lies not in the area of broad syntactic principles, but in the ‘nitty-gritty’ of the lexicon.” (Singleton, as cited in Murcia 2007.) Hunt and Beglar (2005) also argue that “the heart of language comprehension and use is the lexicon.” Besides these important issues of vocabulary that has even been considered as to be the Cinderella of the field of second language acquisition research during much of the twentieth century (Levenston, 1979;

Richards, 1976), it has been neglected and undervalued throughout its varying stages and up to the present day.

Undoubtedly, all language teachers and learners believe that learning a second language requires learning a large value of vocabulary of the target language, but their most important concern is how to accomplish this task. It is important to know how vocabulary is best acquired, and what the instructor can do to develop the process of lexicon acquisition. For sure, dictionaries are the first and most reliable sources for this aim, but they are not enough since the new vocabulary is internalized well when the words are learnt in effective ways rather than just checking them in the dictionaries, and also through its later use. On the other hand, English L2 and FL learners are often criticized for using unhelpful ways when learning vocabulary. Therefore, it seems a pivotal problem which needs specific strategies to deal with.

According to Rasekh (2003) and Oxford (1994) successful learners unconsciously develop their own special traits including some behaviors and techniques which help them to boost their process of L2 acquisition. Whenden (1991) also claims that these actions, behaviors and steps that learners apply are learning strategies that would facilitate the obtaining, storage, retrieval and use of the input information.

Based on H. Douglas Brown (2000), learning strategies are divided into three main categories. a) Metacognitive strategies that involve planning for learning and thinking about the learning process as it is taking place. b) Cognitive strategies that are more limited to specific learning tasks and involve more direct manipulation of the learning material itself. c) Socioaffective strategies that have to do with social mediating activity which interact with others. In this study, the researchers have chosen two cognitive strategies “Contextualization” and “Inferencing”, the former refers to placing a word or phrase in a meaningful language sequence while the latter refers to using available information to guess the meaning of new items, predict outcomes, or fill in missing information.

The purpose of the study has been to implement these two strategies in teaching Iranian intermediate EFL students, and at the same time make a comparison between their effectiveness.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

It is generally accepted that a considerable percentage of L2 vocabulary acquisition on the part of learners occurs incidentally, in other words to make the new words learned and retained a variety of textual enhancement techniques could be applied (Robinson, 1994).

According to Arani (2005) there are a great number of researches on vocabulary and its different aspects, but the most focus is on how learners process the newly taught information and what strategies they use to comprehend and restore them. Therefore, it is worth studying the present strategies and take advantage of the best ones which suit our purpose.

Oxford (1990) is one of those who tried to present a very comprehensive taxonomy of language learning strategies. The main distinction in his classification is between direct strategies and indirect strategies. Oxford divided the direct strategies into three: memory strategies (used for storing and retrieving aspects of the target language), cognitive strategies (used for using the language and for understanding how it works), and compensation strategies (used for using the language despite gaps in knowledge). On the other hand, indirect strategies cover metacognitive strategies (used for planning, organizing, and evaluating

learning), affective strategies (used for approaching the task positively), and social strategies (used for collaborating with others for assistance).

Considering the importance of strategies, this study is based on two metacognitive strategies, Contextualization and Inferencing which were defined in chapter one. Theoretically, Contextualized vocabulary acquisition (CVA) is primarily a vocabulary learning method used in learning a second language or foreign language through the use of contextual tools. It involves inferring the meaning of words in a given context, most often a text. As opposed to de-contextualized learning, this type of vocabulary learning is incidental and depends on the context the learner is exposed to. Vocabulary here is not systematically learned for a specific purpose, even if its understanding and acquisition will become purposeful in the long run. This strategy is not suitable for beginners as it implies that the student has already acquired a certain level in L2 in order to be able to read a second language and infer meaning of particular words from the main context. It also implies more complex cognitive processes by the learner who is actively seeking meaning as opposed to mere memorization of a list of words, which conforms to its "opposite" strategy of de-contextualized vocabulary learning. CVA requires students to make more efforts to find out the meaning of words. Concentration, perseverance and reasoning are the types of skills students are bound to develop by using contextualized vocabulary acquisition extensively (Ghanbari, Kassaian & Duppenhaler, 2011).

Inferencing on the other hand, has been defined as the connections that people establish when they try to interpret texts (Brown & Yule, 1983). It is appropriately related to global understanding of longer pieces of discourse in which context may exercise an influence in enabling comprehension. Therefore, inferencing and meaning-guessing are the products of contextualization. As such, EFL learners can possibly derive the meaning of unknown words using the context in which they appear, that is, a sentence in which the word to be learned appears (Clarke & Nation, 1980; Chern, 1993; Huckin & Bloch, 1993; Rott, 1999). Lexical inferencing from information available has been recognized in recent years as an important strategy for dealing with unknown words (Buikema & Graves, 1993; Fraser, 1999; Nazmia, 2004; Parel, 2004). It involves using a variety of linguistic and nonlinguistic clues to guess meanings when the learner does not know all the words (Oxford, 1990a,b).

Inferences involve information that is not explicit in the text, but that the reader adds on the basis of the congruence between the explicit text content and his or her prior knowledge. Two main types of knowledge-based inferences in reading have been distinguished: connective inferences and elaborative inferences (Singer, 1994). The former are necessary to establish a coherent propositional representation of the successive parts of the text, thus integrating explicit information in a message. The latter serve to extend or refine the explicit content and thus help to construct a mental model of the situation described by the message. The examination of lexical inferencing also often needs to consider the following two aspects. One is using linguistic and other knowledge to infer the unknown words; the other is using the cognitive processes to infer the meaning of new words. Actually, it is difficult to separate the knowledge and process in that "although serial hypothesizing, guessing and decision-making processes seem to be governed by conscious decision making and can be followed in a think-aloud protocol, many generation and recognition activities are relatively unanalyzable, because they are unconscious and possibly parallel processes and therefore readers are not able to report them" (Roskams, 2005:71).

RESEARCH QUESTION

Implementation of this study tries to answer the following research questions:

1. Does implementation of Contextualization and Inferencing strategies significantly affects student's vocabulary knowledge?
2. What are the statistically significant differences between the effects of these two strategies in learning and internalizing the new vocabulary?

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

In learning a second language, vocabulary has a crucial role and in order to communicate well in the real context, an adequate number of words and the knowledge of using them is required. Additionally, many scholars acknowledge the intimate relationship between the vocabulary and the four skills. Rhoder and Huerster (2002) confirm the need for language learners to have extensive vocabulary knowledge in reading and listening. Ultimately, the understanding of the student's problems in vocabulary learning and the ways we can foster this process seems to play an important role not only for teachers and material developers, but also for students themselves. If students develop their own strategies and become more independent learners as a result it can enable them to provide and design materials and activities that will enhance their lexical competence. On the other hand, awareness of strategies through strategy teaching will lead to autonomy. According to Weden (1985), the autonomy of students and learners should be aligned with teacher's goal of facilitating self-directed learning by introducing and recommending strategies to encourage the learners to discover which strategy suits them better. In this study, two cognitive strategies have been put into practice to come to a conclusion that which strategy helps students to improve and internalize the new vocabulary better.

METHODOLOGY

Participants and Setting

This study was carried out at Golestan Language Institute, the official branch of Simin Language Institute on Golestan Street, Mashhad, Iran. The participants of this study were 77 students from six intermediate classes at the Golestan Language Institute in the summer of 2012. Each of these classes consisted of eleven to fourteen male and female students with the average age of 20. One of the researchers was the teacher of these classes and by applying some changes in the syllabus that have been approved by the supervisor; he could provide adequate time to carry out the treatment.

Instrumentation

In order to collect the required information the researchers took advantage of a Nelson proficiency test i.e. 200 A by Fowler and Coe (1976), this intermediate test contained 50 items including 36 structural single items and 14 structural continuous prose. The test was run to select homogenous groups of intermediate students based on their proficiency. And a pre-test prepared by the researchers which was used as the post-test too. It should be noted that the test was developed by the researchers since there was no valid and reliable test in the market meeting the needs of the researchers. The validity of the test was also reviewed and revised by two experts in the field. In order to check the reliability, the test was piloted on twenty similar intermediate students of Golestan Language Institute. The data was used to estimate the Cronbach's Alpha value which proved to be .816.

The pre-test contained forty vocabulary test items based on the prepared and selected vocabulary that were supposed to be taught to the participants through the use of the two contextualization and inferencing strategies.

Design

The design of the study was quasi-experimental with three groups. In this study, there were one control group and two experimental groups. The participants were from six classes. A pre-test-treatment-post-test design was employed to verify the effect of Inferencing vs. Contextualization strategies.

Procedure

This study was conducted at Golestan Language Institute in Mashhad in the summer of 2012; three intact groups from six classes of this institute who were taught by one of the researchers were selected as the participants. The researcher omitted the snapshot and perspective parts of the New Interchange book 2 that seemed easier for the students which have been approved by the supervisor, and could save fifteen minutes each session for the teaching of the intended vocabulary items. Most of the students were hard working and cooperated well with the researcher. Although based on the institute placement test all the students were at the intermediate level, the Nelson test also showed that the participants were homogeneous. After the Nelson test, the pre-test was conducted.

After analyzing the average of the obtained scores it was concluded that all the participants did not have a prior knowledge of the 78.85% of the prepared intermediate words. In the next session of the class, the researcher let the students know that they would be presented with forty additional and useful words. They were told that every other week, they would be given four words each session, and after twenty sessions a test would be conducted in order to verify how well they have learned and memorized the words. At the beginning of each session, the researcher dedicated fifteen minutes to teaching the new words and the rest of the session was spent on the normal teaching procedure of the New Interchange book 2. As mentioned above, each session four words were taught to the groups, and it took ten sessions in two months to complete the teaching process. In the control group, the method of teaching new words was similar with the method used in their own book to teach vocabulary. The words were listed on the board, and then pronounced by the teacher. The students were supposed to use their dictionaries, and when they had any problems, they asked the researcher.

In the other two groups i.e. Inferencing and Contextualization, new vocabulary were taught based on the inferencing and contextualization strategies already prepared by the researcher according to the definitions and guidelines acquired during the thesis preparation. First of all, the new words were written on the board and then the teacher asked participants to listen to the pronunciation of the words carefully. The students listened to the teacher pronunciation four or five times, and then the teacher wrote the sentences he already prepared on the board for each word. In the inferencing strategy group, each word was followed by an example that contained some clues that helped the participants to infer the meaning of the word, while in the contextualization strategy group, each word was followed by a short contextualized dialog that helped participants to guess the meaning of the new word. After the participants read the given sentences on the board they were asked to guess the meaning of the new words individually. Then, in order to make sure that the participants guessed and inferred the correct meaning, the teacher used the spot check technique. Most of the students had correct guesses and those who were not sure about the exact meaning, got the correct meaning after the spot checking. Finally, after all the students found out the meaning of the new words, the words were pronounced again by the teacher and this time the participants were asked to repeat the words after the teacher. Students were also asked to write down the words and the given Contextualization and Inferencing examples at the end of the teaching process.

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Analysis of the data is a multi-level process in which the whole gathered information would be summarized, classified in order to provide a chance to verify and analyze the different relationships between the data to investigate the research questions. In this process the data would be analyzed both experimentally and conceptually and various statistical techniques have a vital role in conclusion and generalization. In this section, the obtained data through pre-test and post-test are analyzed by statistical techniques, and the results would answer the research questions.

In order to make sure that changes in the scores of the groups are only affected by the treatments, the participants are supposed to be as homogenous as possible. While investigating the research hypotheses it is important to determine the methods that we use to make the comparison between the control group and the experimental groups, in other words if we want to apply the classical tests we should verify the different dimensions of normality hypothesis. The normality hypothesis has been tested through One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test and its results for each group are presented below. Based on the following hypothesis, One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test shows that the observations are normally distributed.

H_0 : Observations distribution is normal

H_1 : Observations distribution is not normal

When the P-value exceeds the standard normal value i.e. 0.05 the zero hypothesis is rejected proving the fact that the observations are normally distributed. The normality hypothesis has been tested through One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test and its results for each group are presented in (Table 1).

Table 1: Results of Kolmogorov-Smirnov test

	Pre-test A (control)	Post-test A (control)	Pre-test B	Post-test B	Pre-test C	Post-test C
N	26	26	25	25	26	26
Normal Mean	8.4231	20.4231	8.6000	21.6800	8.3846	20.1154
Paramete Std.	3.16447	5.20133	3.8297	6.64404	4.04056	5.13285
rs ^{a,b} Deviation			1			
Most Absolute	.245	.128	.115	.102	.147	.163
Extreme Positive	.245	.118	.111	.080	.147	.163
Differenc Negative	-.173	-.128	-.115	-.102	-.100	-.080
es						
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z	1.252	.654	.574	.511	.750	.831
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.087	.785	.897	.956	.628	.495

a. Test distribution is Normal.

b. Calculated from data.

Results of (Table1) indicate that the obtained scores of the participants in the three groups of the study are definitely distributed normally. Therefore, the normality hypothesis of the observations would not be rejected. According to the gathered information, zero hypothesis and accepting the normality hypothesis for the observations we are allowed to employ classical tests to compare the results of the control and experimental groups. In order to compare the two samples using classical tests it is important to employ t-

student test since the variance of the society is not determined. This test is different for dependent and independent samples, in this research the samples are independent hence we employ the t-student distribution with an n-2 degree of freedom.

In order to investigate the first question after analysis of the groups and determining the unity of them we need to compare the post-test scores of group A (control) and group B (contextualization) and also the post-test scores of group A (control) and group C (inferencing) that the results of this evaluation are presented in (Table 2) and (Table 3).

Table 2: Groups A and B Post-test Comparisons

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
							Lower	Upper
Post-test A_B	Equal variances assumed	.903	.347	-2.194	49	.033	-6.62385	-.28999
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.187	47.337	.034	-6.63606	-.27778

The estimated absolute value of the statistics is ($t = -2.194$) which exceeds the same value in t-student table which is ($t = 1.701$). Considering the mentioned facts, by 95 percent confidence we conclude that the difference between the post-test scores of group A (control) and group B is significant therefore the hypothesis is accepted.

Table 3: Groups A and C Post-test Comparisons

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
							Lower	Upper
Post-test A_C	Equal variances assumed	.401	.529	.679	49	.500	-1.76953	3.57568
	Equal variances not assumed			.682	47.687	.499	-1.76043	3.56659

The estimated absolute value of the statistics is ($t = 0.679$) which is less than the same value in t-student table which is ($t = 1.701$). The Significance (2-tailed) value is 0.500 which is more than the significance level (0.05). Consequently, by 95 percent confidence we conclude that there is no significant difference between the post-test scores of group C and group A (control), and as the zero hypothesis is not significant the hypothesis is rejected.

Based on the above information and the obtained scores the researchers conclude that implementation of Contextualization strategy improves students' vocabulary development. On the other hand, teaching Inferencing strategy was also helpful but not as much as Contextualization and even the routine procedure of teaching in the control group.

In order to investigate the second question after analysis of the groups and determining the unity of them we need to compare the pre-test and post-test scores of group B with group C that the results of this evaluation are presented in (Table 4) and (Table 5).

Table 4: Groups B and C Pre-test Comparisons

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					
	F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		
						Lower	Upper	
Equal variances assumed	1.668	.203	.845	48	.402	-1.76953	2.70392	
Equal variances not assumed			.845	43.827	.403	-1.10861	2.70861	

The estimated absolute value of the statistics is ($t = 0.845$) which is less than the same value in t-student table which is ($t = 1.701$). The Significance (2-tailed) value is 0.402 which is less than the significance level (0.05). Therefore, by 95 percent confidence we come to this conclusion that the difference between the variables of the study is not significant. As the zero hypothesis is not significant, we conclude that the difference between the pre-test scores of group B and group C is not significant. This shows the unity of the groups before the beginning of the research.

Table 5: Groups B and C Post-test Comparisons

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					
	F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		
						Lower	Upper	
Equal variances assumed	2.809	.100	2.959	48	.005	1.39715	7.32285	
Equal variances not assumed			2.959	42.957	.005	1.38814	7.33186	

The estimated absolute value of the statistics is ($t = 2.959$) which exceeds the same value in t-student table which is ($t = 1.701$). The Significance (2-tailed) value is 0.005 which is less than the significance level (0.05). Therefore, by 95 percent confidence we conclude that the difference between the post-test scores of group B and group C is significant.

According to the above information the researchers conclude that teaching Contextualization strategy is more effective than teaching Inferencing strategy in learning and internalizing the new vocabulary.

On the other hand, by employing another test which is called Tukey test and based on ANOVA the researchers concluded that Contextualization is the most effective strategy in comparison with Inferencing strategy and the routine procedure of teaching in control group. The results of this ANOVA test are presented in (Table 6).

Table 6: Oneway ANOVA for QuestionTwo Post-test A B C

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	221.347	2	110.674	3.706	.029
Within Groups	2209.640	74	29.860		
Total	2430.987	76			

The results of this table suggest that the statistics F of research strategies calculated as $F = 3.706$ with a freedom degree of (2, 74) exceeds the standard F statistics that is $F_{0.95, 2, 74} = 3.11$. We can see that the significance level is 0.029 ($p = .029$), which is below 0.05. Therefore, the zero hypothesis is rejected and by 95 percent confidence we conclude that the difference between the means of the groups is significant. Consequently, we can state that there is a statistically significant difference in the mean of three groups using different kind of strategies to learn vocabulary.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Based on the gathered and analyzed data the researchers can conclude that, first: employing Contextualization strategy in teaching the new vocabularies was effective; second, employing Inferencing strategy in teaching the new vocabularies was not as effective as Contextualization.

At the beginning of the research, the researchers decided to take advantage of two cognitive strategies i.e. Contextualization and Inferencing in teaching forty new and unfamiliar intermediate words to the three groups of homogenous participants. In this study, group A was the control group and groups B and C were the experimental groups of the study. Group B benefited from contextualization treatment and group C received the inferencing strategy as treatment. The researchers believed that implementation of these strategies would help participants to improve their vocabulary development, so first of all a pre-test was hold to determine that the participants did not have a prior knowledge of the prepared new vocabularies. The results of the pre-test indicated that the new words were unfamiliar to the participants. In the second stage, the words were taught regarding the above mentioned strategies for the experimental groups and the control group through the routine procedure of teaching. The treatment process took four weeks, and in the final stage the post-test was conducted. The results of the post-test indicated that only the overall scores of group B which received Contextualization strategy outweighed the results of the control group. Based on the results of the analysis done through classical tests such as T-test and ANOVA the researchers concluded that teaching the Contextualization strategy was more effective in learning the unfamiliar words in comparison with the Inferencing strategy. On the other hand, although teaching the Inferencing strategy helped participants to learn the intended vocabulary, it did not result in a more effective change in

comparison with the development of the participants in control group who received no specific treatment but gained higher scores. The researchers can claim that based on the obtained post-test scores the participants in group B who were exposed to Contextualization strategy have learned and retained the vocabularies more effectively in comparison with group C and control group, but those in group C who received the Inferencing strategy did not show as much improvement in vocabulary development as the other two groups.

The results of the current study can be compared and contrasted with the related studies mentioned in the review of the literature. In the first study that was held in the Philippine (2009), on five groups with different branches of studying, the use of fifty three common vocabulary strategies was used. Correlation analysis of the study showed positive association between these vocabulary strategies and the results indicated improvement in the student's vocabulary learning. In the second study that was carried out in King Khalid University (2009), inferencing of new lexicon in context versus non-context vocabulary presentation was verified. The results showed that both direct teaching and teaching through context approaches were effective. Another issue suggested that training on contextualized meaning-guessing could help EFL students to learn the vocabularies without exact equivalents in their first language.

The third study which was done in the W. State University of New York at Buffalo (2008) on fourteen adolescents. The researcher tried to employ contextual vocabulary acquisition through authentic passages. The results of the study showed that the inferencing process was very effective and helped students to determine specific parts of the text. These findings suggest that researchers may use broader range of context in teaching vocabulary.

The results of the current study as discussed so far also showed a positive and effective influence on students' vocabulary learning while Contextualization and Inferencing strategies were employed. However, the comparison findings revealed a significant difference between Contextualization and Inferencing strategies in which Contextualization strategy was seen more effective and more helpful. Taking into account the above results from other studies and the results obtained in this study, the researchers conclude that employing vocabulary cognitive strategies is most of the time beneficial and students can take advantage of them in vocabulary acquisition.

PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

There are some pedagogical implications which can suggest and provide fruitful guidelines related to different ELT issues. Teachers can provide their students rich contexts to help them learn new words. Also, the strategies utilized in the present study can be introduced to language teachers as well as learners as effective ways to learn vocabulary. The materials designers and developers should concern more on materials with rich contexts to present words.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Based on the findings of the current study, the following suggestions may seem beneficial and merit attention. If we consider the unsuccessful process of learning the lexicon that usually does not last long then based on H. Douglas Brown (2000) we need to take advantage of some strategies which are said to be specific attacks that we make on a given problem. The interested researchers can first of all try other cognitive strategies and compare them with the two strategies (contextualization and inferencing) or with any strategy that they think might result in more improvement, and then they can try the other two categories of Brown strategies i.e. metacognitive and socioaffective strategies.

The employment of these strategies in other areas of language acquisition e.g. different parts of grammar like interlanguage pragmatics development (e.g. Koike & Pearson, 2005) and collocations (e.g. Richard Xiao & Tony Mcenery, 2006) is another line for interested researchers. This study investigated the effect of teaching Contextualization and Inferencing strategies on Iranian intermediate EFL learners vocabulary development, the interested researchers can investigate the existence of any effect on advanced learners too, whereas the employment of these strategies is not recommended for beginners and elementary learners since Ghanbari, Kassaian, & Duppenhaler (2011) state that Contextualization strategy is not suitable for beginners as it implies that the students have already acquired a certain level in L2 in order to be able to read a second language and infer meaning of particular words from the main context.

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Appendix

How inferencing was put into practice:

Word entry: Export: *Oil is the most important export of Iran.*

How contextualization was put into practice for the same word entry:

A: This year there was a lot of rain.

B: Yes, and it was great for farmers.

A: So they can get more crops this year.

B: Yes and the government can export some of the extra crops to other countries.



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